

## §1.5 Elementary Matrices

### Elementary Matrices

If we start with the identity matrix  $I$  and perform exactly one elementary row operation, the resulting matrix is called an **Elementary Matrix**.

There are 3 types of elementary matrices corresponding to the three types of elementary row operations:

**Type I:** obtained by interchanging two rows of  $I$  (*Permutation matrix*).

**Type II:** obtained by multiplying a row of  $I$  by a nonzero constant.

**Type III:** obtained by adding a multiple of one row to another row. (*Elimination Matrix*).

**PROPERTY:**

**Left multiplication** by  $E$  performs the same row operation on  $A$  as the one done on the Identity matrix to obtain  $E$ .

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the elementary matrix  $E$  obtained by interchanging row2 and row3 of the Identity matrix:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 \rightarrow E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now left multiply an arbitrary  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $A$  by the matrix  $E$ :

$$E \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$EA$  interchanges row2 and row3 of  $A$ .

**EXAMPLE:** Let  $A$  be a  $3 \times 3$  matrix.

What  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $F$  adds 5 times row2 to row3 and then adds 2 times row1 to row2 when it multiplies  $A$ ?

*Solution:* First find an elementary matrix  $E_1$  that adds  $5 \cdot \text{row2}$  to  $\text{row3}$ . We can obtain this matrix by performing this row operation on the identity:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_3 = r_3 + 5r_2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_1$$

Then find  $E_2$  that performs  $R_2 = r_2 + 2r_1$

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 = r_2 + 2r_1 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_2$$

To perform the two operations in sequence we need 1st to multiply by  $E_1$  and then by  $E_2$ .

$$\Rightarrow F = E_2 \cdot E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$F$  is the  $3 \times 3$  matrix that performs the two operations in sequence.

CHECK:

$$FA = E_2 E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 2a_{11} + a_{21} & 2a_{12} + a_{22} & 2a_{13} + a_{23} \\ 5a_{21} + a_{31} & 5a_{22} + a_{32} & 5a_{23} + a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

**THEOREM:** If  $E$  is an elementary matrix, then  $E$  is nonsingular and  $E^{-1}$  is an elementary matrix of the same type.

*Proof.*

- **Type I**

$E$  is its own inverse, that is,  $E = E^{-1}$ .

Recall that Type I elementary matrices are obtained by interchanging two rows of the Identity, if we interchange the two rows again we get back the Identity.

- **Type II**

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \alpha & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow E^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{\alpha} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Type III**

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & m & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(obtained by performing the row operation  $row_j = row_j + m \cdot row_i$  on the identity)

To “undo” the row operation we need to subtract  $m \cdot row_i$  from  $row_j$ :

$$E^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & -m & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

■

**Definition:** A matrix  $B$  is row equivalent to  $A$  if there exists a finite sequence  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  of elementary matrices such that

$$B = E_k \cdot E_{k-1} \cdot \dots \cdot E_1 \cdot A$$

(that is,  $B$  can be obtained from  $A$  by performing a finite sequence of elementary row operations — recall that left multiplication by an elementary matrix corresponds to performing a row operation on  $A$ ).

### Theorem: Equivalent conditions for non singularity

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (a)  $A$  is non singular (i.e.  $A^{-1}$  exists).
- (b) The homogeneous system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution  $\mathbf{x} = (0, 0, \dots, 0)^T$ .
- (c)  $A$  is row equivalent to  $I$  ( i.e. we can obtain the Identity by performing a finite sequence of row operations on  $A$ , that is,  $I = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1 A$  for some elementary matrices  $E_j$ , i.e. **the RREF of  $A$  is the Identity matrix**)

*Proof.*

- (a) $\Rightarrow$  (b)  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- (b) $\Rightarrow$  (c) If  $A$  is not row equivalent to  $I$ , then  $\text{rref}(A)$  has a row of zeros and the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  would have infinitely many solutions which contradicts (b).
- (c) $\Rightarrow$  (a) If  $I = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1 A$  then  $A^{-1} = (E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1)$ , thus  $A^{-1}$  exists and the matrix is nonsingular. ■

**Corollary:** Let  $A$  be  $n \times n$ , then

$A$  is nonsingular, iff the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for every vector  $\mathbf{b}$ .

