

# 1

## SYSTEMS OF LINEAR EQUATIONS

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## 1.1 Introduction

- The system of *linear* equations is formed by the addition of the products of a variable with a coefficient, which is also a *constant*.
- The system of linear equation can be solved via *matrix approach*.
- The general form of a set of a linear equation having  $n$  linear equations and  $n$  unknowns is

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n & = & b_2 \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n & = & b_n \end{array} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are variables or unknowns,  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_j$  are coefficient or constant (real or complex).

- Eq. (1.1) can be written in a more compact form:

$$[a_{ij}] \cdot \{x_j\} = \{b_i\} \quad \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $\mathbf{A}$  is a matrix  $[a_{ij}]$  of size  $n \times n$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  is a variable vector  $\{x_j\}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is a right-hand side vector  $\{b_j\}$ .

- The process of solving Eq. (1.2) yield *three* possible solutions:

1. **Unique solution** — e.g.:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3x_1 & + & x_2 = 1 \\ x_1 & + & 3x_2 = 1 \end{array} \quad x_1 = x_2 = \frac{1}{4}$$

2. **No solution** — e.g.:

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} -x_1 & + & x_2 & = & 1 \\ x_1 & - & x_2 & = & 1 \end{array}$$

### 3. Infinite solutions — e.g.:

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} x_1 & + & x_2 & = & 1 \\ 2x_1 & + & 2x_2 & = & 2 \end{array}$$

## 1.2 Elimination Methods

- The most popular method is the *Gauss elimination* method, which comprises of two steps:
  - Forward elimination** to form an *upper triangular* system via *row-based transformation* process,
  - Back substitution** to produce the solution of  $x_j$ .
- Consider the following system:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1 \\
 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n & = & b_2 \\
 \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
 a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n & = & b_n
 \end{array}$$

If  $a_{11} \neq 0$ , for  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ , subtract the  $i$ -th equation with the product of  $a_{i1}/a_{11}$  with the first equation to produce the first transformed system:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 a_{11}x_1 & + & a_{12}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1 \\
 & & a_{22}^{(1)}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{2n}^{(1)}x_n & = & b_2^{(1)} \\
 & & \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
 & & a_{n2}^{(1)}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{nn}^{(1)}x_n & = & b_n^{(1)}
 \end{array}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_{ij}^{(1)} &= a_{ij} - \frac{a_{i1}}{a_{11}}a_{1j} \quad \text{for } i, j = 2, 3, \dots, n \\
 b_i^{(1)} &= b_i - \frac{a_{i1}}{a_{11}}b_1 \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, n
 \end{aligned}$$

The process can be repeated for  $(n-1)$  times until the  $(n-1)$ -th transformed system is formed as followed, which completes the forward eliminations:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 a_{11}x_1 & + & a_{12}x_2 & + & a_{13}x_3 & + & \cdots & + & a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1 \\
 & & a_{22}^{(1)}x_2 & + & a_{23}^{(1)}x_3 & + & \cdots & + & a_{2n}^{(1)}x_n & = & b_2^{(1)} \\
 & & & & a_{33}^{(2)}x_3 & + & \cdots & + & a_{3n}^{(2)}x_n & = & b_3^{(2)} \\
 & & & & & & \ddots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
 & & & & & & & & a_{nn}^{(n-1)}x_n & = & b_n^{(n-1)}
 \end{array} \tag{1.3}$$

where

$$a_{ij}^{(k)} = a_{ij}^{(k-1)} - \frac{a_{ik}^{(k-1)}}{a_{kk}^{(k-1)}} a_{kj}^{(k-1)} \quad \text{for } i, j = k+1, \dots, n \quad (1.4a)$$

$$b_i^{(k)} = b_i^{(k-1)} - \frac{a_{ik}^{(k-1)}}{a_{kk}^{(k-1)}} b_k^{(k-1)} \quad \text{for } i = k+1, \dots, n \quad (1.4b)$$

Back substitutions can then be executed so that  $x_j$  are solved:

$$x_n = \frac{b_n^{(n-1)}}{a_{nn}^{(n-1)}} \quad (1.5a)$$

$$x_k = \frac{1}{a_{kk}^{(k-1)}} \left[ b_k^{(k-1)} - \sum_{j=k+1}^n a_{kj}^{(k-1)} x_j \right] \quad \text{for } k = n-1, \dots, 1 \quad (1.5b)$$

