## Chapter 3: Systems of linear equations

- General principles for the solutions of linear equations with examples.
- Computational aspects of systems of linear equations.
- **1** The **Gauss Elimination Method** for solving linear equations.
- We will introduce elementary matrices and show how they can be used in solving linear equations.
- Any invertible matrix is a product of elementary matrices.
- We will discuss a practical algorithm called the Gauss-Jordan algorithm for computation of the inverse of an invertible matrix.

## A pair of homogeneous linear equations

Let us consider a pair of linear equations

$$2x + 3y - z = 0$$
$$x + y + z = 0.$$

- **②** These are equations of two planes in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  passing through the origin. Their normal vectors are  $n_1 = (2, 3, -1)$  and  $n_2 = (1, 1, 1)$ .
- Since the normal vectors are not parallel, we expect that the set of solutions constitute a line passing through the origin that is the intersection of these planes.
- **1** Eliminate x from the  $1^{st}$  equation by subtracting 2 times the  $2^{nd}$  equation:

$$y - 3z = 0$$
$$x + y + z = 0.$$

- Substitute y = 3z in the second equation x + y + z = 0 to get x = -4z.
- **♦** Hence any solution vector is (x, y, z) = (-4z, 3z, z) = z(-4, 3, 1) for any  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Therefore the solution vectors constitute a line passing through the origin and parallel to the vector w = (-4, 3, 1). Note that  $w \perp n_1$  and  $w \perp n_2$ .

## General facts about systems of linear equations

**1** A general system of linear equations with coefficients in  $\mathbb F$  where  $\mathbb F$  is either  $\mathbb R$  or  $\mathbb C$  can be written as

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

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

$$\vdots \vdots$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m.$$

- **②** The entries  $a_{ij}, b_k \in \mathbb{F}$  for all i, j and k.
- **3** A compact way of writing the above m equations in n variables is to use matrices. Let  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b = (b_i) \in \mathbb{F}^m$  and  $x = (x_j)$ .
- **1** Then the above system of equations can be written as Ax = b.
- **1** Let  $A^j$  denote the  $j^{th}$  column of A for j = 1, 2, ..., n.
- A useful way of writing Ax = b is  $x_1A^1 + x_2A^2 + \cdots + x_nA^n = b$ .
- Hence Ax = b has a solution  $\iff b$  is a linear combination of the column vectors of A.

#### Four fundamental spaces associated to Ax = b.

• Let  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ . The vector

$$a_1u_1+a_2u_2+\cdots+a_mu_m$$

where  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{F}$  is called a **linear combination** of  $u_1, \ldots, u_m$ .

- **②** The set  $L(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$  of all linear combinations of  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$  is called the **linear span** of  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$ .
- **1** The linear span C(A) of the column vectors of A, is called the **column space of** A. Hence  $C(A) \subset \mathbb{F}^m$ .
- The linear span R(A), of row vectors of A, is called the **row space of** A.
- **③** A vector  $c = (c_1 \ c_2 \ \dots, \ c_n)^t \in \mathbb{F}^n$  is called a **solution of** Ax = b if Ac = b. Therefore if Ax = b has a solution if and only if  $b \in C(A)$ .
- **1** If b = 0 then Ax = 0 is called a **homogeneous system.** If  $b \neq 0$  then Ax = b is called an **inhomogeneous system.**
- **②** The set of vectors  $c \in \mathbb{F}^n$  that are solutions of Ax = 0 is called the **null space of** A. It is denoted by N(A).
- **1** The fourth space associated to Ax = b is the space  $N(A^t)$ .

## General facts about linear equations

• The solutions of Ax = b and the corresponding homogeneous system Ax = 0 are closely related. If c, d are solutions of Ax = 0 then for any scalars  $\alpha, \beta, \alpha c + \beta d$  is also a solution of Ax = 0 since

$$A(\alpha c + \beta d) = \alpha Ac + \beta Ad = 0.$$

- **②** Recall that the set of solutions of Ax = 0, denoted by N(A), is called the **null space of** A.
- **Theorem.** Let  $s \in \mathbb{F}^n$  be any solution of Ax = b. Then the set of solutions of Ax = b is given by

$$s + N(A) = \{s + c \mid c \in N(A)\}.$$

- **9 Proof.** Let  $c \in N(A)$ . Then A(s+c) = As + Ac = As = b.
- **Solution** Of Ax = b. Then A(d s) = Ad As = b b = 0.
- **⑤** Hence  $d s \in N(A)$ . Therefore  $d \in s + N(A)$ .

