

# COURSE 6

## The rank of a matrix

Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(K)$ .

**Definition 1.** Let  $i_1, \dots, i_k, j_1, \dots, j_l \in \mathbb{N}^*$  cu  $1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq m$  and  $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_l \leq n$ . A matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{i_1 j_1} & a_{i_1 j_2} & \dots & a_{i_1 j_k} \\ a_{i_2 j_1} & a_{i_2 j_2} & \dots & a_{i_2 j_k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i_l j_1} & a_{i_l j_2} & \dots & a_{i_l j_k} \end{pmatrix}$$

formed by taking the elementels of  $A$  which are situated at the intersections of the rows  $i_1, \dots, i_k$  with the columns  $j_1, \dots, j_l$  is called  $k \times l$  **submatrix of  $A$** . The determinant of a  $k \times k$  submatrix is called **minor of  $A$  of order  $k$** .

**Definition 2.** Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(K)$ . If  $A$  is not the zero matrix, i.e.  $A \neq O_{m,n}$ , we say that **the rank of the matrix  $A$**  is  $r$ , and we write  $\text{rank } A = r$ , if  $A$  has a non-zero minor of order  $r$  all the minors of  $A$  of order greater than  $r$  (if they exist) are 0. By definition,  $\text{rank } O_{m,n} = 0$ .

**Remark 3.** a)  $\text{rank } A \leq \min\{m, n\}$ .

b) If  $A \in M_n(K)$  then  $\text{rank } A = n$  dif and only if  $\det A \neq 0$ .

c)  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } {}^t A$ .

For the following part of this section, we take  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(K)$  and  $A \neq O_{m,n}$ .

Finding the rank of  $A$  by definition involves, most of the time, a large number of computations (of minors). The next theorem is a first step for reducing the number of these computations.

**Theorem 4.**  $\text{rank } A = r$  if and only if  $A$  has a non-zero minor of order  $r$  and all  $r+1$ -size minors of  $A$  (if they exist) are 0.

*Proof.*

□

**Theorem 5.** The rank of the matrix  $A$  is the maximum number of columns (rows) we can choose from the columns (rows) of  $A$  such that none of them is a linear combination of the others.

*Proof.* Suppose that the rank of  $A$  is  $r$ . Then  $A$  has a non-zero minor of order  $r$ . For simpler notations, we consider that

$$d = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1r} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & a_{r2} & \dots & a_{rr} \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$$

and any  $r + 1$ -size minor is zero. (The proof of the general case works in the same way, only the notations are more complicated.) Therefore the determinant

$$D_{ij} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1r} & a_{1j} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2r} & a_{2j} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & a_{r2} & \dots & a_{rr} & a_{rj} \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{ir} & a_{ij} \end{vmatrix}$$

of size  $r + 1$  resulted by adding to  $d$  the  $i$ 'th row and  $j$ 'th column of  $A$  ( $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $r < j \leq n$ ) is zero, i.e.  $D_{ij} = 0$ . Notice that if  $1 \leq i \leq r$  then  $D_{ij}$  has two equal rows, and if  $r < i \leq m$  and  $r < j \leq n$  then  $D_{ij}$  is a  $r + 1$ -size minor of  $A$  resulted by adding to  $d$  the row  $i$  and the column  $j$ . Expanding  $D_{ij}$  along the row  $r + 1$ , we get

$$a_{i1}d_1 + a_{i2}d_2 + \dots + a_{ir}d_r + a_{ij}d = 0$$

where the cofactors  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_r$  do not depend on the added row  $i$ . It follows that

$$a_{ij} = -d^{-1}d_1a_{i1} - d^{-1}d_2a_{i2} - \dots - d^{-1}d_ra_{ir}$$

for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  and  $j = r + 1, \dots, n$  thus

$$c_j = \alpha_1c_1 + \alpha_2c_2 + \dots + \alpha_rc_r \text{ for all } j = r + 1, \dots, n,$$

where  $\alpha_k = -d^{-1}d_k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq r$ , i.e.  $c_j$  is a linear combination of  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_r$ .

