

7 Lecture 7: Matrix Inverse

Definition 7.1. A matrix of the size $n \times n$ (i.e., the number of rows equals the number of columns) is called a **square matrix**. The square matrix

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the **identity matrix**. In some context, the identity matrix of size $n \times n$ (or simply of “size n ”) is denoted by \mathbf{I}_n .

Note that:

- For any square matrix \mathbf{A} , we have $\mathbf{AI} = \mathbf{IA} = \mathbf{A}$.
- For any $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} , we have $\mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{AI}_n = \mathbf{A}$.

7.1 The inverse matrix

A square matrix \mathbf{A} is said to be **invertible** if there exists a square matrix \mathbf{B} (of the same size) such that

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I} \quad (7.1)$$

In this case, \mathbf{B} is an **inverse** of \mathbf{A} . The inverse of \mathbf{A} is denoted by \mathbf{A}^{-1} .

Example 7.1. If $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathbf{BA} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

The inverse of \mathbf{A} is unique. Indeed, if \mathbf{C} is another inverse of \mathbf{A} , we will show that $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}$. By the relation (7.1), $\mathbf{AC} = \mathbf{CA} = \mathbf{I}$. Therefore,

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{CI} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{AB}) = (\mathbf{CA})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{IB} = \mathbf{B}.$$

A matrix that is *not invertible* is sometimes called a **singular matrix**, and an invertible matrix is called a **nonsingular matrix**.

7.2 Calculation of inverse matrices

7.2.1 For a 2×2 matrix

Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. If $ad - bc \neq 0$ then \mathbf{A} is invertible and the inverse of \mathbf{A} is

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

The term $ad - bc$ is known as the **determinant** of \mathbf{A} . The determinant of a matrix \mathbf{A} is written as: $\det(\mathbf{A})$

Example 7.2. Find the inverse of $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution: Since $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 3(6) - 4(5) = -2 \neq 0$, \mathbf{A} is invertible, and

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -4 \\ -5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6/(-2) & -4/(-2) \\ -5/(-2) & 3/(-2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 5/2 & -3/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

7.2.2 For any $n \times n$ matrix:

Using Gauss-Jordan Algorithm: Row reduce the augmented matrix $[\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{I}]$. If \mathbf{A} is row equivalent to \mathbf{I} , then $[\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{I}]$ is row equivalent to $[\mathbf{I} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1}]$. Otherwise, \mathbf{A} does not have an inverse.

Example 7.3. Find the inverse of the matrix $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$, if it exists.

Solution: We first row reduce the matrix $[\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{I}]$:

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{I}] &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -4 & 0 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\mathbf{A} \sim \mathbf{I}$, that \mathbf{A} is invertible, and

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

Example 7.4. Find the inverse of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, if it exists.

Solution: We first row reduce the matrix $[A \ I]$:

$$\begin{aligned} [A \ I] &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Since matrix A cannot be row reduced to the identity matrix, A is not invertible.

7.3 Properties

(1) If A is an invertible matrix, then A^{-1} is invertible and

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

(2) If A and B are $n \times n$ invertible matrices, then so is AB , and the inverse of AB is the product of the inverses of A and B in the reverse order. That is,

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

(3) If A is an invertible matrix, then so is A^T , and the inverse of A^T is the transpose of A^{-1} . That is,

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

The set of all nonsingular matrices is known as the *general linear group of degree n* and denoted by GL_n .

7.4 Application to linear systems with unique solutions

If $A \in GL_n$, the linear system $Ax = b$ has a unique solution for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and the solution is

$$x = A^{-1}b.$$

Example 7.5. Find the solution of the linear system

$$\begin{cases} +x_2 & +2x_3 = 2 \\ x_1 & +3x_3 = -4 \\ 4x_1 & -3x_2 & +8x_3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Solution: *The linear system is written as*

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b},$$

where $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. We see from Example 7.3 that the coefficient matrix of the linear system, \mathbf{A} , is invertible. Thus, the system has a unique solution, which is

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -33 \\ -20 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

8 Lecture 8: Matrix Factorization with Elementary Matrices

8.1 Upper triangular, lower triangular, and diagonal matrices

(i) An $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is **upper triangular** if and only if $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i > j$. Examples,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

In particular, an upper triangle matrix whose entries in the main diagonal are 1 is called a **upper unitriangular**.

(ii) An $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is **lower triangular** if and only if $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i < j$. Examples,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii) An $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is **diagonal** if and only if $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$. Examples,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

8.2 Upper trapezoidal and lower trapezoidal matrices

(a) An $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is **upper trapezoidal** if and only if $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i > j$. Examples,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) An $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ is **lower trapezoidal** if it is the transpose of an upper trapezoidal matrix.

8.3 Elementary matrices

Elementary Matrices

An **elementary matrix** is obtained by applying a **single** elementary row operation on an identity matrix. The following example shows the three kinds of elementary matrices.

Example 8.1.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the replacement - Replace row 3 by row 3} + (-4) \text{ times row 1} \\ \mathbf{E}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the interchange - interchange row 1 and row 2} \\ \mathbf{E}_3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the scaling - scale the last row by 5.} \end{aligned}$$

Note Elementary matrices are invertible (row operations are reversible). The inverse of an elementary matrix is an elementary matrix of the same kind.

