



# Elementary Row Operations

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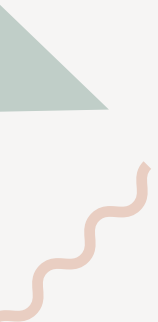
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01

# Vector Operation



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Review & Geometric Interpretation

# Categorical (Non-numerical) Data

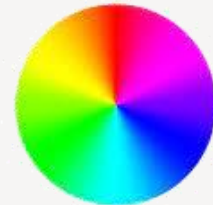
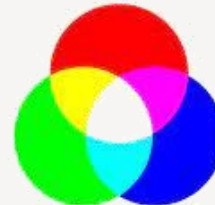
- Sometimes you work with categorical data in machine learning.
- It is common to encode categorical variables to make them easier to work with and learn by some techniques. A popular encoding for categorical variables is the one hot encoding.
- A one hot encoding is:

## Example

$$\text{red} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$


$$\text{green} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{blue} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Categorical (Non-numerical) Data

- One-Hot Encodings (standard basis vector)
  - Assign to each word a vector with one 1 and 0s elsewhere.
  - Suppose our language only has four words:


$$\text{apple} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{cat} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{house} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{tiger} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Drawbacks

- Very sparse vectors.
- Are never **similar**!



# How to measure the similarity?

- **Dot Product**

- The product of numbers is another number.
- The dot product of vectors is not another vector! It is a number!!


$$2 \times 5 = 10$$

Numbers

vs

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = 7$$

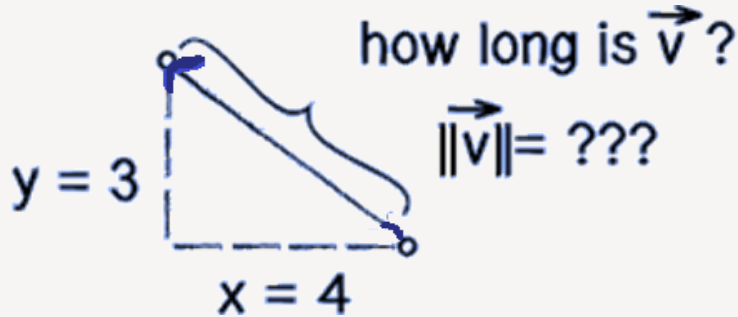
Vectors

A number

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = (1)(7) + (0)(2) + (3)(-1) = 4$$

# Length of vector

- Dot product between a vector and itself: magnitude-squared, the **length** squared, or the squared-norm, of the vector.



$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 16 + 9 = 25$$

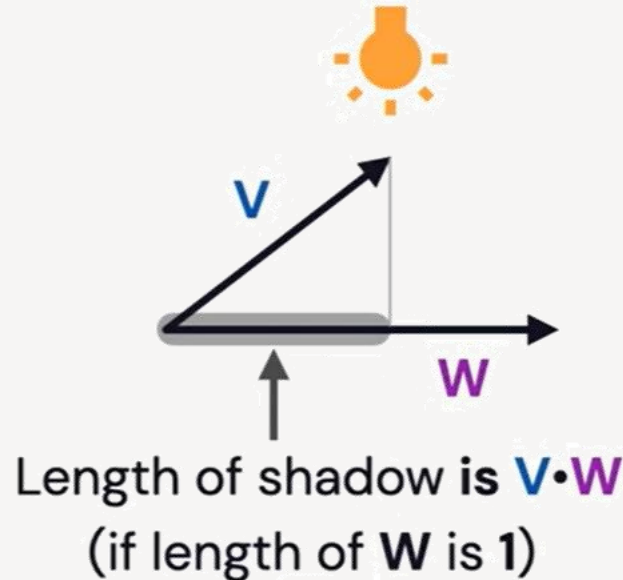
Length( $\mathbf{v}$ )=5

$$\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} = \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i a_i = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$$





# Dot Product (Geometric Interpretation and Intuition)

- Represents the length of the “shadow” of one vector along another.
- This indicates how similar the two vectors are.