## Basic facts about system of linear equations

- **Proposition.** A system of linear equations Ax = b has either no solution, or one solution or infinitely many solutions.
- **② Proof.** Suppose that Ax = b has two distinct solutions  $c, d \in \mathbb{F}^n$ . Then for  $z \in \mathbb{F}$ ,

$$A(zc - zd) = zAc - zAd = zb - zb = 0.$$

- **⑤** Hence z(c-d) for any nonzero  $z ∈ \mathbb{F}$  is a nonzero vector in N(A).
- Therefore c + z(c d) is a solution of Ax = b for all  $z \in \mathbb{F}$ .
- **§**Hence <math>Ax = b has infinitely many solutions.
- **Proposition.** Let *A* be a  $m \times n$  matrix over  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{F}^m$ , and *E* an invertible  $m \times m$  matrix over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then Ax = b has the same solutions as EAx = Eb.
- **Proof.** If Ax = b then EAx = Eb.
- If EAx = Eb then  $E^{-1}(EAx) = E^{-1}(Eb)$  or Ax = b.
- Remark. We will introduce invertible matrices called the elementary matrices which can be used to simplify a system of linear equations so that the solutions of the new system are easy to find.

# Linear independence and dependence of vectors

• A set of vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m \in \mathbb{F}^n$  are called linearly dependent if there are scalars  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{F}^n$  not all zero so that

$$x_1u_1 + x_2u_2 + \cdots + x_mu_m = 0.$$

- **②** The vectors  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$  are called **linearly independent** if they are not linearly dependent.
- Consider the row vectors

$$a = (-3, 2, 1, 4), b = (4, 1, 0, 2), c = (-10, 3, 2, 6).$$

- $\bullet$  We wish to find whether a, b, c are linearly dependent.
- **5** This is same as solving for x, y, z so that xa + yb + zc = 0.
- This is a homogeneous system of linear equations.
- **1** If we can find a nontrivial solution then a, b, c are linearly dependent.

- We shall perform the following three operations on these vectors which do not change the linear span of a, b, c.
- **Exchange one vector for another.** Suppose we exchange *a* and *b*.
- **3** Then it is clear that L(a, b, c) = L(b, a, c).
- **Quantification** Replace a vector u by  $u + \alpha v$  where v is another vector and  $\alpha \neq 0$ . For example replace a by a 2b. Then L(a, b, c) = L(a 2b, b, c).
- **③** In fact It is clear that any linear combination of a 2b, b, c is also a linear combination of a, b, c. Let  $x, y, z ∈ \mathbb{F}$ . Then

$$xa + yb + zc = x(a - 2b) + 2xb + yb + zc$$
  
=  $x(a - 2b) + (2x + y)b + zc$   
 $\in L(a - 2b, b, c).$ 

Therefore L(a, b, c) = L(a - 2b, b, c).

- **Replace a vector** u by  $\alpha u$  where  $\alpha \neq 0$ . It is clear that this operation does not change linear span of a given set of vectors.
- The above three operations are called the elementary row operations.

• Rather than carrying out these operations on a, b, c we can introduce a  $3 \times 4$  matrix whose row vectors are a, b, c:

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{rrrr} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{array} \right].$$

Exchanging two vectors amounts to exchanging two rows of A. We indicate this row operation as follows:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2} A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**3** Replacing a by a-2b is described by the notation:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \longrightarrow R_1 - 2R_2} A' = \begin{bmatrix} -11 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- We can perform these three types of row operations on A to simplify A without changing the row space of A until we get a matrix in which it is easy to find linearly independent row vectors.
- One way to do this is to use the Gauss Elimination Method. This method consists of performing a series of row operations of the three kinds described above so that the matrix A is transformed into a simpler matrix that is in row echelon form or row canonical form.
- **1** If a matrix A' is obtained from a matrix A by applying a sequence row operations to A then A' is called **row equivalent** to A.
- **3** An  $m \times n$  matrix M is said to be in **row echelon form (REF)** if it satisfies the following conditions:
- (a) Suppose M has k nonzero rows and m-k zero rows. Then the last m-k rows of M are the zero rows.
- (b) The first nonzero entry in a nonzero row is called a **pivot**. For i = 1, 2, ..., k, suppose that the pivot in row i occurs in column  $j_i$ .