- The above method can fail if  $a_{kk} \rightarrow 0$ , the row has to be interchanged, which is referred to as *pivoting*:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_2 & = & 2 \\ x_1 + x_2 & = & 3 \end{array} \xrightarrow{\text{Pivoting}} \begin{array}{rcl} x_1 + x_2 & = & 3 \\ x_2 & = & 2 \end{array}$$

where the new diagonal element  $a_{kk}^*$  is called a *pivot*, which can be selected among the maximum absolute value of  $a_{ik}$ .

- The pivotal Gauss elimination gives a more accurate solutions, e.g. consider these systems (values to be rounded up to 3 significant figures):

Original Gauss elimination:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 0.00126 & 0.417 & 0.418 \\ 1.34 & -0.708 & 0.632 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(2) - \frac{1.34}{0.00126}(1) \Rightarrow (2)} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 0.00126 & 0.417 & 0.418 \\ 0.0 & -444.184 & -443.908 \end{array} \right]$$

$x_2 = 0.999 \quad x_1 = 1.125$

Pivotal Gauss elimination:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 1.34 & -0.708 & 0.632 \\ 0.00126 & 0.417 & 0.418 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(2) - \frac{0.00126}{1.34}(1) \Rightarrow (2)} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 1.34 & -0.708 & 0.632 \\ 0.0 & 0.418 & 0.417 \end{array} \right]$$

$x_2 = 0.998 \quad x_1 = 0.999$

Exact solution:

$$x_1 = 1 \quad x_2 = 1$$

**Example 1.1**

Solve the following system using the Gauss elimination method:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 &= 1 \\ 4x_1 + 4x_2 + 7x_3 &= 1 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

*Solution*

The system can be rewritten in matrix form as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{Bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad [\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b}] \equiv \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

First step of forward elimination:

$$\xrightarrow[\substack{(2)-2(1) \Rightarrow (2) \\ (3)-(1) \Rightarrow (3)}]{(2)-(1) \Rightarrow (2)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

Second step of forward elimination:

$$\xrightarrow{(3)-2(2) \Rightarrow (3)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

Hence, the transformed upper triangular system is:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 &= 1 \\ 2x_2 + x_3 &= -1 \\ 4x_3 &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Back substitutions are as follows

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= 4/4 = 1 \\ x_2 &= \frac{-1 - x_3}{2} = -1 \\ x_1 &= \frac{1 - x_2 - 3x_3}{2} = -\frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$



**Example 1.2**

Perform the pivotal Gauss elimination to the system given in Example 1.1.

*Solution*

The pivotal Gauss elimination can be performed as followed:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 & 3 \end{array} \right] &\xrightarrow{(1) \Leftrightarrow (2)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} (2) - \frac{2}{4}(1) \Rightarrow (2) \\ (3) - \frac{2}{4}(1) \Rightarrow (3) \end{array}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 3 & \frac{11}{2} & \frac{5}{2} \end{array} \right] \\
 &\xrightarrow{(2) \Leftrightarrow (3)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & \frac{11}{2} & \frac{5}{2} \\ 0 & -1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(3) - \frac{-1}{3}(2) \Rightarrow (3)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 4 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & \frac{11}{2} & \frac{5}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{4}{3} \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the upper triangular system is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 4x_1 + 4x_2 + 7x_3 &= 1 \\
 3x_2 + \frac{11}{2}x_3 &= \frac{5}{2} \\
 \frac{4}{3}x_3 &= \frac{4}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

Then, back substitution can be performed:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_3 &= \frac{4}{3} / \frac{4}{3} = 1, \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\frac{5}{2} - \frac{11}{2}(1)}{3} = -1, \\
 x_1 &= \frac{1 - 4(-1) - 7(1)}{4} = -\frac{1}{2}.
 \end{aligned}$$



