

An Addendum To Theorem 9

Theorem 9 tells us that every $m \times n$ matrix is row equivalent to a matrix in RREF. Here we supplement this statement by showing that the matrix in RREF, provided by Theorem 9, is unique.

Proposition 18: Suppose A and B are two row equivalent $m \times n$ matrices and both A and B are in RREF. Then $A = B$.

Proof: Since A is row equivalent to

β , Proposition 16 implies

$$\text{row space of } A = \text{row space of } B.$$

This immediately implies that if either

A or B is the zero matrix, then both

must be the zero matrix.

We now assume that both A and B are nonzero matrices. Let

$$W = \text{row space of } A = \text{row space of } B.$$

Theorem 8 implies that any two bases

for W must have the same number of

elements. Since both A and B are

in RREF, the nonzero rows of A

forms a basis for W , as do the nonzero

rows of B - due to Proposition 17.

It follows that both A and B

have the same number of nonzero rows, k say.

Let \vec{v}_i denote the element of \mathbb{R}^n

corresponding to the i -th row of A ,

for $i=1,\dots,k$, and, similarly, let

\vec{w}_i denote the element of \mathbb{R}^n corresponding

to the i -th row of B , for $i=1,\dots,k$.

Also, let the columns of A containing

a pivot be $j_1 < j_2 < \dots < j_k$ and the columns

of B containing a pivot be $\tilde{j}_1 < \tilde{j}_2 < \dots < \tilde{j}_k$.

The key step in this proof is showing

$j_i = \tilde{j}_i$ for $i=1, \dots, k$. Since

$j_1 < j_2 < \dots < j_k$ and $\tilde{j}_1 < \tilde{j}_2 < \dots < \tilde{j}_k$, if

$\{j_1, j_2, \dots, j_k\} = \{\tilde{j}_1, \tilde{j}_2, \dots, \tilde{j}_k\}$, it

would follow that $j_i = \tilde{j}_i$, for $i=1, \dots, k$.

Thus, we must show that

$$\{j_1, \dots, j_k\} = \{\tilde{j}_1, \dots, \tilde{j}_k\}.$$

To this end, suppose that

$$\{j_1, \dots, j_k\} \neq \{\tilde{j}_1, \dots, \tilde{j}_k\}.$$

It would follow that there is either

a j_r such that $j_r \notin \{\tilde{j}_1, \dots, \tilde{j}_k\}$ or

there is a \tilde{j}_s such that $\tilde{j}_s \notin \{j_1, \dots, j_k\}$.

(Actually, both would have to be true, by

a counting argument - but we don't need this.)

Without loss of generality, we will assume there is a \tilde{j}_s such that

$\tilde{j}_s \notin \{j_1, \dots, j_k\}$. Since both $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$

and $\{\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_k\}$ are bases for W , we

must have $\vec{w}_s \in \text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\})$. Thus,

there exist $c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\vec{w}_s = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \vec{v}_i.$$

Recall, from the proof of Proposition 17,

that the j_i -th component of $\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \vec{v}_i$

is c_i , for $i=1, \dots, k$. Since the first

nonzero component of \vec{w}_s is a 1 in

its \tilde{j}_s -th component, $c_i = 0$ if $j_i < \tilde{j}_s$.

This immediately implies that j_i cannot be

less than \tilde{j}_s for all $i=1,\dots,k$.

Consequently, there is a smallest t such that $\tilde{j}_s < j_t$. Since $c_i = 0$ if $i < t$, it follows that the first possible nonzero component of $\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \vec{v}_i$ is its j_t -th component. But \vec{w}_s has a 1 in its \tilde{j}_s -th component and $\tilde{j}_s < j_t$.

Thus, $\vec{w}_s \notin \text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\})$ - a contradiction. This contradiction implies

that $\{j_1, \dots, j_k\} = \{\tilde{j}_1, \dots, \tilde{j}_k\}$

- so $j_i = \tilde{j}_i$, for $i=1,\dots,k$.