#### The row echelon form of a matrix

- Then we have  $j_1 < j_2 < \cdots < j_k$ . The columns  $\{j_1, \dots, j_k\}$  are called the set of **pivotal columns** of M.
- **②** The columns  $\{1,\ldots,n\}\setminus\{j_1,\ldots,j_k\}$  are the **nonpivotal columns**.
- **3** An  $m \times n$  matrix M that is in row echelon form is said to be in **row canonical** form (RCF) if it satisfies the following conditions:
- (a) The first nonzero entry in every nonzero row is 1.
- (b) The only nonzero entry in a pivotal column is the pivot 1.
- Note that a matrix in row canonical form is in row echelon form. Also note that, in both the definitions above, the number k of pivots is  $\leq m, n$ .
- Let us find the REF of the matrix A.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \longrightarrow R_2 + \frac{4}{3}R_1} A(1) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & \frac{11}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{22}{3} \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(1) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & \frac{11}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{22}{3} \\ -10 & 3 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \longrightarrow R_3 - \frac{10}{3}R_1} A(2) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & \frac{11}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{22}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{-11}{3} & \frac{-4}{3} & \frac{-22}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(2) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & \frac{11}{3} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{22}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{-11}{3} & \frac{-4}{3} & \frac{-22}{3} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \longrightarrow R_3 + R_2} A(3) = \begin{bmatrix} (-3) & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & (\frac{11}{3}) & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{22}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The matrix A(3) is row equivalent to A. In fact A(3) is in REF.
- ② The circled numbers are the two pivots. Hence R(A) = R(A(3)).
- **3** The row space of A(3) is the linear span of the first two row vectors of A(3).
- Check that the first two row vectors are linearly independent.

# The Gauss elimination method for solving linear equations

- Note that each solution of Aw = 0 is perpendicular to each vector in R(A).
- ② Since R(A) = R(A(3)), solutions to Aw = 0 are solutions to A(3)w = 0.
- Let w = (x, y, z, u). Solutions of A(3)w = 0 are solutions to

$$-3x + 2y + z + 4u = 0$$
$$0.x + (11/3)y + (4/3)z + (22/3)u = 0.$$

- **1** Therefore y = -(4/11)z 2u and x = z/11.
- **1** Hence a general solution to Aw = 0 is given by

$$w = (x, y, z, u) = (z/11, -4/11z - 2u, z, u)$$

$$= z(1/11. - 4/11, 1, 0) + u(0, -2, 0, 1).$$

 $\bullet$  Note that w is a linear combination of two linearly independent vectors.

## Elementary matrices for the elementary row operations

- We have seen how elementary row operations on A can be used to find an REF A' of A. The equations A'x = 0 and Ax = 0 have same set of solutions.
- Now we show that this method is useful for solving inhomogeneous systems of linear equations also.
- To justify this, we show that elementary row operations on A can be carried out by multiplying A by invertible matrices on the left of A.
- These matrices are called **elementary matrices.**
- **1** Let  $e_j$  be the column vector in  $\mathbb{F}^m$  whose *jth* component is 1 and others are zero.
- **o** The column vectors  $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m$  are linearly independent.
- **1** In fact  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is the linear span of  $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m$ .
- **Solution** The corresponding row vectors will be denoted by  $e_1^t, e_2^t, \dots, e_m^t$ .
- Elementary row operations of three kinds can be performed by premultiplying A by certain invertible matrices.

**Exchanging row vectors.** Let  $1 \le i < j \le m$  and E be the  $m \times m$  matrix whose row vectors are

$$E_1 = e_1^t, E_2 = e_2^t, \dots, E_i = e_i^t, \dots, E_i = e_i^t, \dots, E_m = e_m^t$$

- **3** Then for any  $m \times n$  matrix A, EA is the matrix obtained from A by exchanging the row vectors  $A_i$  and  $A_i$ . Since  $E^2 = E$ ,  $E^{-1} = E$ .
- **②** We call E as the **elementary matrix of the first kind.** Note that E is obtained from the identity matrix by exchanging the  $i^{th}$  and the  $j^{th}$  row.
- **•** Adding a scalar multiple of a row vector to another row vector. Let  $1 \le i < j \le m$  and F be the  $m \times m$  matrix whose row vectors are

$$F_1 = e_1^t, \ldots, F_j = e_j^t + x e_i^t, \ldots, F_m = e_m^t.$$

Note that F is obtained from the identity matrix by adding x times the  $i^{th}$  row vector to the  $j^{th}$  row vector and FA is the matrix obtained from A by adding  $xA_i$  to  $A_j$ . Check that  $F^{-1} = [e_1^t, \ldots, e_j^t - xe_i^t, \ldots, e_m^t]^t$ . The matrix F is called the **elementary matrix of the second kind.** 

