

(c) Infinitely many solutions. *If this common rank r is less than n , the system (1) has infinitely many solutions. All of these solutions are obtained by determining r suitable unknowns (whose submatrix of coefficients must have rank r) in terms of the remaining $n - r$ unknowns, to which arbitrary values can be assigned. (See Example 3 in Sec. 7.3.)*

(d) Gauss elimination (Sec. 7.3). *If solutions exist, they can all be obtained by the Gauss elimination. (This method will automatically reveal whether or not solutions exist; see Sec. 7.3.)*

PROOF (a) We can write the system (1) in vector form $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ or in terms of column vectors $\mathbf{c}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{(n)}$ of \mathbf{A} :

$$(2) \quad \mathbf{c}_{(1)}x_1 + \mathbf{c}_{(2)}x_2 + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{(n)}x_n = \mathbf{b}.$$

$\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ is obtained by augmenting \mathbf{A} by a single column \mathbf{b} . Hence, by Theorem 3 in Sec. 7.4, rank $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ equals rank \mathbf{A} or rank $\mathbf{A} + 1$. Now if (1) has a solution \mathbf{x} , then (2) shows that \mathbf{b} must be a linear combination of those column vectors, so that $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ and \mathbf{A} have the same maximum number of linearly independent column vectors and thus the same rank.

Conversely, if rank $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \text{rank } \mathbf{A}$, then \mathbf{b} must be a linear combination of the column vectors of \mathbf{A} , say,

$$(2^*) \quad \mathbf{b} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{c}_{(1)} + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{c}_{(n)}$$

since otherwise rank $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \text{rank } \mathbf{A} + 1$. But (2*) means that (1) has a solution, namely, $x_1 = \alpha_1, \dots, x_n = \alpha_n$, as can be seen by comparing (2*) and (2).

(b) If rank $\mathbf{A} = n$, the n column vectors in (2) are linearly independent by Theorem 3 in Sec. 7.4. We claim that then the representation (2) of \mathbf{b} is unique because otherwise

$$\mathbf{c}_{(1)}x_1 + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{(n)}x_n = \mathbf{c}_{(1)}\tilde{x}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{c}_{(n)}\tilde{x}_n.$$

This would imply (take all terms to the left, with a minus sign)

$$(x_1 - \tilde{x}_1)\mathbf{c}_{(1)} + \dots + (x_n - \tilde{x}_n)\mathbf{c}_{(n)} = \mathbf{0}$$

and $x_1 - \tilde{x}_1 = 0, \dots, x_n - \tilde{x}_n = 0$ by linear independence. But this means that the scalars x_1, \dots, x_n in (2) are uniquely determined, that is, the solution of (1) is unique.

(c) If rank $\mathbf{A} = \text{rank } \tilde{\mathbf{A}} = r < n$, then by Theorem 3 in Sec. 7.4 there is a linearly independent set K of r column vectors of \mathbf{A} such that the other $n - r$ column vectors of \mathbf{A} are linear combinations of those vectors. We renumber the columns and unknowns, denoting the renumbered quantities by $\hat{\cdot}$, so that $\{\hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(1)}, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r)}\}$ is that linearly independent set K . Then (2) becomes

$$\hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(1)}\hat{x}_1 + \dots + \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r)}\hat{x}_r + \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r+1)}\hat{x}_{r+1} + \dots + \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(n)}\hat{x}_n = \mathbf{b},$$

$\hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r+1)}, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(n)}$ are linear combinations of the vectors of K , and so are the vectors $\hat{x}_{r+1}\hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r+1)}, \dots, \hat{x}_n\hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(n)}$. Expressing these vectors in terms of the vectors of K and collecting terms, we can thus write the system in the form

$$(3) \quad \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(1)}y_1 + \dots + \hat{\mathbf{c}}_{(r)}y_r = \mathbf{b}$$

The solution space of (4) is also called the **null space** of \mathbf{A} because $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ for every \mathbf{x} in the solution space of (4). Its dimension is called the **nullity** of \mathbf{A} . Hence Theorem 2 states that

$$(5) \quad \text{rank } \mathbf{A} + \text{nullity } \mathbf{A} = n$$

where n is the number of unknowns (number of columns of \mathbf{A}).

Furthermore, by the definition of rank we have $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} \leq m$ in (4). Hence if $m < n$, then $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} < n$. By Theorem 2 this gives the practically important

THEOREM 3

Homogeneous Linear System with Fewer Equations Than Unknowns

A homogeneous linear system with fewer equations than unknowns always has nontrivial solutions.

Nonhomogeneous Linear Systems

The characterization of all solutions of the linear system (1) is now quite simple, as follows.

THEOREM 4

Nonhomogeneous Linear System

If a nonhomogeneous linear system (1) is consistent, then all of its solutions are obtained as

$$(6) \quad \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}_h$$

where \mathbf{x}_0 is any (fixed) solution of (1) and \mathbf{x}_h runs through all the solutions of the corresponding homogeneous system (4).

PROOF The difference $\mathbf{x}_h = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0$ of any two solutions of (1) is a solution of (4) because $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_h = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$. Since \mathbf{x} is any solution of (1), we get all the solutions of (1) if in (6) we take any solution \mathbf{x}_0 of (1) and let \mathbf{x}_h vary throughout the solution space of (4). ■

This covers a main part of our discussion of characterizing the solutions of systems of linear equations. Our next main topic is determinants and their role in linear equations.

7.6 For Reference: Second- and Third-Order Determinants

We created this section as a quick general reference section on second- and third-order determinants. It is completely independent of the theory in Sec. 7.7 and suffices as a reference for many of our examples and problems. Since this section is for reference, **go on to the next section, consulting this material only when needed.**

A **determinant of second order** is denoted and defined by

$$(1) \quad D = \det \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}.$$

So here we have **bars** (whereas a matrix has **brackets**).