# One-Hot Encodings Drawbacks


$$\text{apple} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{cat} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{house} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{tiger} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{apple} \cdot \text{cat} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{tiger} \cdot \text{cat}$$




# Vector Operations

- Vector-Vector Addition
- Vector-Vector Subtraction
- Scalar-Vector Product
- Vector-Vector Products:
  - $x \cdot y$  is called the **inner product** or **dot product** or **scalar product** of the vectors:  $x^T y$  ( $y^T x$ )

■  $\langle a, b \rangle$        $\langle a|b \rangle$        $(a, b)$        $a \cdot b$

$$x^T y \in \mathbb{R} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

- Transpose of dot product:

■  $(a \cdot b)^T = (a^T b)^T = (b^T a) = (b \cdot a) = b^T a$

- Length of vector

# Dot Product Properties

- Commutativity

- The order of the two vector arguments in the inner product does not matter.

$$a^T b = b^T a$$

- Distributivity with vector addition


- The inner product can be distributed across vector addition.

$$(a + b)^T c = a^T c + b^T c$$

$$a^T (b + c) = a^T b + a^T c$$

# Dot Product Properties

- Bilinear (linear in both  $a$  and  $b$ )


$$a^T(\lambda b + \beta c) = \lambda a^T b + \beta a^T c$$

- Positive Definite:

$$(a, a) = a^T a \geq 0$$

- 0 only if  $a$  itself is a zero vector  $a = \mathbf{0}$




# Dot Product Properties

- Associative

- Note: the associative law is that parentheses can be moved around, e.g.,  $(x+y)+z = x+(y+z)$  and  $x(yz) = (xy)z$

1) Associative property of the vector dot product with a scalar (scalar-vector multiplication embedded inside the dot product)




scalar 

$$\gamma(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}) = (\gamma \mathbf{u}^T) \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T (\gamma \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}) \gamma$$
$$= (\gamma \mathbf{u})^T \mathbf{v} = \gamma \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$$

# Dot Product Properties

- Associative

2) Does vector dot product obey the associative property?


$$\underbrace{\mathbf{u}^T (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w})}_{\substack{\text{vector-scalar product} \\ \text{row vector}}} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{w}}_{\substack{\text{scalar-vector product} \\ \text{column vector}}}$$

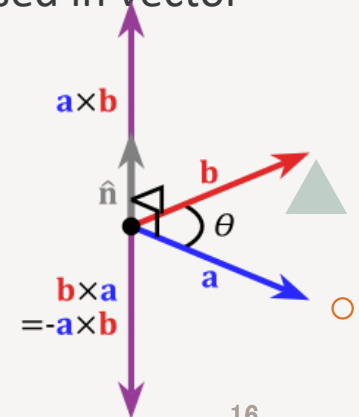
# Cross product

- The cross product is defined only for two 3-element vectors, and the result is another 3-element vector. It is commonly indicated using a multiplication symbol ( $\times$ ).

$$\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\| = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \sin(\theta_{ab}) \quad \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3 \\ a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- It is used often in geometry, for example to create a vector  $\mathbf{c}$  that is orthogonal to the plane spanned by vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ . It is also used in vector and multivariate calculus to compute surface integrals.

$u_1$	$v_1$	
$u_2$	$v_2$	
$u_3$	$v_3$	$u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2$
$u_1$	$v_1$	$u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3$
$u_2$	$v_2$	$u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1$






# Vector Operations

- Vector-Vector Products:



- Given two vectors  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

- $x \otimes y = xy^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is called the outer product of the vectors:  $(xy^T)_{ij} = x_i y_j$


$$xy^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \cdots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & \cdots & x_1 y_n \\ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & \cdots & x_2 y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m y_1 & x_m y_2 & \cdots & x_m y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example

