

# Lecture 5

## Solving Sets of Equations I

### Elimination Methods

Ceng375 *Numerical Computations* at November 4, 2010

#### Solving Sets of Equations

Matrices and Vectors

Some Special Matrices  
and Their Properties

Using Computer Algebra  
Systems

Elimination Methods

Gaussian Elimination

The Gauss-Jordan Method

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Computer Engineering Department  
Çankaya University



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- Solving sets of linear equations is the most frequently used numerical procedure when real-world situations are modelled.

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## Solving Sets of Equations

Matrices and Vectors

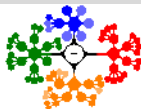
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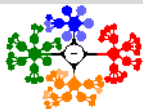
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- Solving sets of linear equations is the most frequently used numerical procedure when real-world situations are modelled.
  - The methods for solving ordinary and partial-differential equations depend on them.
- ① **Matrices and Vectors.** Reviews concepts of matrices and vectors in preparation for their use.
  - ② **Elimination Methods.** Describes two classical methods that change a system of equations to forms that allow getting the solution by back-substitution and shows how the errors of the solution can be minimized.

- 3 **The Inverse of a Matrix and Matrix Pathology.** Shows how an important derivative of a matrix, its inverse, can be computed. It shows when a matrix cannot be inverted and tells of situations where no unique solution exists to a system of equations.



### Solving Sets of Equations

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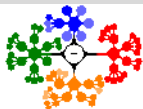
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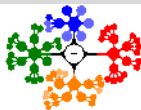
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- 3 The Inverse of a Matrix and Matrix Pathology.** Shows how an important derivative of a matrix, its inverse, can be computed. It shows when a matrix cannot be inverted and tells of situations where no unique solution exists to a system of equations.
- 4 Ill-Conditioned Systems.** Explores systems for which getting the solution with accuracy is very difficult. A number, the condition number, is a measure of such difficulty; a property of a matrix, called its norm, is used to compute its condition number. A way to improve an inaccurate solution is described.





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- 5 Iterative Methods.** It is described how a linear system can be solved in an entirely different way, by beginning with an initial estimate of the solution and performing computations that eventually arrive at the correct solution. An iterative method is particularly important in solving systems that have few nonzero coefficients.

# Matrices and Vectors I

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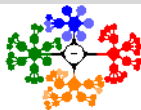
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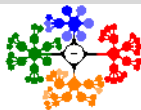


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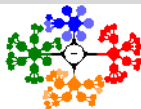


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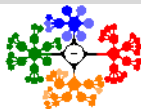


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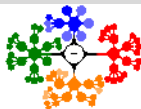


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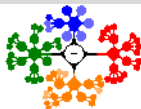


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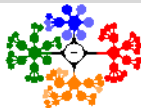
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- When the term **vector** is used, it nearly always means a **column vector**.





## Matrices and Vectors II

- An  $m \times n$  matrix times as  $n \times 1$  vector gives an  $m \times 1$  product ( $m \times nn \times 1$ ) .



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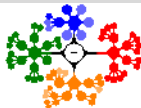
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$$b_i = \sum_{k=1}^{\text{No. of cols.}} a_{ik}x_k, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, \text{No. of rows}$$

where  $A$  is a matrix,  $x$  and  $b$  are vectors (column vectors).



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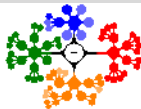
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- Set of linear equations

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



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$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

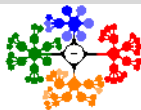
$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$

⋮

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

- Much more simply in matrix notation, as  $Ax = b$  where

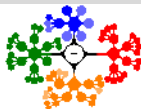
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$





- Example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ -7 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



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- is the same as the set of equations

$$3x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 = 14$$

$$x_1 - 2x_2 = -7$$

$$-x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 = 2$$

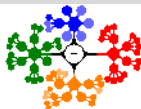
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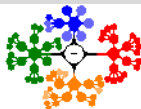
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- i.e., The order-4 identity matrix is

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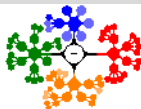
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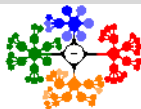
- An important property of an identity matrix,  $I$ , is that for any  $n \times n$  (square) matrix,  $A$ ,

$$I * A = A * I = A$$



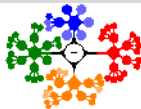
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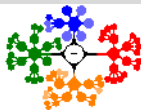
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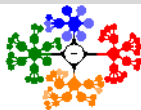




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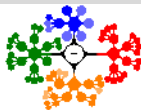