We are now in a position to show that $\vec{v}_i = \vec{w}_i$, for $i=1,\dots,k$. To see

this, fix $\ell \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. Note that we must have

$$\vec{w}_\ell \in \text{span}(\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}).$$

Thus, there exist $r_1, \dots, r_k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\vec{w}_\ell = \sum_{i=1}^k r_i \vec{v}_i.$$

Now note that the j_i -th component of $\sum_{i=1}^k r_i \vec{v}_i$ is r_i , for $i = 1, \dots, k$. On the other hand, since $\tilde{j}_i = j_i$, for $i = 1, \dots, k$,

the j_i -th component of \vec{w}_ℓ is 0, if

$i \neq \ell$, and 1 if $i = \ell$. Thus, $r_i = 0$

if $i \neq \ell$. This implies that

$$\vec{w}_\ell = r_\ell \vec{v}_\ell.$$

Since both \vec{w}_ℓ and \vec{v}_ℓ have a 1 in their

j_2 -th component, we conclude that

$$r_2 = 1 \text{ so } \vec{w}_2 = \vec{v}_2.$$

Since $\vec{v}_i = \vec{w}_i$, for $i=1, \dots, k$, it follows

that the first k rows in A are the

same as the first k rows in B . Since

these are the only nonzero rows in A and

B , and A and B are both $m \times n$ matrices

- we must have that $A=B$.

HW #23: Proposition 18 provides the

last element needed to prove that

there is a one-to-one correspondence

between subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n and the

set of $n \times n$ matrices in RREF.

Argue that every 2×2 matrix

in RREF is of one of the four

types of matrices, listed below,

and draw a picture in \mathbb{R}^2 of

the subspace represented by

each of these four types of

matrices.

$$(i) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(ii) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & m \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad m \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(iii) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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(iv)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Systems of Linear Equations

Many students are exposed to Gaussian Elimination, and possibly matrices in RREF, when solving systems of linear equations in Precalculus courses — so you may find this section as being a review, for the most part. Recall that the solution space of a system of homogeneous, linear equations in n variables is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . We'll show how to construct a basis for such a nonzero solution space.

We'll employ the following notation
to describe a generic system of
 m linear equations in n variables:

$$\begin{aligned} & a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = c_1 \\ & a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = c_2 \\ & \vdots \\ & a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = c_m \end{aligned}$$

- where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are the
 n variables, while the a_{ij} 's
and c_i 's represent fixed constants
for all $i=1, \dots, m$ and $j=1, \dots, n$.

You probably noticed that the notation
used for the system \mathcal{S} , above, is

reminiscent of matrix notation. This is no fluke — matrix techniques, and the notion of RREF, provide a very efficient approach to determining the solution set of a system of linear equations.

Recall that two systems of equations, \mathcal{S} and $\tilde{\mathcal{S}}$ say, are said to be equivalent precisely when the solution set of \mathcal{S} equals the solution set of $\tilde{\mathcal{S}}$. If \mathcal{S} is a system of equations, there are three elementary operations which can be performed on \mathcal{S} to yield an equivalent system of equations:

I) Multiply an equation of \mathcal{S} by a nonzero real number.

II) Add a real number multiple of one equation in \mathcal{S} to a different equation in \mathcal{S} .

III) Change the order in which the equations in \mathcal{S} appear.

We now associate the generic system of linear equations, \mathcal{S} , on page 222, to the $m \times (n+1)$ matrix shown at the top of page 225. Such a matrix is called an augmented matrix.

$$A_{\mathcal{S}} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} & c_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} & c_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} & c_m \end{array} \right].$$

Observe that the three elementary operations on \mathcal{S} , given on page 224, correspond to the three elementary row operations we can apply to $A_{\mathcal{S}}$.

This leads to

Proposition 19: Suppose \mathcal{S} and $\tilde{\mathcal{S}}$ are two systems of linear equations, each consisting of m equations in n variables.

Let $A_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $A_{\tilde{\mathcal{S}}}$ denote the matrices associated to \mathcal{S} and $\tilde{\mathcal{S}}$, respectively.

If A_S is row equivalent to \tilde{A}_S ,

then S and \tilde{S} are equivalent

systems of equations. I.e. the

solution set of S equals the

solution set of \tilde{S} .

To implement Proposition 19 we proceed

as follows:

Step 1: Given S , as on page 222, construct

A_S , as on page 225.

Step 2: Transform A_S into a matrix, \tilde{A}_S ,

in RREF.

Step 3: Construct \tilde{S} from \tilde{A}_S and solve

\tilde{S} .

This process is illustrated in the next example.