### 1.3 Decomposition Methods

- In some cases, the left-hand side matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is frequently used while the right-hand side vector  $\mathbf{b}$  is changed depending on the case.
- The overall system can be transformed to an upper triangular form so that it can be used repeatedly for different  $\mathbf{b}$ , thus matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  has to be decomposed.
- For a general *non-symmetric* system, the popular method is the *Doolittle* or *LU decomposition*:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU} \quad (1.6)$$

where  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  are the lower and upper triangular matrices, respectively:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix} \\ &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ l_{21} & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & u_{33} \end{bmatrix} \text{ (in memory)} \end{aligned}$$

The solution steps of the system are as followed:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{LU} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

By taking an intermediate vector  $\mathbf{y}$ :

$$\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \quad (1.7)$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b} \quad (1.8)$$

- The elements for  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  can be obtained from the Gauss elimination:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(1)} & a_{23}^{(1)} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21}/a_{11} & 1 & 0 \\ a_{31}/a_{11} & a_{32}^{(1)}/a_{22}^{(1)} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Another variation of the LU decomposition is the *Crout decomposition*, which maintains  $u_{ii} = 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  in  $\mathbf{U}$  instead of  $\mathbf{L}$ :

For the first row and column:

$$l_{i1} = a_{i1} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (1.9a)$$

$$u_{1j} = \frac{a_{1j}}{l_{11}} \quad \text{for } j = 2, 3, \dots, n \quad (1.9b)$$

For  $j = 2, 3, \dots, n-1$ :

$$l_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} l_{ik} u_{kj} \quad \text{for } i = j, j+1, \dots, n \quad (1.9c)$$

$$u_{jk} = \frac{a_{jk} - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} l_{ji} u_{ik}}{l_{jj}} \quad \text{for } k = j+1, j+2, \dots, n \quad (1.9d)$$

dan,

$$l_{nn} = a_{nn} - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} l_{nk} u_{kn} \quad (1.9e)$$

- If the system is *symmetric*, the *Cholesky decomposition* can be used, where matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  can be decomposed such that:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T \quad (1.10)$$

For the  $k$ -th row:

$$l_{ki} = \frac{a_{ki} - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} l_{ij} l_{kj}}{l_{ii}} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1 \quad (1.11a)$$

$$l_{kk} = \sqrt{a_{kk} - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} l_{kj}^2} \quad (1.11b)$$

This method optimises the use of computer memory in storing the decomposed form of  $\mathbf{A}$ .



**Example 1.5**

Decompose the following matrix using the Doolittle LU decomposition:

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

*Solution*

With reference to the matrix elements derived in Example 1.1:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4/2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2/2 & 4/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Example 1.7**

Decompose the following matrix using the Cholesky decomposition:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Solution*

By using Eq. 1.11:

$$\begin{aligned} l_{11} &= \sqrt{a_{11}} = \sqrt{2}, & l_{21} &= a_{21}/l_{11} = 1/\sqrt{2}, \\ l_{31} &= a_{31}/l_{11} = 3/\sqrt{2}, & l_{22} &= \sqrt{a_{22} - l_{21}^2} = \sqrt{7/2}, \\ l_{32} &= \frac{a_{32} - l_{21}l_{31}}{l_{22}} = \sqrt{7/2}, & l_{33} &= \sqrt{a_{33} - l_{31}^2 - l_{32}^2} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Maka,

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & \sqrt{7/2} & 0 \\ 3/\sqrt{2} & \sqrt{7/2} & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.41421 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.70712 & 1.87083 & 0 \\ 2.12132 & 1.87083 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## 1.4 Matrix Inverse and Determinant

- The Gauss elimination can be used to generate the inverse of a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  by replacing the left-hand side vector  $\mathbf{b}$  with an identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ .
- By using the following identity:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} \quad (1.12)$$

If all columns of  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  are written as  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}$  and the columns of the  $\mathbf{I}$  as  $\mathbf{e}^{(1)}, \mathbf{e}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{e}^{(n)}$ , respectively, thus Eq. (1.12) can be rewritten as:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}) = (\mathbf{e}^{(1)}, \mathbf{e}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{e}^{(n)})$$

Then, a set of  $n$  linear systems can be assembled:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(1)} &= \mathbf{e}^{(1)} \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} &= \mathbf{e}^{(2)} \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(n)} &= \mathbf{e}^{(n)} \end{aligned} \quad (1.13)$$

- Consequently, the determinant of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  can simply be calculated using:

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) \equiv |\mathbf{A}| = (-1)^p a_{11} a_{22}^{(1)} a_{33}^{(2)} \dots a_{nn}^{(n-1)} = (-1)^p \prod_{i=1}^n a_{ii}^{(i-1)} \quad (1.14)$$

where  $p$  is the number of row interchange operation during pivoting.