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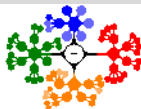


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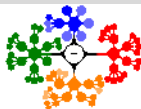


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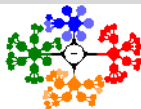


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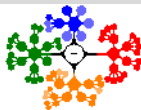
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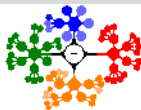
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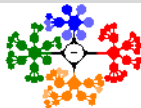
A square matrix is called a **symmetric matrix** when the pairs of elements in similar positions across the diagonal are equal.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & y \\ x & 2 & z \\ y & z & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$



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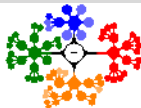
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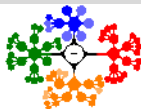
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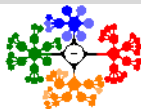


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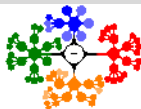


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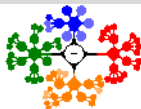


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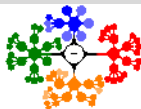


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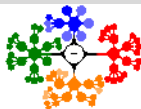


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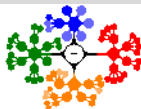


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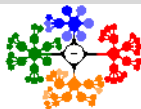
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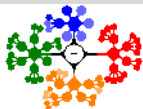
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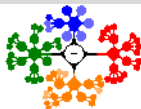


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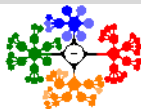
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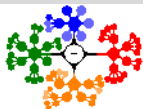
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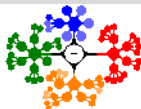
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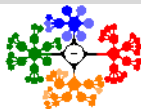
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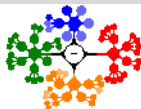
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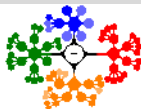
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- Such a matrix is termed a **sparse matrix** and procedures that take advantage of this sparseness are of value.



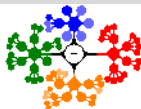
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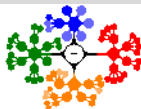


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$$\det(B) = \prod B_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = -40$$



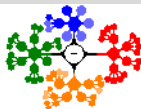
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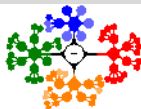
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- **Eigenvalue** is a German word, the corresponding English term is **characteristic value**, but it is less frequently used.

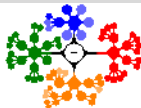


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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_A(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I| = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 3 \\ 4 & 5 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 6\lambda - 7$$



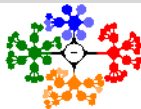
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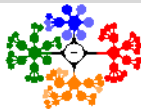
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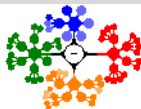
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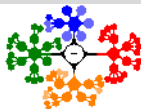
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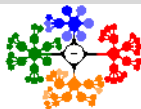
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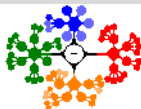
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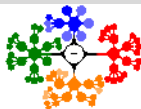
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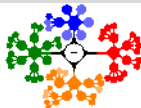
$$Aw = \lambda w \implies (A - \lambda I)w = 0 \quad w_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, w_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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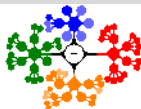
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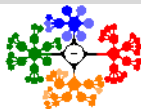
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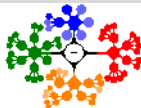
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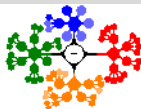
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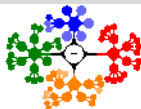
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- **It does not matter if the matrix is upper- or lower-triangular.**





MATLAB can do matrix operations . We first define two matrices and a vector,  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $v$ :

```
>> A = [ 4 1 -2 ; 5 1 3 ; 4 0 -1]
>> B = [ 3 3 1 ; -2 1 5 ; 2 2 0]
>> v = [ -2 3 1]
```

```
>> vt = v'
```

```
>> det(A)
```

```
>> trace(A)
```

We can get the characteristic polynomial;

```
>> poly(A)
```

```
ans =
```

```
1.000    -4.0000    2.0000   -21.0000
```

where the coefficients are given. This represents

```
 $x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 21$ 
```

# Elimination Methods I

- To solve a set of linear equations.