Example 8.2. With three matrices $\mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2$ and \mathbf{E}_3 in Example [8.1](#),

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_1^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the replacement - Replace row 3 by row 3} + 4 \text{ times row 1} \\ \mathbf{E}_2^{-1} &= \mathbf{E}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the interchange - interchange row 1 and row 2} \\ \mathbf{E}_3^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \end{bmatrix}, \text{ applying the scaling - scale the last row by } \frac{1}{5}. \end{aligned}$$

Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$ be a 3×3 matrix in a general form and $\mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2$ and \mathbf{E}_3 be three matrices in Example [8.1](#), we see that

$$\mathbf{E}_1 \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g - 4a & h - 4b & i - 4c \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix on the right-hand side is also obtained by replacing row 3 of matrix \mathbf{A} with row 3 + (-4) times row 1. This is the same operation to produce the elementary matrix \mathbf{E}_1 from the identity matrix. Similarly,

$$\mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} d & e & f \\ a & b & c \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

equals the matrix obtained by interchange row 1 and row 2 of matrix \mathbf{A} , and

$$\mathbf{E}_3 \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 5g & 5h & 5i \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{E}_3 \mathbf{A}$ equals the matrix obtained by multiplying the last row of matrix \mathbf{A} by 5. These illustrations show that a single row operation applied to a matrix equals this matrix multiplied by an elementary matrix on the left side (or left-multiplication).

8.4 Gauss-Jordan through products of elementary matrices and LU factorization

Suppose that to row reduce a matrix \mathbf{A} to its proto-row reduce echelon form, denoted by $\text{pref}(\mathbf{A})$, we need to apply ℓ times elementary row operation. Each elementary row operation j^{th} associated with an elementary matrix \mathbf{E}_j , then from the discussion above we have

$$\text{pref}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{E}_\ell \mathbf{E}_{\ell-1} \dots \mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{E}_1 \mathbf{A}$$

Each elementary matrix is invertible. Thus, the multiplication is invertible. Therefore, matrix \mathbf{A} can be written as a multiplication as follows

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{E}_\ell \mathbf{E}_{\ell-1} \dots \mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{E}_1)^{-1} \text{pref}(\mathbf{A})$$

When no row exchanges are required in the forward phase, $\mathbf{L} := (\mathbf{E}_\ell \mathbf{E}_{\ell-1} \dots \mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{E}_1)^{-1}$ is lower unitriangular and $\mathbf{U} := \text{pref}(\mathbf{A})$, the proto-row-echelon form of \mathbf{A} , is upper trapezoidal. Thus, we can write as the product of a lower unitriangular matrix and an upper trapezoidal matrix.

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{U}$$

This result is known as the LU factorization of \mathbf{A} .

Remark 8.1. Some important observations:

1. The LU factorization does not exist if row exchange is needed in the forward phase of the Gauss-Jordan algorithm.
2. The LU factorization may not be unique; for some matrices, there is more than one way to factor the matrix as the product of a lower unitriangular matrix and the proto-row-echelon form of the matrix.

8.5 LU factorization and Algorithms

1. Reduce \mathbf{A} to an echelon form \mathbf{U} by a sequence of row replacement operations, if possible.
2. Place entries in \mathbf{L} such that the same sequence of row operations reduces \mathbf{L} to \mathbf{I} .

The following example illustrates how to make a matrix \mathbf{L} when the LU factorization exists:

Example 8.3. Find an LU factorization of

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

Solution: Matrix \mathbf{A} has four rows, so if exists then \mathbf{L} is an 4×4 matrix. We find a matrix \mathbf{L} of the form

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The first column of \mathbf{L} is the first column of \mathbf{A} divided by the top pivot entry:

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & * & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Row reducing matrix \mathbf{A} into its proto row echelon form without using the scaling operation gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -6 & 0 & 7 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} &\sim \mathbf{A}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & -9 & -3 & -4 & 10 \\ 0 & 12 & 4 & 12 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \\ \sim \mathbf{A}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} &\sim \text{pref}(\mathbf{A}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{U}. \end{aligned}$$

To determine two entries under the pivot position in the second column of \mathbf{L} , we use the second column of \mathbf{A}_1 . Similarly to the way building the first column, divide the second column of \mathbf{A}_1 by the

pivot, the two entries below the normalized pivot gives the two corresponding entries in the second column of \mathbf{L} , i.e., after this step, matrix \mathbf{L} becomes

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & * & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Doing similarly, the last missing entry in the matrix \mathbf{L} is obtain from the fourth column of \mathbf{A}_2 , and equal the last entry in the column divided by the pivot (column 3 of matrix \mathbf{A}_2 is ignored since it is not a pivot column). Thus, matrix \mathbf{L} is

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

8.6 CR Factorization

If \mathbf{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix with the rank r , then \mathbf{A} has the factorization of $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{CR}$, where

- \mathbf{C} is the $m \times r$ matrix consisting of the pivot columns of \mathbf{A} and
- \mathbf{R} the compact reduced row-echelon matrix of \mathbf{A} (i.e., the matrix consisting of the nonzero rows of $\text{rref}(\mathbf{A})$).

Example 8.4. Find the CR-factorization of the matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Apply the Gauss-Jordan Algorithm to row reduce matrix \mathbf{A}

$$\mathbf{A} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = 1$ and the pivot column of \mathbf{A} is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The CR factorization of \mathbf{A} is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 8.5. Find an CR factorization of

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

We first apply the Gauss-Jordan algorithm to find the reduced-row-echelon form of \mathbf{A} , i.e., $\text{rref}(\mathbf{A})$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & -9 & -3 & -4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1/2 & 5/2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/3 & 2/3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1/2 & 0 & -7/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/3 & 0 & -5/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -7/6 & 0 & -1/6 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/3 & 0 & -5/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix \mathbf{A} has three pivot columns 1, 2, 4, which are $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -5 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -8 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus, the CR-factorization

is

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