*Proof:* If  $A$  is nonsingular, then  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has the unique solution  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

Conversely, if  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for every  $\mathbf{b}$ , then, in particular,  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has a unique solution and therefore  $A$  is nonsingular by the Theorem on equivalent condition for nonsingularity. ■

### EXAMPLE

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

- (i) Show that  $A$  is row equivalent to  $I$ .
- (ii) Write  $A^{-1}$  as a product of elementary matrices.
- (iii) Solve the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  using  $A^{-1}$ .

*Soln.*

- (i) We need to find elementary matrices s.t.  $I = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A$ . The elementary matrices correspond to the row operations needed to put  $A$  in RREF.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \boxed{5} & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  To zero out  $\boxed{5}$  we need to perform the row operation  $R_2 = r_2 - 5r_1$ . If we perform this same row operation on the identity matrix we obtain the elementary matrix  $E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

We have  $E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \boxed{2} \end{bmatrix}$

To make the  $\boxed{2}$  a 1, we need to perform the row operation  $R_2 = r_2/2$ . Performing the same row operation on the identity matrix gives the elementary matrix  $E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$

Now we can easily check that  $I = E_2 E_1 A$ .

- (ii) From  $I = E_2 E_1 A$  we have  $I = (E_2 E_1)A$ . Let  $B = E_2 E_1$ , then  $B \cdot A = I$  and  $B = A^{-1}$  by definition of inverse. Thus

$$A^{-1} = E_2 E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}}.$$

- (iii) From the Corollary:

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3/2 \end{bmatrix}} \leftarrow \text{Solution to the system.}$$

From (c) in Theorem (Equivalent conditions for nonsingularity), we have that the same row operations that transform  $A$  into  $I$  will transform  $I$  into  $A^{-1}$  (in the Example,  $I = E_2 E_1 A \Rightarrow A^{-1} = E_2 E_1 \Rightarrow A^{-1} = E_2 E_1 I$ ).

This gives us a method for computing  $A^{-1}$ :

### Computing the Inverse

1. Create the augmented matrix  $[A|I]$ .
2. Perform row operations that transform  $A$  into  $I$  on the augmented matrix  $[A|I]$ .
3. The RREF of  $[A|I]$  will be  $[I|A^{-1}]$ .

#### EXAMPLE

Find the inverse of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

*Solution*

$$[A|I] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} R_2 = r_2 + r_1 \\ R_3 = r_3 + r_1 \end{array} \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_3 = r_3 + 2r_2 \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right] R_3 = r_3/2 \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & 1 & 1/2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{l} R_1 = r_1 - r_3 \\ R_2 = r_2 - 2r_3 \end{array} \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1/2 & -1 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & 1 & 1/2 \end{array} \right] = [I|A^{-1}] \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -1 & -1/2 \\ -2 & -1 & -1 \\ 3/2 & 1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}}$$

**NOTE:** A diagonal matrix has an inverse provided no diagonal entries are zero.

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_n \end{bmatrix}, \text{ then } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{d_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{1}{d_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### IMPORTANT REMARK

In practice we never use the inverse to solve a system b/c it is computationally inefficient and it introduces round off errors. Solving the system using RREF is better.  
In MATLAB, use  $A \backslash \mathbf{b}$  to solve the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

**Definition:** A matrix is **upper triangular** if all elements below the diagonal are zero, it is **lower triangular** if all elements above the diagonal are zero.

## LU Factorization

The goal is to factor the  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  into the product  $A = LU$ , where  $L$  is  $m \times m$  lower triangular and  $U$  is  $m \times n$  upper triangular.

**EXAMPLE** Given  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 3 & 8 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

- (a) Determine elementary matrices of TYPE III such that  $E_3 E_2 E_1 A = U$  where  $U$  is upper triangular.