## Solving Sets of Equations

Matrices and Vectors

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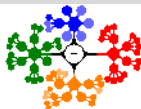
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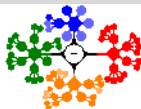
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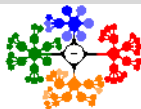
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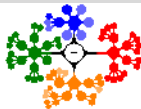
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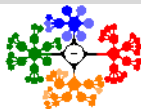
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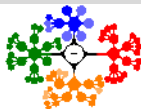
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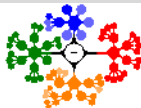
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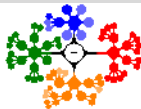
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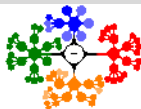
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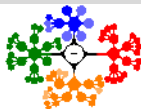
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- 2 and **back-substitution** into the second equation gives  $x_2 = -2$ .
- 3 We continue with back-substitution by substituting both  $x_2$ , and  $x_3$  into the first equation to get  $x_1 = 2$ .



# Elimination Methods II

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- They are getting bigger!



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# Elimination Methods II

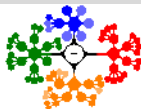
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- The arithmetic operations that we have performed affect only the coefficients and the right-hand-side terms.

- So we work with the matrix of coefficients augmented with the right-hand-side vector.



# Elimination Methods III

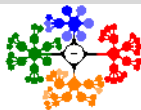
- So we work with the matrix of coefficients augmented with the right-hand-side vector.
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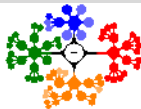
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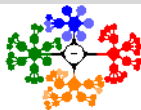
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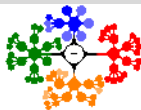


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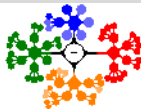
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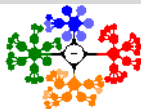
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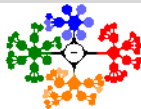
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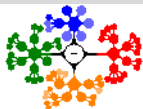
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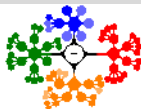


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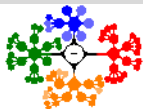


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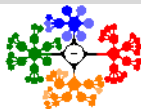




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- If that occurs, the back-substitution fails, for we cannot divide by zero.
- It also means that the determinant is zero. There is no solution.



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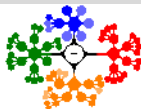
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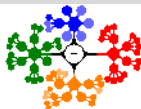
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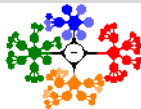
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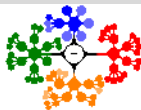
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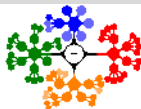
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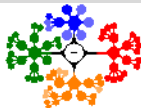
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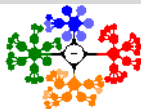
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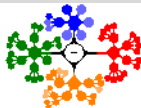
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## Gaussian Elimination III

**Example m-file:** Show steps in Gauss elimination and back substitution. No pivoting. ( GEsHow.m)



```
>> A=[4 -2 1 ; -3 -1 4 ; 1 -1 3];
>> b=[15 8 13];
>> GEsHow(A,b')
Begin forward elimination with Augmented system:
    4    -2     1    15
   -3    -1     4     8
    1    -1     3    13
After elimination in column 1 with pivot = 4.000000
    4.0000   -2.0000    1.0000   15.0000
         0   -2.5000    4.7500   19.2500
         0   -0.5000    2.7500    9.2500
After elimination in column 2 with pivot = -2.500000
    4.0000   -2.0000    1.0000   15.0000
         0   -2.5000    4.7500   19.2500
         0         0    1.8000    5.4000
ans =
    2.0000
   -2.0000
    3.0000
```

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- We shall obtain answers that are just close approximations to the exact answer because of round-off error.

## Solving Sets of Equations

Matrices and Vectors

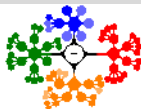
Some Special Matrices  
and Their Properties

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Elimination Methods

Gaussian Elimination

The Gauss-Jordan Method



- We shall obtain answers that are just close approximations to the exact answer because of round-off error.
- When there are many equations, the effects of round-off (the term is applied to the error due to chopping as well as when rounding is used) may cause large effects.

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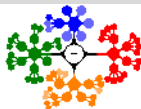
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- When there are many equations, the effects of round-off (the term is applied to the error due to chopping as well as when rounding is used) may cause large effects.
- In certain cases, the coefficients are such that the results are particularly sensitive to round off; such systems are called **ill-conditioned**.