Ex: Solve the system

$$\begin{array}{l} x + 2y + 3z = 4 \\ \text{S: } 5x + 6y + 7z = 8 \\ \quad 9x + 10y + 11z = 12 \end{array}$$

$$A_8 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & -8 & -12 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & -8 & -12 \\ 0 & -8 & -16 & -24 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -8 & -16 & -24 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{So } \tilde{A}_8 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} x - z &= -2 \\ \tilde{\delta}: \quad y + 2z &= 3 \\ 0 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\tilde{\delta}$ can be solved by rewriting the equations in $\tilde{\delta}$. This involves moving those expressions involving the variables, which correspond to the columns of \tilde{A}_8 not containing a pivot, to the right-hand side of each equation.

So we write $\tilde{\delta}$ as below:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\delta}: \quad x &= -2+z \\ y &= 3-2z \\ 0 &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Now, according to Proposition 19, the solution set of δ equals the solution set of $\tilde{\delta}$

$$= \left\{ [-2+z, 3-2z, z] \mid z \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

The verification of this is given below:

$$(-2+z) + 2(3-2z) + 3z = -2+6 = 4 \checkmark$$

$$5(-2+z) + 6(3-2z) + 7z = -10+18 = 8 \checkmark$$

$$9(-2+z) + 10(3-2z) + 11z = -18+30 = 12 \checkmark$$

Some Useful Terminology: Note that when

δ is associated to A_g , the coefficients

of the i -th variable become the entries

is the i -th column of A_g and the

constants become the entries in the

augmentation column of A_g . In this

way, we view the i -th column of A_g

as the column associated to x_i and

the augmentation column of A_g as the

constant column.

After transforming A_g into \tilde{A}_g , the

i -th column of \tilde{A}_g remains the column

associated to x_i and the augmentation

column of \tilde{A}_g corresponds to constants still.

As was illustrated in the last example,

when \tilde{A}_g is in RREF, the tried and

true approach to constructing the solution

set for $\tilde{\delta}$ is to move those expressions

involving variables which are associated

to columns of \tilde{A}_g not involving a pivot

to the right-hand side of each equation

in $\tilde{\delta}$. When $\tilde{\delta}$ has a nonempty

solution set, those variables associated

to columns of \tilde{A}_g containing a pivot

should be viewed as dependent variables

(like x and y in the last example) while

those variables associated to columns of \tilde{A}_g

not containing a pivot should be viewed as independent variables (like z in the last example).

Suppose now that:

- i) \mathcal{S} is a system of m linear equations in the variables x_1, \dots, x_n ,
- ii) $A_{\mathcal{S}}$ is the matrix associated to \mathcal{S} ,
- iii) $A_{\mathcal{S}}$ is row equivalent to $A_{\tilde{\mathcal{S}}}$, where $A_{\tilde{\mathcal{S}}}$ is in RREF, and
- iv) $\tilde{\mathcal{S}}$ is the system of m linear equations in the variables, x_1, \dots, x_n , associated to $A_{\tilde{\mathcal{S}}}$.

We now provide three basic observations

corresponding to the solution set of

$\tilde{\delta}$, hence the solution set of δ .

Observation 1): If $A_{\tilde{\delta}}$ has a pivot

in its augmentation column, then

δ has no solutions.

Reason: This corresponds to the equation

$$0x_1 + \dots + 0x_n = 1, \text{ which has no}$$

solutions.

Observation 2): If $A_{\tilde{\delta}}$ has a pivot

in every column, except the augmentation

column, then δ has a unique solution.

Reason: In this case, every nonzero

equation of $\tilde{\delta}$ is of the form

$$x_i = d_i$$

for some $d_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $i=1,\dots,n$. Thus

Δ has the unique solution

$$[d_1, \dots, d_n].$$

Observation 3: If $A\tilde{y}$ has at least

two columns not containing a pivot,

and one of these columns not

containing a pivot is the augmentation

column, then Δ has infinitely

many solutions.

Reason: The solution set is not empty

and one component in your general

solution is an independent variable -

independent variables are allowed
to be any real number.

In the case when \mathcal{S} is also
assumed to be homogeneous, more
can be said.

Observation 4: If \mathcal{S} is a system
of m homogeneous linear
equations in the variables
 x_1, \dots, x_n , then the zero
vector in \mathbb{R}^n is a solution
to \mathcal{S} .

Reason: If \mathcal{S} is homogeneous, then

\mathcal{S} is of the form depicted below.