**Multiply a row vector by a nonzero scalar.** Let x be a nonzero scalar. Let  $G_i(x)$  be the  $m \times m$  matrix whose row vectors are

$$G_i(x) = e_1^t, \dots, G_i = xe_i^t, \dots, G_m = e_m^t$$

- ②  $G_i(x)$  is obtained by multiplying the  $i^{th}$  row of the identity matrix by x.
- **1** Check that  $G_i(x)A$  is the matrix obtained from A by multiplying  $A_i$  by x.
- $G_i(x)$  is invertible and  $G^{-1} = G_i(1/x)$ .
- **1** We say that  $G_i(x)$  is the **elementary matrix of the third kind.**
- The Gauss elimination method for solving linear equations.
- If A' is an REF of A then there are invertible matrices  $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_r$  corresponding to elementary row operations so that

$$A'=E_rE_{r-1}\dots E_2E_1A.$$

#### The Gauss elimination method

- In order to solve the system of linear equations Ax = b we apply elementary row operations to the **augmented matrix** [A, b] so that [EA, Eb] is in REF for some invertible matrix E.
- ② The system Ax = b are transformed into the system EAx = Eb.
- **1** This system and the original system Ax = b have the same set of solutions. The system EAx = Eb can be solved by back-substitutions.
- The non-pivotal variables can be assigned any values and the values of pivotal variables can then be determined.
- **Example.** Consider the system

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = b.$$

**3** Apply elementary row operations to the augmented matrix [A, b] we get

### A linear system with unique solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -8 & -2 & -12 \\ 0 & 8 & 3 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 + R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -8 & -2 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 - R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -8 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 + \frac{1}{8}R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & -8 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\frac{1}{2}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since there are no non-pivotal columns there a unique solution:  $x_1 = x_2 = 1$  and  $x_3 = 2$ .

### A linear system with infinitely many solutions

Consider the system of linear equations:

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & -5 & -2 & 4 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = b.$$

Apply elementary row operations to A and b we get

#### A linear system with infinitely many solutions

$$R_{2} - 3R_{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_{1} + 2R_{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
Now check that every solution to  $Ax = b$  is of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + r \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

for any choice of the scalars s, t, r.

## A linear system with no solution

#### Consider the system

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & -5 & -2 & 4 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 6 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = b.$$

Apply elementary row operations to A and b to get

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & -5 & -2 & 4 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 & 6 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 18 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 8 & 0 & 18 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-R_2 \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 8 & 0 & 18 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 - 5R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### A linear system with no solution

$$R_{3} \leftrightarrow R_{4} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(1/6)R_{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{2} - 3R_{3} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_{1} + 2R_{2} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore the system has no solution.

- **Theorem.** A system Ax = 0 of m homogeneous equations in n unknowns where m < n has infinitely many solutions.
- **Proof.** Let A' be the REF of A. Then Ax = 0 and A'x = 0 have the same solutions. Since m < n, A' has at most m pivots. Therefore n m variables are free variables which can be assigned any values to get values of the pivotal variables.
- **1** Thus there are infinitely many solutions to Ax = 0.

# Calculation of $A^{-1}$ by Gauss-Jordan method

- We describe an efficient method to find the inverse of an invertible matrix using the Gauss-Jordan method.
- The method also shows that that all invertible matrices are products of elementary matrices.
- **Theorem.** Let A be a square matrix. Then the following are equivalent:
  - (a) A can be reduced to the identity matrix I by a sequence of elementary row operations.
  - (b) A is a product of elementary matrices.
  - (c) A is invertible.
  - (d) The system Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution x = 0.
- **Proof.** (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b). Let  $E_1, \ldots, E_k$  be elementary matrices so that  $E_k \ldots E_1 A = I$ . Therefore,

$$A=E_1^{-1}\dots E_k^{-1}.$$

- $(b) \Rightarrow (c)$  Since elementary matrices are invertible, A is also invertible.
- **6** (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (d) Suppose A is invertible and Ax = 0. Hence  $A^{-1}(Ax) = x = 0$ .
- (d) ⇒ (a) First observe that a square matrix in RCF is either the identity matrix or its bottom row is zero.

# Calculation of $A^{-1}$ by Gauss-Jordan method

- If A can't be reduced to I by elementary row operations then U = the RCF of A has a zero row at the bottom.
- Hence Ux = 0 has at most n 1 nontrivial equations. which have a nontrivial solution. This contradicts (d).
- This proposition provides us with an algorithm to calculate inverse of a matrix.
- If *A* is invertible then there exist invertible matrices  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  such that  $E_k \cdots E_1 A = I$ . Multiply by  $A^{-1}$  on both sides to get  $E_k \cdots E_1 I = A^{-1}$ .
- **Proposition.** [The Gauss-Jordan Algorithm] Let A be an invertible matrix. To compute  $A^{-1}$ , apply elementary row operations to A to reduce it to an identity matrix. The same operations when applied to I, produce  $A^{-1}$ .

#### The Gauss-Jordan method to find the inverse of a matrix

**Example.** We find the inverse of the matrix 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

2 Construct the following the  $3 \times 6$  matrix

$$[A \mid I] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

**3** Now perform row operations to reduce the matrix A to I. The same row operations when applied to I give  $A^{-1}$ .

$$[A \mid I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{matrix} R_2 - R_1 \\ \longrightarrow \\ R_3 - R_1 \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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