This way we proved that the maximum number of columns we can choose from the columns of  $A$  such that none of them is a linear combination of the others is at most  $r$ . If this number is strictly smaller than  $r$ , then one of  $c_1, \dots, c_r$  will be a linear combination of the others and  $d = 0$ , which is not possible.

Thus the maximum number of columns we can choose from the columns of  $A$  such that none of them is a linear combination of the others is exactly  $r$  and the proof is now complete.  $\square$

**Corollary 6.**  $\text{rank } A = r$  if and only if  $A$  has a non-zero minor  $d$  of order  $r$  and all the other rows (columns) of  $A$  are linear combinations of the the rows (columns) of  $A$  whose elements are the entries of  $d$ .

**Corollary 7.** If  $m, n, p \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(K)$  and  $B = (b_{ij}) \in M_{n,p}(K)$  ( $K$  field) then  $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \min\{\text{rank } A, \text{rank } B\}$ .

If one of the given matrices is zero, the property is obvious. So, let us consider both our matrices non-zero and let us suppose that  $\min\{\text{rank } A, \text{rank } B\} = \text{rank } B = r \in \mathbb{N}^*$  and that a non-zero minor of  $B$  of size  $r$  can be extracted from the columns  $j_1, \dots, j_r$  with  $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_r \leq p$ . (For the other case, one can rephrase the statement for the transposes of our matrices, then one can use the same reasoning to find the expected result.) The columns of  $AB$  are

$$A \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n1} \end{pmatrix}, A \begin{pmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n2} \end{pmatrix}, \dots, A \begin{pmatrix} b_{1p} \\ b_{2p} \\ \vdots \\ b_{np} \end{pmatrix}.$$

From corollary 6 we deduce that for any  $k \in \{1, \dots, p\} \setminus \{j_1, \dots, j_r\}$ , there exist  $\alpha_{1k}, \dots, \alpha_{rk} \in K$  such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{1k} \\ b_{2k} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nk} \end{pmatrix} = \alpha_{1k} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_1} \\ b_{2j_1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_1} \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_{2k} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_2} \\ b_{2j_2} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_2} \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_{rk} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_r} \\ b_{2j_r} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$A \begin{pmatrix} b_{1k} \\ b_{2k} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nk} \end{pmatrix} = \alpha_{1k} \cdot A \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_1} \\ b_{2j_1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_1} \end{pmatrix} + \alpha_{2k} A \cdot \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_2} \\ b_{2j_2} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_2} \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_{rk} \cdot A \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j_r} \\ b_{2j_r} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj_r} \end{pmatrix},$$

which means that in  $AB$  all the columns  $k \in \{1, \dots, p\} \setminus \{j_1, \dots, j_r\}$  are linear combinations of the columns  $j_1, \dots, j_r$ . Thus the rank of the matrix  $AB$  is at most  $r$ .

**Corollary 8.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$  and  $K$  be a field. A matrix  $A \in M_n(K)$  is invertible (i.e. a unit in  $(M_n(K), +, \cdot)$ ) if and only if  $\det A \neq 0$ .

**Corollary 9.**  $\text{rank } A = r$  if and only if there exists a non-zero minor  $d$  of  $A$  of order  $r$  and all the  $r + 1$ -size minors of  $A$  resulted by adding one of remained rows and columns to  $d$  are 0 (if they exist, of course).

An algorithm for finding the rank of a matrix:

Corollary 9 shows that for a matrix  $A \neq O_{m,n}$ ,  $\text{rank } A$  can be determined in the following way: we start with a non-zero minor  $d$  of  $A$  and we compute all the minors of  $A$  obtained by adding  $d$  one of the remained rows and one of the remained columns until we find a non-zero minor, minor which will be the subject of a similar approach. In finitely many steps, we will find a non-zero minor of order  $r$  of  $A$  for which all the  $r+1$ -size minors resulted by adding it one of remained rows and columns are zero. Thus  $r = \text{rank } A$ .