□ Represent  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with outer product of two vectors:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ x & x & \cdots & x \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_1 & \cdots & x_1 \\ x_2 & x_2 & \cdots & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m & x_m & \cdots & x_m \end{bmatrix}$$



# Outer Product Properties



- Properties:

- $(u \otimes v)^T = (v \otimes u)$
- $(v + w) \otimes u = v \otimes u + w \otimes u$
- $u \otimes (v + w) = u \otimes v + u \otimes w$
- $c(v \otimes u) = (cv) \otimes u = v \otimes (cu)$
- $(u, v) = \text{trace}(u \otimes v) \quad (u, v \in R^n)$
- $(u \otimes v)w = (v, w)u$

# Vector Operations

- Vector-Vector Products:
  - Hadamard
  - Element-wise product


$$c = a \odot b = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 \\ a_2 b_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ a_n b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Hadamard product is used in image compression techniques such as JPEG. It is also known as Schur product
  - Hadamard Product is used in LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory) cells of Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs).
- 
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# Hadamard Product Properties

- Properties:

- $a \odot b = b \odot a$
- $a \odot (b \odot c) = (a \odot b) \odot c$
- $a \odot (b + c) = a \odot b + a \odot c$
- $(\theta a) \odot b = a \odot (\theta b) = \theta(a \odot b)$
- $a \odot \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \odot a = \mathbf{0}$

02

# Matrix Multiplication

# Basic Notation

- By  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  we denote a matrix with  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns, where the entries of  $A$  are real numbers.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix}$$

## Definition


The **linear combinations** of  $m$  vectors  $a_1, \dots, a_m$ , each with size  $n$  is:

$$\beta_1 a_1 + \cdots + \beta_m a_m$$

where  $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m$  are scalars and called the **coefficients of the linear combination**

# Matrix-Vector Multiplication

- If we write A by rows, then we can express Ax as,


$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad y = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T x \\ a_2^T x \\ \vdots \\ a_m^T x \end{bmatrix}. \quad a_i^T x = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x$$

- If we write A by columns, then we have:

$$y = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = [a_1]x_1 + [a_2]x_2 + \cdots + [a_n]x_n.$$

- y is a **linear combination** of the columns A.

We will learn in next lectures

columns of A are linearly independent if  $Ax = 0$  implies  $x = 0$



# Matrix-Vector Multiplication

It is also possible to multiply on the left by a row vector.

- If we write A by columns, then we can express  $x^T A$  as,

$$y^T = x^T A = x^T \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} = [x^T a_1 \quad x^T a_2 \quad \cdots \quad x^T a_n]$$

- Expressing A in terms of rows we have:

$$\begin{aligned} y^T = x^T A &= [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \cdots \quad x_m] \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x_1 [- \quad a_1^T \quad -] + x_2 [- \quad a_2^T \quad -] + \dots + x_m [- \quad a_m^T \quad -] \\ &\quad \circ \quad y^T \text{ is a linear combination of the rows of A.} \end{aligned}$$



# Matrix-Vector Multiplication

- $A(u + v) = Au + Av$
- $(A + B)u = Au + Bu$
- $(\alpha A)u = \alpha(Au) = A(\alpha u) = \alpha Au$
- $0u = 0$
- $A0 = 0$
- $Iu = u$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ - & \vdots & - \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Write in matrix-vector multiplication

- Column  $j$ :  $a_j =$
- Row  $i$ :  $a_i^T =$
- Vector sum of rows of  $A =$
- Vector sum of columns of  $A =$

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

# Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

## Definition

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix over the field  $F$  and let  $B$  be an  $n \times p$  matrix over  $F$ . The product  $AB$  is the  $m \times p$  matrix  $C$  whose  $i, j$  entry is:

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^n A_{ir} B_{rj}$$

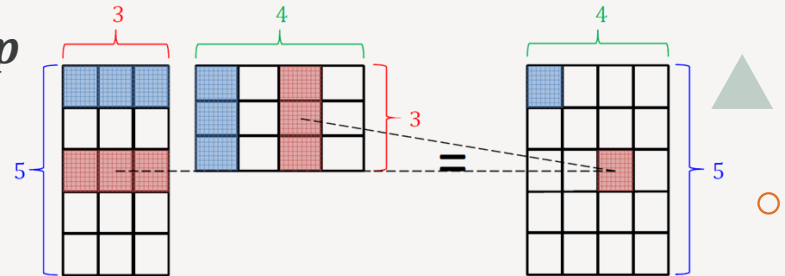
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ 
  - $a_i$  rows of  $A$ ,  $b_j$  cols of  $B$

$$C = AB$$

$$\text{for } 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq p$$


**dot product( $a_i \cdot b_j$ )**

$$C_{ij} = a_i^T b_j$$





# Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

1. As a set of vector-vector products


$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_p \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T b_1 & a_1^T b_2 & \dots & a_1^T b_p \\ a_2^T b_1 & a_2^T b_2 & \dots & a_2^T b_p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_m^T b_1 & a_m^T b_2 & \dots & a_m^T b_p \end{bmatrix}$$

2. As a sum of outer products

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & b_1^T & - \\ - & b_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & b_n^T & - \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i^T$$


# Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

3. As a set of matrix-vector products.

$$C = AB = A \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_p \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ Ab_1 & Ab_2 & \dots & Ab_p \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}$$

Here the  $i$ th column of  $C$  is given by the matrix-vector product with the vector on the right,  $c_i = Ab_i$ . These matrix-vector products can in turn be interpreted using both viewpoints given in the previous subsection.

4. As a set of vector-matrix products.

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T B & - \\ - & a_2^T B & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T B & - \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

- Properties:

- Associative

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

- Distributive

$$A(B + C) = AB + AC$$

- NOT commutative

$$AB \neq BA$$

- Dimensions may not even be conformable

03

# Elementary Row Operations



# Gaussian Elimination: Elementary Row Operations

- Elementary Row Operations
  1. **Scaling**: Multiply all entries in a row by a nonzero scalar.
  2. **Replacement**: Replace one row by the sum of itself and a multiple of another row.
  3. **Interchange**: Interchange two rows.
- Elementary Row Operation is a special type of function  $e$  on  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and gives an  $m \times n$  matrix  $e(A)$ 
  1. **Scaling**:  $e(A)_{ij} = cA_{ij}$
  2. **Replacement**:  $e(A)_{ij} = A_{ij} + cA_{kj}$
  3. **Interchange**:  $e(A)_{ij} = A_{kj}$  ,  $e(A)_{kj} = A_{ij}$

In defining  $e(A)$ , it is not really important how many columns  $A$  has, but the number of rows of  $A$  is crucial.

# Inverse of Elementary Row Operation



## Theorem

The inverse operation (function) of an elementary row operation exists and is an elementary row operation of the same type.



Proof:

*Proof.* (1) Suppose  $e$  is the operation which multiplies the  $r$ th row of a matrix by the non-zero scalar  $c$ . Let  $e_1$  be the operation which multiplies row  $r$  by  $c^{-1}$ . (2) Suppose  $e$  is the operation which replaces row  $r$  by row  $r$  plus  $c$  times row  $s$ ,  $r \neq s$ . Let  $e_1$  be the operation which replaces row  $r$  by row  $r$  plus  $(-c)$  times row  $s$ . (3) If  $e$  interchanges rows  $r$  and  $s$ , let  $e_1 = e$ . In each of these three cases we clearly have  $e_1(e(A)) = e(e_1(A)) = A$  for each  $A$ . ■





# Row-Equivalent

## Definition

If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $m \times n$  matrices over the field  $F$ , we say that  $B$  is **row-equivalent** to  $A$  if  $B$  can be obtained from  $A$  by a finite sequence of elementary row operations.