**Example 1.8**

Determine the inverse of the following matrix using the Gauss elimination:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Solution*

The combination of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{I}$  can be represented in an augmented form:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 4 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{Gauss forward elimination}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 4 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{5}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{9}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & 4 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Upon back substitution:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{9} \\ \frac{8}{9} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{5}{9} \\ \frac{2}{9} \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence, the inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  is

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{9} & -\frac{5}{9} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{8}{9} & \frac{2}{9} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example 1.9**

Calculate the determinant of the matrix given in Example 1.8.

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In Example 1.0, there is no row interchange performed, thus  $p = 0$ . Hence,

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = (-1)^0 \times \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{5}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{9}{2} \end{vmatrix} = (4) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \left( \frac{9}{2} \right) = 9$$



## 1.5 Errors, Residuals and Condition Number

- If  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is an approximate solution of a linear system  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , then the system *error* is defined as

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^* \quad (1.16)$$

- On the other hand, the system *residue*  $\mathbf{r}$  is defined as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{e} \quad (1.17)$$

or, 
$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}^*$$

- For a *well-conditioned* system, the residue can represent the error.
- Moreover, for comparison, a matrix or vector can be expressed in form of a scalar known as *norm*.
- For a vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$ , the  $p$ -norm is defined as

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left( |x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (1.20)$$

If  $p = 1$ , it is known as *1-norm*:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \quad (1.19)$$

If  $p = 2$ , it is known as *Euclidean norm*:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_e = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad (1.18)$$

If  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , it is known as a *maximum norm*:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{ |x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n| \} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i| \quad (1.21)$$

- For a matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  of size  $m \times n$ , the *Frobenius* norm, which is equivalent to the Euclidean norm for vectors, is defined as

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_e = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2} \quad (1.22)$$

and, the equivalent 1-norm and maximum norm for a matrix are defined as

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}| = \text{maximum sum of columns} \quad (1.23)$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| = \text{maximum sum of rows} \quad (1.24)$$

- The properties of norms of a vector or matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are as followed:
  1.  $\|\mathbf{A}\| \geq 0$  and  $\|\mathbf{A}\| = 0$  if, and only if,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ .
  2.  $\|c\mathbf{A}\| = |c| \cdot \|\mathbf{A}\|$  where  $c$  is a scalar quantity.
  3.  $\|\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| + \|\mathbf{B}\|$  *Triangular inequality*, where  $\mathbf{B}$  is a vector or matrix of the same dimension of  $\mathbf{A}$ .
  4.  $\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{B}\|$  *Schwarz inequality*, where  $\mathbf{B}$  is a vector or matrix which forms a valid product with  $\mathbf{A}$ .
- The concept of norms can be used to calculate the *condition number* represents the ‘health’ of a linear system, either ill- or well-conditioned.
- If  $\mathbf{e}$  is the error for the system  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , from the relations  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ , the following inequality can be established:

$$\|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{e}\| \geq \|\mathbf{r}\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathbf{e}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{r}\| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|} \leq \|\mathbf{e}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{r}\|$$

Also, from  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ :

$$\|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{x}\| \geq \|\mathbf{b}\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{b}\| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\|\mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{b}\|$$

Thus, the combination of both inequality relations yields the range of the relative error  $\|\mathbf{e}\|/\|\mathbf{x}\|$ , i.e.

$$\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|} \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} \leq \frac{\|\mathbf{e}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq (\|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|) \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

- Hence, the *condition number* is defined as

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \|\mathbf{A}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\| \quad (1.25)$$

where the range of the relative error is.

$$\frac{1}{\kappa(\mathbf{A})} \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} \leq \frac{\|\mathbf{e}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \kappa(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} \quad (1.26)$$