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = 0$$

$$\begin{matrix} \mathcal{S}: \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{matrix}$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = 0$$

Clearly, the zero vector in \mathbb{R}^n

is a solution to such a system.

Actually, more can be said when \mathcal{S} is homogeneous. As we

noted earlier in this section, the solution space of \mathcal{S} is a subspace

of \mathbb{R}^n . As the next example suggests, when \mathcal{S} is homogeneous, the dimension of the solution space of \mathcal{S} equals the number of independent variables in its generic solution.

Ex: Solve the system \mathcal{S} , given below, and construct a basis for its solution space - viewed as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\mathcal{S}: \begin{array}{ll} x_1 & -4x_4 + 5x_5 = 0 \\ x_2 + 3x_3 & -6x_5 = 0 \end{array}$$

In this case

$$A_8 = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 & -6 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

A_8 , as given, is in RREF. So

to solve the system δ , we

rewrite δ as below.

$$\delta: \quad x_1 = 4x_4 - 5x_5$$

$$x_2 = -3x_3 + 6x_5$$

The solution space for δ is

$$\left\{ [4x_4 - 5x_5, -3x_3 + 6x_5, x_3, x_4, x_5] \mid x_3, x_4, x_5 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

To obtain a basis for the solution

space of δ , we proceed as follows:

The first basis element is obtained

by setting $x_3 = 1, x_4 = 0, x_5 = 0$.

We obtain $[0, -3, 1, 0, 0]$.

The second basis element is obtained

by setting $x_3 = 0, x_4 = 1, x_5 = 0$.

We obtain $[4, 0, 0, 1, 0]$.

The third basis element is obtained

by setting $x_3 = 0, x_4 = 0, x_5 = 1$.

We obtain $[-5, 6, 0, 0, 1]$.

We claim that

$$\{[0, -3, 1, 0, 0], [4, 0, 0, 1, 0], [-5, 6, 0, 0, 1]\}$$

is a basis for this solution space.

Indeed, the generic element in
the span of this set of vectors is

$$x_3[0, -3, 1, 0, 0] + x_4[4, 0, 0, 1, 0] + x_5[-5, 6, 0, 0, 1]$$

$$= [4x_4 - 5x_5, -3x_3 + 6x_5, x_3, x_4, x_5]$$

-which is the generic solution to δ .

Thus, these vectors span the solution

space of δ . Also,

$$[4x_4 - 5x_5, -3x_3 + 6x_5, x_3, x_4, x_5]$$

$$= [0, 0, 0, 0, 0]$$

implies $x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = 0$

-so these three vectors form a
linearly independent set.

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HW #24: In the example discussed

on page 208, we showed that

$$[1, 1, 1] \in \text{span}(\{[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]\}).$$

Verify this using the techniques
of this section.

Hint: The typical element in this
span can be written as

$$x[1, 2, 3] + y[4, 5, 6] + z[7, 8, 9].$$

You must show that the system
of equations determined by

$$x[1, 2, 3] + y[4, 5, 6] + z[7, 8, 9] = [1, 1, 1]$$

has a solution.

Inverse Matrices - An Introduction

Recall that I_n denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

We say that the $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible (or nonsingular) provided there is an $n \times n$ matrix B such that

$$AB = I_n = BA.$$

In this case, we'll frequently write

$$B = A^{-1}.$$

Note that $I_n I_n = I_n$ - so

I_n is invertible and $I_n^{-1} = I_n$. Since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertible, and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Also

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

So $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible, and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The following Proposition provides two basic properties of inverse matrices and invertible matrices.

Proposition 20:

1) If A is invertible, then its

inverse is unique.

2) If A and B are two invertible

$n \times n$ matrices, then AB is

also invertible and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Proof:

1) Suppose A is an $n \times n$ invertible

matrix and C and D are

two $n \times n$ matrices such that

$$AC = I_n = CA \text{ and } AD = I_n = DA.$$

Then

$$C = C I_n = C(AD) = (CA)D = I_n D = D.$$

2) This follows from

$$B^{-1}A^{-1}AB = B^{-1}I_n B = B^{-1}B = I_n$$

and

$$ABB^{-1}A^{-1} = A I_n A^{-1} = A A^{-1} = I_n.$$

HW #25: Suppose m is an integer

and $m \geq 2$. Suppose further that

A_1, \dots, A_m are $n \times n$ invertible

matrices. Give an inductive proof

that $A_1 \cdots A_m$ is invertible and

$$(A_1 \cdots A_m)^{-1} = A_m^{-1} \cdots A_1^{-1}.$$

Hint: The Base Case is a

consequence of Proposition 20,

property 2).