# Systems of linear equations

Let  $K$  be a field and let us consider the system of  $m$  linear equations with  $n$  unknowns:

[illegible]

where  $a_{ij}, b_j \in K$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ;  $j = 1, \dots, n$ . Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$$

We remind that  $A \in M_{m,n}(K)$  is **the matrix of the system** (1),  $B$  is **the matrix of constant terms** and  $\bar{A}$  is **the augmented matrix of the system**. If all the constant terms are zero, i.e.  $b_1 = b_2 = \dots = b_m = 0$ , the system (1) is a **homogeneous linear system**. By denoting

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

the system (1) can be written as a matrix equation

$$AX = B \tag{2}$$

The system  $AX = O_{m,1}$  is **the homogeneous system associated** to the system  $AX = B$ .

**Definition 10.** An  $n$ -tuple  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in K^n$  is a **solution of the system** (1) if the all the equalities resulted by replacing  $x_i$  with  $\alpha_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) in (1) are true. The system (1) is called **consistent** if it has at least one solution. Otherwise, the system (1) is **inconsistent**. Two **systems** of linear equations with  $n$  unknowns are **equivalent** if they have the same solution set.

**Remarks 11.** a) Cramer's Theorem states that for  $m = n$  and  $\det A \neq 0$  the system (1) is consistent, with a unique solution, and its solution is given by Cramer's formulas.

b) If (1) is a homogeneous system, then  $(0, 0, \dots, 0) \in K^n$  is a solution of (1), called **the trivial solution**, so any homogeneous linear system is consistent.

The following result is a very important tool for the study of the consistency of the general linear systems.

**Theorem 12. (Kronecker-Cappelli)** The linear system (1) is consistent if and only if the rank of its matrix is the same as the rank of its augmented matrix, i.e.  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } \bar{A}$ .

*Proof.* □

Let us consider that  $\text{rank } A = r$ . Based on how one can determine the rank of a matrix one can restate the previous theorem as follows:

**Theorem 13. (Rouché)** Let  $d_p$  be a nonzero  $r \times r$  minor of the matrix  $A$ . The system (1) is consistent if and only if all the  $(r+1) \times (r+1)$  minors of  $\bar{A}$  obtained by completing  $d_p$  with a column of constant terms and the corresponding row are zero (if such  $(r+1) \times (r+1)$  minors exist).

We end this section by presenting an algorithm for solving arbitrary systems of linear equations based on Rouché Theorem.

### An algorithm for solving systems of linear equations:

We begin by studying the consistency of (1) by using Rouché's theorem and let us consider that we have found a minor  $d_p$  of  $A$ . If one finds a nonzero  $(r+1) \times (r+1)$  minor which completes  $d_p$  as in Rouché Theorem, then (1) is inconsistent and the algorithm ends. If  $r = m$  or all the Rouché Theorem  $(r+1) \times (r+1)$  minor completions of  $d_p$  are 0, then (1) is consistent.

We call the unknowns corresponding to the the entries of  $d_p$  **main unknowns** and the other unknowns **side unknowns**. For simpler notations, we consider that the minor  $d_p$  was “cut” from the first  $r$  rows and the first  $r$  columns of  $A$ . One considers only the  $r$  equations which determined the rows of  $d_p$ . Since  $\text{rank } \overline{A} = \text{rank } A = r$ , Corollary 6 tells us that all the other equations are linear combinations” of these  $r$  equations, hence (1) is equivalent to

[illegible]

If  $n = r$ , i.e. all the unknowns are main unknowns, then (3) is a Cramer system. The Cramer's rule gives us its unique solution, hence the unique solution of (1).

Otherwise,  $n > r$ , and  $x_{r+1}, \dots, x_n$  are side unknowns. We can assign them arbitrary “values” from  $K$ ,  $\alpha_{r+1}, \dots, \alpha_n$ , respectively. Then (3) becomes

[illegible]

The determinant of the matrix of (4) is  $d_p \neq 0$ , hence we can express the main unknowns using the side unknowns, by solving the Cramer system (4).