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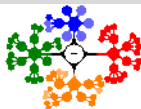
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# Gaussian Elimination V

- if we had stored the ratio of coefficients in place of zero (we show these in parentheses), our final form would have been

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 1 & 15 \\ (-0.75) & -2.5 & 4.75 & 19.25 \\ (0.25) & (0.20) & 1.8 & 5.40 \end{bmatrix}$$



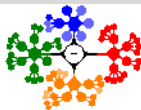


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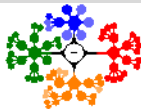


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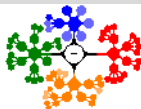
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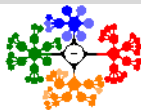
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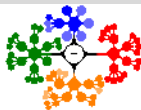
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$$A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.75 & 1 & 0 \\ 0.25 & 0.20 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_L *$$

## Gaussian Elimination V



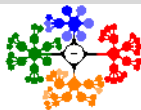
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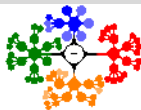
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- This procedure is called a LU-decomposition of A.

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- In this case,

$$A = L * U$$

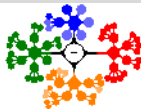
where  $L$  is lower-triangular and  $U$  is upper-triangular.

## Gaussian Elimination VI

- The determinant of two matrices,  $B \times C$ , is the product of each of the determinants, for this example we have

$$\det(L * U) = \det(L) * \det(U) = \det(U)$$

Because  $L$  is triangular and has only ones on its diagonal so that  $\det(L) = 1$ .





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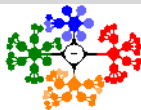
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since  $U$  is upper-triangular and its determinant is just the product of the diagonal elements.



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- When there are row interchanges

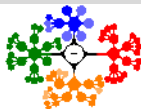
$$\det(A) = (-1)^m * u_{11} * \dots * u_{nn}$$

where the exponent  $m$  represents *the number of row interchanges*.

## Gaussian Elimination VII

- **Example.** Solve the following system of equations using Gaussian elimination.

$$\begin{array}{ccccrcr} & & 2x_2 & & +x_4 & = & 0 \\ 2x_1 & +2x_2 & & +3x_3 & +2x_4 & = & -2 \\ 4x_1 & -3x_2 & & & x_4 & = & -7 \\ 6x_1 & +x_2 & -6x_3 & & -5x_4 & = & 6 \end{array}$$



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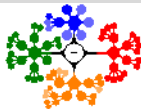
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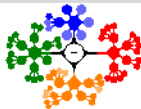
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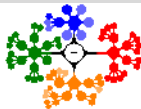
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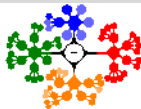
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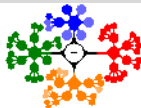
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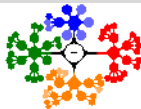
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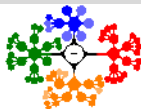
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## Gaussian Elimination VIII

- 4 We again interchange before reducing the second column, not because we have a zero divisor, but because we want to preserve accuracy. Interchanging the second and third rows puts the element of largest magnitude on the diagonal.

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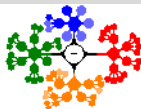
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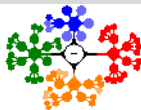
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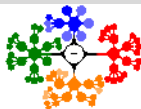
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- 7 Back-substitution gives

$$x_1 = -0.50000, x_2 = 1.0000, x_3 = 0.33325, x_4 = -1.9999.$$



# Gaussian Elimination IX

- The correct (exact) answers are  
 $x_1 = -1/2, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 1/3, x_4 = -2.$



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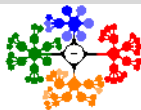
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- In this calculation we have carried five significant figures and rounded each calculation.





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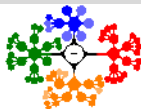


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- **Example m-files:** ( [GEshow.m](#), [GEPivShow.m](#) )

```
>> A=[0 2 0 1; 2 2 3 2; 4 -3 0 1; 6 1 -6 -5];
>> b=[0 -2 -7 6];
>> GEshow(A,b')
Begin forward elimination with Augmented system:
      0      2      0      1      0
      2      2      3      2     -2
      4     -3      0      1     -7
      6      1     -6     -5      6

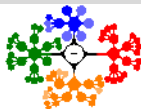
??? Error using ==> GEshow
zero pivot encountered
>> GEPivShow(A,b')
```



# Gaussian Elimination X

- In this example, if we had replaced the zeros below the main diagonal with the ratio of coefficients at each step, the resulting augmented matrix would be

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} 6 & 1 & -6 & -5 & 6 \\ (0.66667) & -3.6667 & 4 & 4.3333 & -11 \\ (0.33333) & (-0.45454) & 6.8182 & 5.6364 & -9.0001 \\ (0.0) & (-0.54545) & (0.32) & 1.5600 & -3.1199 \end{array} \right]$$