It isn't difficult to construct non invertible $n \times n$ matrices, consider $O_{n,n}$ for instance. The following Proposition is useful in this regard.

Proposition 21:

1) Suppose A is a $n \times n$ matrix

whose k -th row is a row of

zeros. Then A is not invertible.

2) If B is a $n \times n$ matrix in

RREF, then B is invertible

if and only if $B = I_n$.

Proof:

1) If B is any $n \times n$ matrix and

the k -th row of A consists solely of zeros, then the k -th row of AB consists solely of zeros. Ifs such $AB \neq I_n$.

2) If $B = I_n$, then B is invertible.

Suppose now that B is invertible and B is in RREF. According to 1), B cannot have a row of zeros. This implies that B has a pivot in each of its n rows. This, in turn, implies that B has a pivot in each of its n columns. This implies that $B = I_n$.

Elementary Matrices

Suppose E is a $n \times n$ matrix which is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on I_n .

Then we say that E is an elementary matrix.

If E is an elementary $n \times n$ matrix and A is a $n \times k$ matrix, then EA is a $n \times k$ matrix which can be described as follows: EA is obtained from A by the same elementary row operation that is performed on I_n to obtain E .

We'll employ the following HW problem to

HW *26: Let $r, s \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and

define M_{rs} to be the $n \times n$ matrix

whose only nonzero entry is a 1

in the r, s -entry. I.e. $M_{rs} = [m_{ij}]$

where

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if either } i \neq r \text{ or } j \neq s \\ 1 & \text{if } i = r \text{ and } j = s \end{cases}.$$

Also, let A denote a $n \times k$ matrix.

Then $M_{rs}A$ is the $n \times k$ matrix

whose only nonzero row (potentially)

is its r -th row and the r -th row

of $M_{rs}A$ is the s -th row of A .

Hint: Recall that the i, j -th entry

of $M_{rs}A$ is $\sum_{t=1}^n m_{it} a_{tj}$, where

$$A = [a_{ij}]$$

Now, to establish the previously mentioned property of EA , we'll consider the elementary row operations separately.

Case I: Let r denote a nonzero real number and fix $l \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Suppose E is obtained by multiplying the l -th row of I_n by r . Then EA is obtained from A by multiplying the l -th row of I_n by r .

Proof: First note that $E = I_n - M_{ll} + rM_{ll}$.

Thus $E\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I}_n\mathbf{I} - M_{ee}\mathbf{A} + r(M_{ee}\mathbf{A})$.

$\mathbf{I}_n\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I}$ together with HW #26

imply that $\mathbf{I}_n\mathbf{I} - M_{ee}\mathbf{A}$ is the
 $n \times k$ matrix whose i -th row is the

i -th row of \mathbf{A} , for $i \neq l$, and

whose l -th row is a row of zeros.

Adding $r(M_{ee}\mathbf{A})$ to $\mathbf{I}_n\mathbf{I} - M_{ee}\mathbf{A}$

replaces the row of zeros with r

times the l -th row of \mathbf{A} . Thus EA

is obtained from \mathbf{A} by multiplying

the l -th row of \mathbf{A} by r .

Case II: Suppose $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $s, t \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

and $s \neq t$. Suppose E is obtained

from \mathbf{I}_n by adding c times the

t -th row of I_n to the s -th row of \bar{A} . Then EA is obtained by adding c times the t -th row of \bar{A} to the s -th row of \bar{A} .

Proof : Note that $E = I_n + c M_{st}$.

The result now follows immediately from $I_n \bar{A} = \bar{A}$ and $M_{st} \bar{A}$ being the $n \times k$ matrix whose only possible nonzero row is its s -th row and the s -th row of $M_{st} \bar{A}$ is the t -th row of \bar{A} .

Case III : Let $s, t \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, where $s \neq t$.

Let E be obtained by interchanging the s -th and t -th rows of I_n .

Then EA is obtained by

interchanging the s -th and t -th rows of A .

