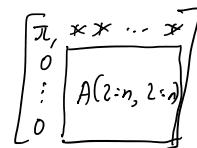


Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ r_i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$, where r_i is the i th row.

- 1) Pick some $a_{i1} \neq 0$, called the pivot π_i .
- 2) Permute rows i and 1 so that the pivot is $a_{11} = \pi_i$.
- 3) $r_i' = r_i - \frac{a_{i1}}{\pi_i}$ for $i=2, \dots, n$.
- 4) Repeat on the submatrix $A(2:n; 2:n)$.



If we ever cannot pick a pivot, that implies a column is 0, contradicting invertibility. We can however still continue to an upper triangular matrix by going to the next submatrix; however, some pivots will be 0.

Thm 1.7.1 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then \exists invertible M s.t. $U = MA$ is upper triangular. The pivots are invertible iff A is invertible.

proof. Let $P(i,j) = I - e_{ii} - e_{jj} + e_{ij} + e_{ji}$, where e_{ij} is the matrix that is all 0's except at row i , col j .
 Then left-multiplication by $P(i,j)$ swaps rows i and j .
 Note $P(i,j)P(i,j) = I$.

Let $E_{i,j;\beta} = I + \beta e_{i,j}$.

Then left-multiplication by $E_{i,j;\beta}$ adds β times row j to row i .

Note $E_{i,j;\beta} E_{i,j;-\beta} = I$.

Thus, Gaussian elimination is equivalent to left-multiplying by some sequence of invertible matrices, proving the claim.

LU-factorization

Prop 1.7.1 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ invertible. Then $A = LU$, where L is lower triangular with units on the diagonal and U is upper triangular. iff every matrix $A(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible for $k=1, \dots, n$.

proof. If every $A(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible, then Gaussian elimination doesn't need any pivoting, by the following argument.
Case 1: Note that $A(1:1, 1:1)$ is invertible, so $a_{11} \neq 0$, so we don't need to pivot.

Case 1:

doesn't need any pivoting, by the following argument.

Note that $A(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible, so $a_{ii} \neq 0$, so we don't need to pivot in the first step.

Now assume no pivoting was needed in the first $k-1$ steps.

Then $MA = A_k$, where A_k is the matrix after $k-1$ rounds of Gaussian elim.

and $M = E_2 \dots E_1$, where E_1, \dots, E_2 are $E_{i,j;\beta}$, $j < i$

$\Rightarrow M = E_1^{-1} \dots E_2^{-1}$, but $E_{i,j;\beta}^{-1} = E_{i,j;-\beta}$ are unit lower triangular

$\Rightarrow M = L$ a lower triangular matrix.

Then $MA = A_k$ can be written $\begin{pmatrix} L_1 & 0 \\ L_3 & L_4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A(1:k, 1:k) & A_2 \\ A_3 & A_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & B_2 \\ B_3 & B_4 \end{pmatrix}$,

where L_1 and L_4 are unit lower triangular, U_1 is upper triangular,

and B_3 has 0's in all but the last $(k$ th) column by design.

But $U_1 = L_1 A(1:k, 1:k)$, and both L_1 and $A(1:k, 1:k)$ are invertible,

so U_1 is invertible, implying $(U_1)_{kk} \neq 0$.

Thus, we don't need to pivot in step k , completing induction.

So $MA = U$, after the entire Gaussian elimination, where

$M = E_2 \dots E_1$, where E_1, \dots, E_2 are of the form $E_{i,j;\beta}$, $j < i$.

Again, then $M = E_1^{-1} \dots E_2^{-1}$, but $E_{i,j;\beta}^{-1} = E_{i,j;-\beta}$ are unit lower triangular.
 $\Rightarrow A = LU$.

Case 2:

Suppose $A = LU$. Then $A = \begin{bmatrix} A(1:k, 1:k) & A_2 \\ A_3 & A_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 & 0 \\ L_3 & L_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_1 & U_2 \\ 0 & U_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 U_1 & L_1 U_2 \\ L_3 U_1 & L_3 U_2 + L_4 U_4 \end{bmatrix}$

where L_1, L_4 are unit lower triangular and U_1, U_4 are upper triangular.

$\Rightarrow A(1:k, 1:k) = L_1 U_1$.

But U_1 must be invertible since U is invertible

$\Rightarrow A(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible, $\forall k$.

Corollary 1.7.1: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. If $A(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible $\forall k$, then Gaussian elimination requires no pivoting and yields an LU factorization $A = LU$.

Why do we care about LU-factorizations?

If $A = LU$, then we can solve $Ax = b$ by

$Lw = b$ and $Ux = w$ using back-substitution.

Def 1.7.2

A has an LDU factorization if $A = LDU'$, where L is unit lower triangular,

Def 1.7.2 A has an LDU factorization if $A = LDU'$, where
 L is unit lower triangular,
 U is unit upper triangular, and
 D is a diagonal matrix.

Note: If $A = LU$ is an LU-factorization, and
then $A = LDU'$, where $D = \text{diag}(U)$ and $U' = D^{-1}U$.

PA = LU Factorization

Def. 1.7.3 A permutation matrix is a square matrix with a single 1 in every column and row.

Note: For any permutation matrix P , $P = \prod_{k=1}^n P(i_k, j_k)$, a product of transpositions.

Prop. 1.7.2 Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ invertible. Then \exists permutation matrix P s.t.
 $PA(1:k, 1:k)$ is invertible $\forall k$.

proof. Base case of $n=1$ is trivial. Proof by induction.