## Note (from pervious theorem and this definition)

- ☐ Each matrix is row-equivalent to itself
- ☐ If  $B$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ , then  $A$  is row-equivalent to  $B$ .
- ☐ If  $B$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ ,  $C$  is row-equivalent to  $B$ , then  $C$  is row-equivalent to  $A$

04

# Elementary Matrices



# Elementary Matrices

## Definition

A  $m \times m$  matrix is an elementary matrix if it can be obtained from the  $m \times m$  identity matrix by means of a **single elementary row operation**.

## Example

Find all  $2 \times 2$  elementary matrices.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad c \neq 0, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}, \quad c \neq 0.$$

# Elementary Matrices and Elementary Row Operation

## Theorem

Let  $e$  be an elementary row operation and let  $E$  be the  $m \times m$  elementary matrix  $E = e(I)$ . Then, for every  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ :

$$e(A) = EA$$

### Proof:

*Proof.* The point of the proof is that the entry in the  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column of the product matrix  $EA$  is obtained from the  $i$ th row of  $E$  and the  $j$ th column of  $A$ . The three types of elementary row operations should be taken up separately. We shall give a detailed proof for an operation of type (ii). The other two cases are even easier to handle than this one and will be left as exercises. Suppose  $r \neq s$  and  $e$  is the operation 'replacement of row  $r$  by row  $r$  plus  $c$  times row  $s$ .' Then

$$E_{ik} = \begin{cases} \delta_{ik}, & i \neq r \\ \delta_{rk} + c\delta_{sk}, & i = r. \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$(EA)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m E_{ik}A_{kj} = \begin{cases} A_{ij}, & i \neq r \\ A_{rj} + cA_{sj}, & i = r. \end{cases}$$

In other words  $EA = e(A)$ . ■

**Multiplication of a matrix on the left by a square matrix performs row operations.**

# Elementary Matrices

## Example

Matrix	Elementary row operation	Elementary matrix
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -2 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$R_2 \leftarrow R_2 + 2R_1$	$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$	$E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$R_2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}R_2$	$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$R_1 \leftarrow R_1 + (-2)R_2$	$E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$		

(From property  
 $(AB)C = A(BC)$ )

$$E_4(E_3(E_2(E_1A))) = (E_4(E_3(E_2E_1)))A$$

# Row-Equivalent and Elementary Matrices

## Theorem

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be  $m \times n$  matrices over the field  $F$ . Then  $B$  is row-equivalent to  $A$  if and only if  $B = PA$ , where  $P$  is a product of  $m \times m$  elementary matrices.

**Proof:**

**Corollary.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be  $m \times n$  matrices over the field  $F$ . Then  $B$  is row-equivalent to  $A$  if and only if  $B = PA$ , where  $P$  is a product of  $m \times m$  elementary matrices.

*Proof.* Suppose  $B = PA$  where  $P = E_s \cdots E_2 E_1$  and the  $E_i$  are  $m \times m$  elementary matrices. Then  $E_1 A$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ , and  $E_2(E_1 A)$  is row-equivalent to  $E_1 A$ . So  $E_2 E_1 A$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ ; and continuing in this way we see that  $(E_s \cdots E_1)A$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ .

Now suppose that  $B$  is row-equivalent to  $A$ . Let  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_s$  be the elementary matrices corresponding to some sequence of elementary row operations which carries  $A$  into  $B$ . Then  $B = (E_s \cdots E_1)A$ . ■

05

# Linear Equations



# Systems of Linear Equations

## Definition

A system of  $m$  linear equations with  $n$  unknowns:

- $F$  is a field, we want to find  $n$  scalars (elements of  $F$ )  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  which satisfy the conditions: ( $A_{ij}, y_k$  are elements of  $F$ )

$$A_{11}x_1 + A_{12}x_2 + \cdots + A_{1n}x_n = y_1$$

$$A_{21}x_1 + A_{22}x_2 + \cdots + A_{2n}x_n = y_2$$

...

$$A_{m1}x_1 + A_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + A_{mn}x_n = y_m$$

If  $y_1 = y_2 = \cdots = y_m = 0$ , we say that the system is **homogeneous**.