*Solution*

In order to zero out the entries 3 and 2 in the first column of the matrix  $A$  we need to perform the row operations  $R_2 = r_2 + 3r_1$  and  $R_3 = r_3 + 2r_1$ . Performing these same row operations on the identity matrix we obtain the first two elementary matrices.

$$I \rightarrow R_2 = r_2 + 3r_1 \rightarrow E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & -6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I \rightarrow R_3 = r_3 + 2r_1 \rightarrow E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow E_2(E_1 A) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & -6 \\ 0 & -2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

In order to zero out the entry -2 in  $E_2(E_1 A)$  we need to perform the row operation  $R_3 = r_3 - 2r_2$ . Performing the same row operation on the identity matrix will give us the third elementary matrix:

$$I \rightarrow R_3 = r_3 - 2r_2 \rightarrow E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow E_3(E_2 E_1 A) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

- (b) Determine the inverses of  $E_1, E_2$  and  $E_3$  and let  $L = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1}$ . What type of matrix is  $L$ ? Verify that  $A = LU$ .

*Solution*

$$E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L$$

$L$  is a lower triangular matrix and it is easy to check that  $A = LU$ .

The matrices  $L$  and  $U$  are called the LU factorization or the triangular factorization of the matrix  $A$

### Shortcut for determining the matrix $L$ :

1st row operation:  $R_2 = r_2 + 3 r_1 \Rightarrow l_{21} = -3$  (note the negative)

2nd row operation:  $R_3 = r_3 + 2 r_1 \Rightarrow l_{31} = -2$  (note the negative)

3rd row operation:  $R_3 = r_3 - 2 r_2 \Rightarrow l_{32} = 2$  (note the positive)

Diagonal elements of  $L$  are all ones  $\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

$U$  is determined with the usual row reduction but using only row operations of TYPE III.

### EXAMPLE

Find the  $LU$  factorization of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & -2 \\ 2 & -12 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ .

*Solution*

$$\begin{aligned} R_2 = r_2 + 4r_1 &\Rightarrow l_{21} = -4 \\ R_3 = r_3 + 2r_1 &\Rightarrow l_{31} = -2 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 = r_3 - 4r_2 \Rightarrow l_{32} = 4 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = U \quad L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

WE CAN EASILY CHECK THAT  $A = LU$ .

**NOTE:** Not all matrices have an  $LU$  factorization b/c not all matrices can be reduced to upper triangular form using only row operation III, but if we allow the rows to be interchanged, then all matrices have an  $LU$  factorization (but we have to keep track of the rows we permute).

### EXAMPLE

$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 3 & 8 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  does not have an  $LU$  (when we try to zero out the entries in the first column we obtain  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ , and it is impossible to put this matrix in triangular form without permuting the rows). However, the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & -3 \\ 3 & 8 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  does have an  $LU$  factorization.

## Solving systems using LU Factorization

The  $LU$  factorization is very useful when studying computer methods for solving linear systems. We can use the  $LU$  to solve systems in the following manner:

To solve  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  or, equivalently:  $LU\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ ,

Let  $\mathbf{y} = U\mathbf{x}$

First solve  $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$  (USING SUBSTITUTION!) and then  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  (USING SUBSTITUTION!!!!)

### EXAMPLE

Solve the system using the  $LU$  factorization:  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & -2 \\ 2 & -12 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -22 \\ 88 \\ 46 \end{bmatrix}$

*Solution:* We already found before the  $LU$  decomposition of the coefficient matrix.

First solve  $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ , i.e.  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -22 \\ 88 \\ 46 \end{bmatrix}$

This system reduces to

$$y_1 = -22$$

$$-4y_1 + y_2 = 88$$

$$-2y_1 + 4y_2 + y_3 = 46$$

and using forward substitution we find the solution  $y_1 = -22$ ,  $y_2 = 0$  and  $y_3 = 2$ .

We now solve  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ , i.e. 
$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -22 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The system reduces to

$$-x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 = -22$$

$$-x_2 + 2x_3 = 0$$

$$-x_3 = 2$$

and using back substitution we find the solution

$$\mathbf{x} = (4, -4, -2)^T$$