- The characteristics of the condition number are that:
  1.  $\kappa(\mathbf{A}) \geq 1$  — the smaller the better, and otherwise.
  2. If  $\kappa(\mathbf{A}) \rightarrow 1$ , the relative residual  $\|\mathbf{r}\|/\|\mathbf{b}\|$  can represent the relative errors  $\|\mathbf{e}\|/\|\mathbf{x}\|$ .
- If the error is solely contributed by matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , the inequality becomes:

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{e}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}^*\|} \leq \kappa(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{E}_A\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|} \quad (1.27)$$

- On the other hand, if the error is solely contributed by vector  $\mathbf{b}$ , the inequality becomes:

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{e}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \kappa(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{e}_b\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|} \quad (1.28)$$

- Therefore, from Eqs. (1.26-8), it can be seen that the condition number can determine the range of error and thus the health of a system.

## 1.7 Iteration Methods

- For large systems (size  $> 200$ ), the elimination and decomposition methods are not efficient due to increasing number of arithmetic operations.
- The number of arithmetic operations can be reduced via iteration methods, such as the *Jacobi iteration* and the *Gauss-Seidel iteration* methods.
- In the Jacobi iteration, Eq. (1.1) can be written for  $x_i$  from the  $i$ -th equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= -\frac{1}{a_{11}}(a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n - b_1) \\
 x_2 &= -\frac{1}{a_{22}}(a_{21}x_1 + a_{23}x_3 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n - b_2) \\
 &\vdots \\
 x_n &= -\frac{1}{a_{nn}}(a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1} - b_n)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.29}$$

Eq. (1.29) needs initial values  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)})^T$ , which yield  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (x_1^{(1)}, x_2^{(1)}, \dots, x_n^{(1)})^T$ , and the computation continues as followed:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{11}}(a_{12}x_2^{(k)} + a_{13}x_3^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n^{(k)} - b_1) \\
 x_2^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{22}}(a_{21}x_1^{(k)} + a_{23}x_3^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n^{(k)} - b_2) \\
 &\vdots \\
 x_n^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{nn}}(a_{n1}x_1^{(k)} + a_{n3}x_3^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1}^{(k)} - b_n)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.30}$$

For  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , vector  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$  converges to its exact solution if the *diagonal domain condition* is followed, i.e.

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n |a_{ij}| \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \tag{1.31}$$

and the matrix which follows this condition is called a *diagonal domain matrix*.

- To terminate the iteration process, a *convergence* or *termination criterion* can be specified, i.e.

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}\| < \varepsilon \quad (1.32)$$

- The Gauss-Siedel iteration method uses the most current known solution after each arithmetic operation in order to speed up convergence:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{11}}(a_{12}x_2^{(k)} + a_{13}x_3^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n^{(k)} - b_1) \\ x_2^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{22}}(a_{21}x_1^{(k+1)} + a_{23}x_3^{(k)} + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n^{(k)} - b_2) \\ &\vdots \\ x_n^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{a_{nn}}(a_{n1}x_1^{(k+1)} + a_{n3}x_3^{(k+1)} + \cdots + a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1}^{(k+1)} - b_n) \end{aligned} \quad (1.33)$$

- As of the Jacobi method, the Gauss-Siedel method must also observe the diagonal domain condition for convergence to be possible (see Fig. 1.1).