A **solution** of this **system of linear equations** is vector  $\begin{bmatrix} s_1 \\ \vdots \\ s_n \end{bmatrix}$  whose components satisfy

$$x_1 = s_1, \dots, x_n = s_n$$



# Linear Equation (Geometric Interpretation and Intuition)

- Consider this simple system of equations,

$$x - 2y = 1$$

$$3x + 2y = 11$$

- Can be expressed as a matrix-vector multiplication

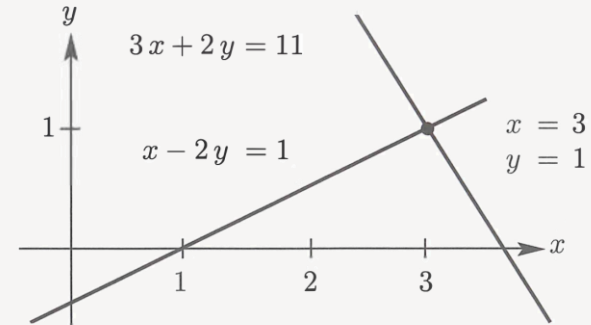
- Matrix Equation:  $Ax=b$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

- $A$  is often called **coefficient matrix**:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $Ab$  is an **Augmented matrix**:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$



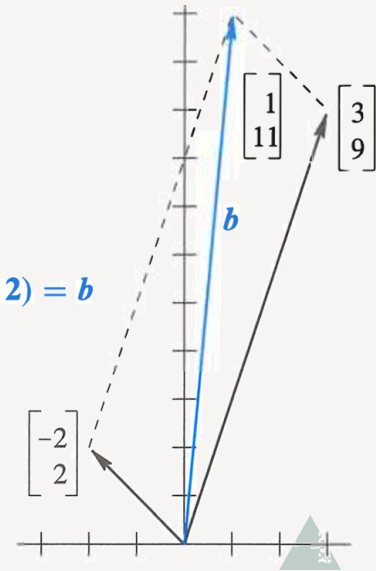
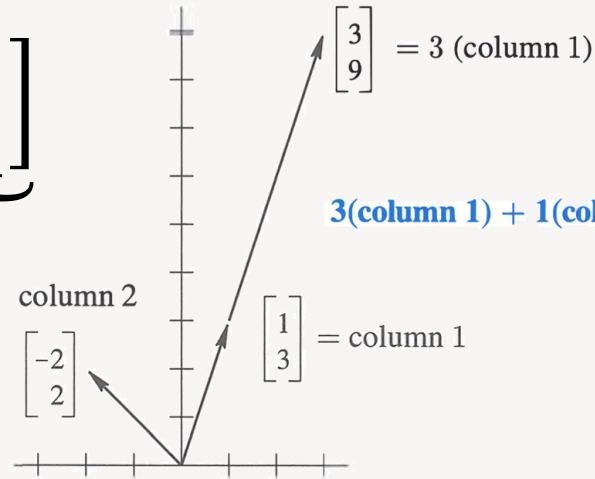
# Vectors & Linear Equation

Also, Can be expressed as linear combination of cols:

$$\begin{aligned} x - 2y &= 1 \\ 3x + 2y &= 11 \end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

$$x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} = b$$



Same for  $n$  equation,  $n$  variable

# Idea Of Elimination

- Subtract a multiple of equation (1) from (2) to eliminate a variable

$$\begin{array}{r} x - 2y = 1 \\ 3x + 2y = 11 \end{array}$$

multiply equation 1 by 3  
→  
Subtract to eliminate 3x

$$\begin{array}{r} x - 2y = 1 \\ 8y = 8 \end{array}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}}_c$$