Since A is invertible, its columns are linearly ind.

\Rightarrow the first $n-1$ columns are " " "

Consider $A(1:n, 1:n-1)$, which has rank $n-1$.

Then there exists $P_1(A(1:n, 1:n-1))$ s.t. $(P_1 A(1:n, 1:n-1))(1:n-1, 1:n-1)$
is an invertible $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix.

\Rightarrow by induction hypothesis, we can permute that $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix
so that submatrices are invertible.

We can extend that permutation to a permutation P_2 of the rows
of $P_1 A$ by leaving the n th row unchanged.

Then $P_2 P_1 A$ has the desired property. □

Thm 1.7.2 (1) Given invertible $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there exists a $PA = LU$ factorization.

(2) If $P = I$, then $A = LU$ is a unique factorization
 $A = LDU'$ is a unique factorization.

(3) We can get $A = LU$ via Gaussian elimination if such
a factorization exists.

(4) We can get $PA = LU$ via Gaussian elimination by applying
the same row transpositions to I .

proof. See book.

Prop. 1.7.3 If $A=LU$ is an LU-factorization and A is real and symmetric, then $A=LDL^T$, where L is a lower-triangular unit diagonal matrix and D is the diagonal matrix of pivots. Furthermore, the factorization is unique.

proof.

$$A = LDU$$

$$A^T = U^T D L$$

$$A = A^T \Rightarrow LDU = U^T D L^T$$

$$\Rightarrow L = U^T, U = L^T \text{ because of uniqueness of LDU}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = L D L^T \text{ is unique. } \square$$

SPD matrices and Cholesky decomposition

Recall: A $n \times n$ real symmetric matrix is **positive definite** iff $x^T A x > 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0$.

(Similarly: A $n \times n$ complex Hermitian matrix ($A^* = A$) is **positive definite** iff $z^* A z > 0 \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}^n, z \neq 0$)

Properties of real pos. def. matrix A :

Let S_{++}^n be the set of symmetric positive definite matrices

1) A is invertible

2) $a_{ii} > 0$ for $i=1, \dots, n$

3) \forall real invertible Z , $Z^T A Z \in S_{++}^n$
iff $A \in S_{++}^n$

4) S_{++}^n is **convex**

i.e. if $A, B \in S_{++}^n$, then $\forall 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$, $(1-\lambda)A + \lambda B \in S_{++}^n$

(5) S_{++}^n is a **cone**;

i.e. if $\lambda > 0$, and $A \in S_{++}^n$ then $\lambda A \in S_{++}^n$

Prop. 1.7.5 If $A \in S_{++}^n$, then $A(1:k, 1:k) \in S_{++}^k$ for $k=1, \dots, n$.

proof. Let $w \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Let $x = \begin{bmatrix} w \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$\text{Then } w^T A(1:k, 1:k) w = x^T A x > 0. \quad \square$$

Theorem 1.7.4 Let $A \in S_{++}^n$. Then \exists real lower-triangular B s.t. $A = BB^T$.
Furthermore, B can be chosen so its diagonal elements are strictly positive.

Theorem 1.7.4 Let $A \in S_{++}$. Then \exists real lower-triangular B s.t. $A = BB^T$.
 Furthermore, B can be chosen so its diagonal elements are strictly positive.

proof. Induction on the dim n of A .

Base case: $n=1$. Then $a_{11} > 0$. Let $\alpha = \sqrt{a_{11}}$, $B = (\alpha)$.

Induction: $n \geq 2$. $a_{11} > 0$, so

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & W^T \\ W & C \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ W/\alpha & I \end{pmatrix}}_{B_1} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & C - WW^T/a_{11} \end{pmatrix}}_{A_1} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & W^T/\alpha \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix}}_{B_1^T} = B_1 A_1 B_1^T, \quad \alpha = \sqrt{a_{11}}.$$

Schur complement

Note A_1 is also symmetric positive definite because $A_1 = B_1^{-1} A (B_1^{-1})^T$.

$\Rightarrow C - \frac{WW^T}{a_{11}}$ is symm pos. def. (by restriction to vectors with $x_1 = 0, x \neq 0$)

Thus, we can apply the induction hypo to the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ $C - \frac{WW^T}{a_{11}}$.

$\Rightarrow C - WW^T/a_{11} = LL^T$, L unique with pos. diagonal entries

So, we get

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ W/\alpha & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & LL^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & W^T/\alpha \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ W/\alpha & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & L \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & L^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & W^T/\alpha \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ W/\alpha & L \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & W^T/\alpha \\ 0 & L^T \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Let $B = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ W/\alpha & L \end{pmatrix}$, a unique lower-triangular matrix with pos. diagonal and $A = BB^T$. □

Note: Cholesky is a special case of LU and uniqueness can be proven through LU decompositions.

However, Cholesky requires half the number of operations/space and is also numerically stable.

Prop. 7.6 The following are equivalent for a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix

- (1) $A \in S_{++}^n$
- (2) Sylvester's criterion All principal minors are positive. ($\det(A(i:k, i:k)) > 0$)

- (1) $A \in S_{++}^n$
- (2) Sylvester's criterion. All principal minors are positive. ($\det(A_{(1:k, 1:k)}) > 0$)
- (3) A has an LU factorization and all pivots are positive.
- (4) A has an LDL^T factorization and all pivots in D are positive.

Aside: We have reviewed primarily square matrices. Applying an analogue of Gaussian elimination to rectangular matrices gives Reduced Row Echelon Form, which you should remember from undergrad.