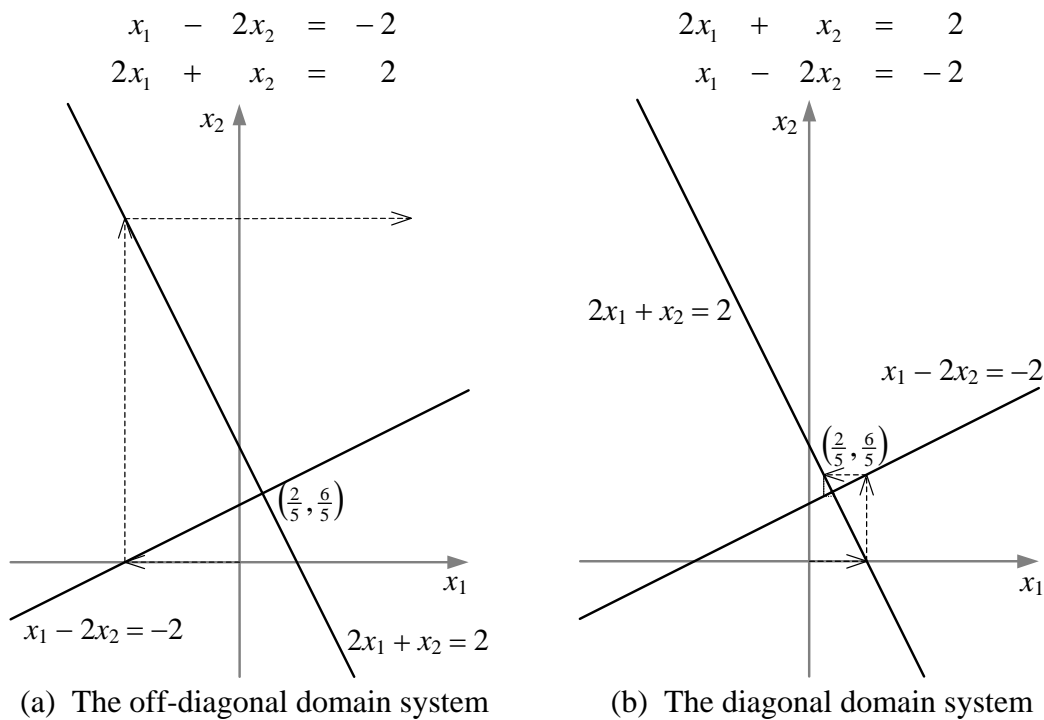


FIG. 1.1 Divergence and convergence in the Gauss-Seidel method



**Example 1.10**

Use the Jacobi iteration method to solve the following system up to 5 decimal points:

$$\begin{aligned} 64x_1 - 3x_2 - x_3 &= 14 \\ x_1 + x_2 + 40x_3 &= 20 \\ 2x_1 - 90x_2 + x_3 &= -5 \end{aligned}$$

*Solution*

First of all, form a diagonal dominant system:

$$\begin{aligned} 64x_1 - 3x_2 - x_3 &= 14 \\ 2x_1 - 90x_2 + x_3 &= -5 \\ x_1 + x_2 + 40x_3 &= 20 \end{aligned}$$

Then, rewrite the system according to Eq. (1.30):

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{64}(-3x_2^{(k)} - x_3^{(k)} - 14) \\ x_2^{(k+1)} &= +\frac{1}{90}(+2x_1^{(k)} + x_3^{(k)} + 5) \\ x_3^{(k+1)} &= -\frac{1}{40}(+x_1^{(k)} + x_2^{(k)} - 20) \end{aligned}$$

By taking an initial values  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0)^T$ , thus the method converges within **5** iterations:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Iteration no. 1: } \mathbf{x}^{(1)} &= (0.21875, 0.05556, 0.50000)^T, \\ \text{Iteration no. 2: } \mathbf{x}^{(2)} &= (0.22917, 0.06597, 0.49592)^T, \\ \text{Iteration no. 3: } \mathbf{x}^{(3)} &= (0.22955, 0.06613, 0.49262)^T, \\ \text{Iteration no. 4: } \mathbf{x}^{(4)} &= (0.22955, 0.06613, 0.49261)^T, \\ \text{Iteration no. 5: } \mathbf{x}^{(5)} &= (0.22955, 0.06613, 0.49261)^T. \end{aligned}$$



**Example 1.11**

Repeat problem given in Example 1.10 using the Gauss-Seidel iteration method.

*Solution*

First of all, form a diagonal dominant system:

$$\begin{aligned} 64x_1 - 3x_2 - x_3 &= 14 \\ 2x_1 - 90x_2 + x_3 &= -5 \\ x_1 + x_2 + 40x_3 &= 20 \end{aligned}$$

By taking an initial values  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0, 0, 0)^T$ , the first solution in the first iteration:

$$x_1^{(1)} = -\frac{1}{64}[-3(0) - 0 - 14] = 0.21875$$

Use  $x_1^{(1)}$  to calculate  $x_2^{(1)}$  and so on, i.e.

$$x_2^{(1)} = \frac{1}{90}[2(0.21875) + 0 + 5] = 0.06042$$

$$x_3^{(1)} = -\frac{1}{40}(0.21875 + 0.06042 - 20) = 0.49302$$

Hence, the method converges within 4 iterations:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (0.21875, 0.06042, 0.49302)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0.22929, 0.06613, 0.49262)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = (0.22955, 0.06613, 0.49261)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(4)} = (0.22955, 0.06613, 0.49261)^T.$$