$A$  has become an upper triangle matrix  $U$

# Idea Of Elimination (Row Reduction Algorithm)

- The **pivots** are on the diagonal of the triangle after elimination. The first non zero element in each row (boldface 2 below is the first pivot)

$$\begin{aligned} 2x + 4y - 2z &= 2 \\ 4x + 9y - 3z &= 8 \\ -2x - 3y + 7z &= 10 \end{aligned}$$




$$\begin{aligned} 2x + 4y - 2z &= 2 \\ 1y + 1z &= 4 \\ 4z &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

- Step 1: subtract (1) from (2) to eliminate x's in (2)
- Step 2: subtract (1) from (3) to totally eliminate x
- Step 3: subtract new (2) from new (3)

## Definition

The variables corresponding to pivot columns in the matrix are called **basic variables**.  
The other variables are called a **free variable**.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix}$$

# Homogenous system

## Theorem

If  $A$  and  $B$  are row-equivalent  $m \times n$  matrices, the homogenous systems of linear equations  $Ax = 0$  and  $Bx = 0$  have exactly the same solutions.

### Proof:

*Proof.* Suppose we pass from  $A$  to  $B$  by a finite sequence of elementary row operations:

$$A = A_0 \rightarrow A_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow A_k = B.$$

It is enough to prove that the systems  $A_i X = 0$  and  $A_{i+1} X = 0$  have the same solutions, i.e., that one elementary row operation does not disturb the set of solutions.

So suppose that  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by a single elementary row operation. No matter which of the three types the operation is, (1), (2), or (3), each equation in the system  $BX = 0$  will be a linear combination of the equations in the system  $AX = 0$ . Since the inverse of an elementary row operation is an elementary row operation, each equation in  $AX = 0$  will also be a linear combination of the equations in  $BX = 0$ . Hence these two systems are equivalent, and by Theorem 1 they have the same solutions. ■

# Homogenous system

## Example

Find the solution for this system.

Suppose  $F$  is the field of complex number and the coefficient matrix is:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & i \\ -i & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

In performing row operations it is often convenient to combine several operations of type (2). With this in mind

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & i \\ -i & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(2)} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2+i \\ 0 & 3+2i \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(1)} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3+2i \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(2)} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} -x_1 + ix_2 &= 0 \\ -ix_1 + 3x_2 &= 0 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

has only the trivial solution  $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ .

# Solution of system of linear equations

## Definition

The two systems of linear equations are **equivalent** if each equation in each system is a linear combination of the equations in other system.

## Theorem

Equivalent systems of linear equations have exactly the same solutions.

**Proof:**

## Note

- ❑ It is important to note that row operations are reversible. If two rows are interchanged, they can be returned to their original positions by another interchange.
- ❑ If the augmented matrices of two linear systems are row equivalent, then the two systems have the same solution set.

# Existence and Uniqueness Questions

- A system of linear equations has:
    - No solution → inconsistent
    - Exactly one solution
    - Infinitely many solutions
- } → consistent

## Next session:

1. Is the system consistent? That is, does at least one solution exist?
2. If a solution exists, is it the only one? That is, is the solution unique?



# Conclusion

- Different view of matrix multiplication
- Linear combination and matrix multiplication
- Associativity of three matrices multiplication
- Gaussian Elimination
- Row-equivalent of two matrices
- Elementary matrices
- System of linear equations
- Equivalent systems of linear equations have exactly the same solutions.



# Resources

- ❑ Chapter 1: Kenneth Hoffman and Ray A. Kunze. Linear Algebra. PHI Learning, 2004.
- ❑ Chapter 1: David C. Lay, Steven R. Lay, and Judi J. McDonald. Linear Algebra and Its Applications. Pearson, 2016.
- ❑ Chapter 2: David Poole, Linear Algebra: A Modern Introduction. Cengage Learning, 2014.
- ❑ Chapter 1: Gilbert Strang. Introduction to Linear Algebra. Wellesley-Cambridge Press, 2016.

