1.3 LU decomposition

Example 9.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 2 & 3 \\ -16 & 5 & 6 \\ -25 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication (on the right) with that "almost identity matrix" is performing the column operation $C_1 - 4C_2 \Rightarrow C_1$ (i.e. -4 times the second column is added to the first column).

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication (on the left) with the same matrix is performing the row operation $R_2 - 4R_1 \Rightarrow R_2$.

First comment. This hints at a second interpretation of matrix multiplication: instead of taking linear combinations of columns of the first matrix, we can also take linear combinations of rows of the second matrix.

Second comment. The row operations we are doing during Gaussian elimination can be realized by multiplying (on the left) with "almost identity matrices".

These matrices are called **elementary matrices** (they are obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on an identity matrix).

Elementary matrices are **invertible** because elementary row operations are reversible:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \frac{1}{2} & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \frac{1}{2} & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 10. Let us do Gaussian elimination on $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ until we have an echelon form:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \overset{R_2 - 2R_1 \Rightarrow R_2}{\rightsquigarrow} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

As in the previous example, the row operation can be encoded by multiplication with an elementary matrix:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{E}\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 \end{bmatrix}}_{A} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}}_{U}$$

Since $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (no calculation needed!), this means that

$$A = E^{-1}U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We factored A as the product of a lower and an upper triangular matrix!

> $A = LU$ is known as the **LU decomposition** of A.
>
> L is lower triangular, U is upper triangular.

If A is $m \times n$, then L is an invertible lower triangular $m \times m$ matrix, and U is a usual **echelon form** of A. Every matrix A has a LU decomposition (after possibly swapping some rows of A first).

Example 11. Determine the LU decomposition of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

[**Solution.** $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$]

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1.4 Diagonalization

Suppose that A is $n \times n$ and has independent eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_n$.
Then A can be **diagonalized** as $A = PDP^{-1}$, where

- the columns of P are the eigenvectors, and
- the diagonal matrix D has the eigenvalues on the diagonal

Such a diagonalization is possible if and only if A has enough (independent) eigenvectors.

Comment. If you don't quite recall why these choices result in the diagonalization $A = PDP^{-1}$, note that the diagonalization is equivalent to $AP = PD$.

- Put the eigenvectors $\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n$ as columns into a matrix P.

$$A\boldsymbol{x}_i = \lambda_i \boldsymbol{x}_i \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \boldsymbol{x}_1 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{x}_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \lambda_1\boldsymbol{x}_1 & \cdots & \lambda_n\boldsymbol{x}_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \boldsymbol{x}_1 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{x}_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- In summary: $AP = PD$

Example 12. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

(a) Find the eigenvalues and bases for the eigenspaces of A.

(b) Diagonalize A. That is, determine matrices P and D such that $A = PDP^{-1}$.

Solution.

(a) By expanding by the second column, we find that the characteristic polynomial is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2-\lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2-\lambda)\begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2-\lambda)[(4-\lambda)(3-\lambda)-2] = (2-\lambda)^2(5-\lambda).$$

Hence, the eigenvalues are $\lambda = 2$ (with multiplicity 2) and $\lambda = 5$.

For $\lambda = 5$, the eigenspace $\operatorname{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. (Fill in the details if necessary!)

For $\lambda = 2$, the eigenspace $\operatorname{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right)$ has basis $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

[The **row-reduced echelon form (RREF)** of $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.]

(b) A possible choice is $P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Course comment:

Make sure that you are comfortable with diagonalization. We will soon discuss systems of linear differential equations. This is a beautiful application of linear algebra, and it relies on diagonalization.