## 1.8 Incomplete and Redundant Systems

- If  $m \neq n$ , there will be two situations:
  1.  $m < n$  — incomplete system.
  2.  $m > n$  — redundant system.
- For incomplete system, no solution is possible since additional  $(n - m)$  equations from other independent sources are required until  $m = n$ .
- For redundant system, a unique solution is not possible, and the system has to be optimised via *least square method* (also known as *linear regression*):

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \|\mathbf{e}\|_e^2 = \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}, \\
 &= (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}), \\
 &= \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b}^T (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}), \\
 &= (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}) - (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{b}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Using the identity  $(\mathbf{AB})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$ :

$$S = \mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{A}^T \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

Minimising  $S$ :

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathbf{x}^T} = 0 = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^T \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

forms an approximate system of  $n$  equations, i.e.

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \cdot \mathbf{b} \quad (1.34)$$

where the left-hand side matrix  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  is *symmetry* and the standard deviation  $\sigma$  can be calculated from the Euclidean norm of  $\mathbf{e}$ , i.e.:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{S}{m - n}} = \frac{\|\mathbf{e}\|_e}{\sqrt{m - n}} \quad (1.35)$$

**Example 1.12**

Calculate the best approximate solution for the following system:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 &= 1 \\ 4x_1 + 4x_2 + 7x_3 &= 1 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 &= 3 \\ 5x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 &= 2 \\ 7x_1 + 10x_2 + 15x_3 &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Also, calculate the resulting standard deviation.

*Solution*

The above system can be rewritten in form of  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 \\ 5 & 5 & 9 \\ 7 & 10 & 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{Bmatrix}$$

By using Eq. (1.34):

$$\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 4 & 5 & 5 & 10 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 9 & 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 \\ 5 & 5 & 9 \\ 7 & 10 & 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{Bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 4 & 5 & 5 & 10 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 9 & 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 98 & 123 & 202 \\ 123 & 167 & 271 \\ 202 & 271 & 445 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 50 \\ 70 \\ 100 \end{Bmatrix}$$

where its solutions are

$$x_1 = -0.34930, \quad x_2 = -0.01996, \quad x_3 = -0.42914.$$

The standard deviation can be obtained from the Euclidean norm of the error  $\mathbf{e}$ :

$$\mathbf{e} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{Bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 9 \\ 5 & 5 & 9 \\ 7 & 10 & 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} -0.34930 \\ -0.01996 \\ 0.42914 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0.43114 \\ -0.52695 \\ -0.06387 \\ -0.01597 \\ 0.20758 \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{e}\|_e &= \sqrt{0.43114^2 + (-0.52695)^2 + (-0.06387)^2 + (-0.01597)^2 + 0.20758^2}, \\ &= 0.71483. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\sigma = \frac{0.71483}{\sqrt{5-3}} = 0.50546$$



## Exercises

1. Consider the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 12 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1.2 \\ -0.2 \\ 0.8 \\ 1.5 \end{Bmatrix}$$

- Use the Gauss elimination method to obtain the solution of  $x_i$ .
  - Calculate the determinant for the left-hand side matrix.
  - Generate the lower and upper triangular matrices using the Doolittle factorisation.
2. Consider the following system of 2 complex equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2+2i & -1+2i \\ -3i & 3-2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1-4i \\ 2+4i \end{Bmatrix}$$

By writing  $z_k = x_k + y_k i$ , solve the equation using the Gauss-Siedel iteration method using Microsoft Excel until it converges up to 5 decimal points.

3. Consider the following set of redundant equations:

$$\begin{array}{rrcrcl} 3x_1 & - & 2x_2 & + & x_3 & = & 2 \\ x_1 & - & 3x_2 & + & x_3 & = & 5 \\ x_1 & + & x_2 & - & x_3 & = & -5 \\ 2x_1 & + & x_2 & & & = & -2 \\ 2x_1 & - & x_2 & + & x_3 & = & 2 \end{array}$$

- Derive an approximate system of linear equations and solve it via the Gauss elimination.
- Calculate the corresponding standard deviation.