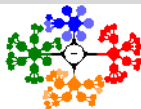


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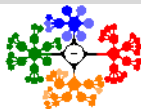


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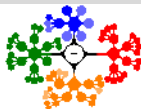
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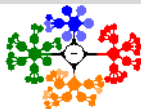
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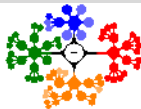
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- It should be noted that the product of these matrices produces a permutation of the original matrix, call it  $A'$ , where

$$A' = \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 6 & 1 & -6 & -5 \\ 4 & -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$



- The determinant of the original matrix of coefficients can be easily computed according to the formula

$$\det(A) = (-1)^2 * (6) * (-3.6667) * (6.8182) * (1.5600) = -234.0028$$

which is close to the exact solution: -234.

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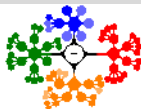


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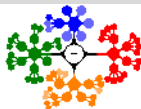


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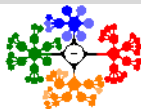


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- “These” are readily obtained after solving the system by Gaussian elimination method.



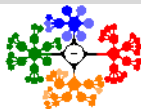
## Gaussian Elimination XII

**Example m-file:** LU factorization without pivoting. ( luNopiv.m)

**Example m-file:** LU factorization with partial pivoting.

( luPiv.m)

```
>> A=[0 2 0 1; 2 2 3 2; 4 -3 0 1; 6 1 -6 -5];
>> [L, U, P]=lu(A)
>> b = [ 0 -2 -7 6]
>> A\b
ans =
-0.5000
 1.0000
 0.3333
-2.0000
Remember
LUx=b
Ly=b --> find y first
Ux=y --> then find x
>> y=L\(P*b')
y =
 6.0000
-11.0000
 -9.0000
 -3.1200
>> x=U\y
x =
-0.5000
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```



# The Gauss-Jordan Method I

- There are many variants to the Gaussian elimination scheme.



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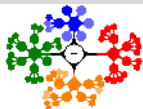
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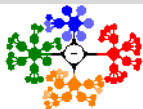
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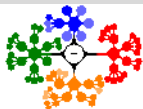


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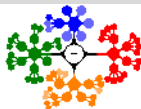
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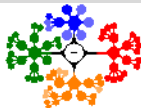


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- When this has been accomplished, the *column of right-hand sides* has been transformed into the solution vector.
- **Pivoting is normally employed to preserve arithmetic accuracy.**

# The Gauss-Jordan Method II

Solving Sets of  
Equations I

Dr. Cem Özdoğan



Solving Sets of  
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# The Gauss-Jordan Method II

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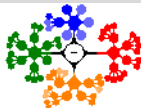
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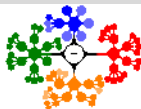
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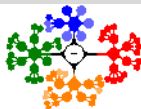
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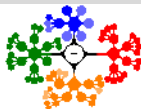
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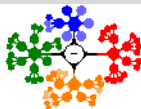
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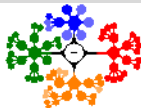
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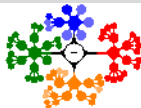
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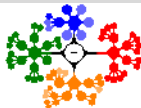
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- 1 Interchanging rows 1 and 4, dividing the new first row by 6, and reducing the first column gives
- 2 Interchanging rows 2 and 3, dividing the new second row by -3.6667, and reducing the second column (operating above the diagonal as well as below) gives

# The Gauss-Jordan Method II



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$$(3) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -0.8182 & -0.6364 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 1 & -1.0909 & -1.1818 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 6.8182 & 5.6364 & -9 \\ 0 & 0 & 2.1818 & 3.3636 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(4) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0.04 & -0.58 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -0.2308 & 1.56 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1.32 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1.5599 & -3.12 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(5) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1.0001 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0.3333 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 1 Interchanging rows 1 and 4, dividing the new first row by 6, and reducing the first column gives
- 2 Interchanging rows 2 and 3, dividing the new second row by -3.6667, and reducing the second column (operating above the diagonal as well as below) gives
- 3 No interchanges now are required. We divide the third row by 6.8182 and create zeros below and above.



- 4 We complete by dividing the fourth row by 1.5599 and create zeros above.

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- 5 The fourth column is now the solution.

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## The Gauss-Jordan Method III

- 4 We complete by dividing the fourth row by 1.5599 and create zeros above.
  - 5 The fourth column is now the solution.
- While the Gauss-Jordan method might seem to require the same effort as Gaussian elimination, it really requires almost 50% more operations.