Proof: Observe that $E = I_n - M_{ss} - M_{tt} + M_{st} + M_{ts}$.

As suggested by the proof of Case I,

$I_n A - M_{ss} A - M_{tt} A$ is the $n \times k$ matrix

whose i -th row is the i -th row of A ,

when $i \neq s, t$, and the s -th and t -th rows are rows of zeros. Adding

$M_{st} A$ and $M_{ts} A$ to $I_n A - M_{ss} A - M_{tt} A$

replaces the zeros in rows s by the

t -th row of A and the zeros in row t

by the s -th row of A .

HW #27: Show that every elementary matrix is invertible.

Hint: See Proposition 16, page 144.

Invertible Matrices and Row Operations

An immediate consequence of the last section is that if B is a $n \times k$ matrix obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on the $n \times k$ matrix A , then there is a $n \times n$ elementary matrix E such that $EA = B$.

Suppose now that B is row equivalent to A . Then there exist $n \times k$ matrices

A_0, A_1, \dots, A_m such that

(i) $A = A_0$ and $B = A_m$,

(ii) A_i is obtained by performing a

single elementary row operation

on A_{i-1} , for $i=1, \dots, m$.

(ii) implies there are elementary $n \times n$ matrices E_1, \dots, E_m such that

$$E_i A_{i-1} = A_i$$

for $i=1, \dots, m$.

Note then that $E_1 A_0 = A_1$ - so

$$A_2 = E_2 A_1 = E_2 E_1 A_0 \text{ - so}$$

$$A_3 = E_3 A_2 = E_3 E_2 E_1 A_0 \text{ - so}$$

$$A_4 = E_4 A_3 = E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 A_0.$$

Proceeding in this manner we eventually

$$\text{obtain } A_m = E_m E_{m-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A_0$$

or $B = E_m \cdots E_1 A$. According to

a combination of HW #25 and

HW #27, $B = E_m \cdots E_1 A$ can be

re-written as $A = E_1^{-1} \cdots E_m^{-1} B$.

Theorem 10 : Suppose A is a $n \times n$ matrix

which is row equivalent to the

$n \times n$ matrix B , where B is in

RREF. Then A is invertible if

and only if $B = I_n$.

Proof : Since A is row equivalent

to B , there exist $n \times n$ elementary

matrices E_1, \dots, E_m such that

$$E_m \cdots E_1 A = B.$$

HW #25 and HW #27 imply that,

if A is invertible, then $B = E_m \cdots E_1 A$

must also be invertible. Since B

is in RREF, B invertible implies that

$B = I_n$ by Proposition 21.

On the other hand, if $B = I_n$,

then $A = E_1^{-1} \cdots E_m^{-1} B = E_1^{-1} \cdots E_m^{-1} I_n$

- so A is invertible. This completes

the proof of Theorem 10.

Suppose now that A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Theorem 10 implies that

there exist elementary $n \times n$ matrices

E_1, \dots, E_m such that $E_m \cdots E_1 A = I_n$.

This implies $A = E_1^{-1} \cdots E_m^{-1} I_n = I_n E_1^{-1} \cdots E_m^{-1}$.

This, in turn, implies that $A E_m \cdots E_1 = I_n$.

Note that $E_m \cdots E_1 A = I_n = A E_m \cdots E_1$

- so $A^{-1} = E_m \cdots E_1$.

Now consider the $n \times (2n)$ matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & | & I_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Observe that

$$E_m \cdots E_1 \begin{bmatrix} A & | & I_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= E_m \cdots E_1 \left(\begin{bmatrix} A & | & O_{nn} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} O_{nn} & | & I_n \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} E_m \cdots E_1 & | & O_{nn} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} O_{nn} & | & E_m \cdots E_1 I_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I_n & | & O_{nn} \\ \hline & | & \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} O_{nn} & | & I^{-1} \\ \hline & | & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I_n & | & A^{-1} \\ \hline & | & \end{bmatrix} .$$

Since $E_m \dots E_1$ corresponds to the sequence of elementary row operations which transform A into I_n , we now have a rather straightforward way to construct A^{-1} - assuming A is invertible. Begin with the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & | & I_n \\ \hline & | & \end{bmatrix} .$$

We perform row operations on

$$\left[A \mid I_n \right]$$

which transform the left-hand

side, i.e. A , into I_n . These

row operations will then transform

the right-hand side, I_n , into A^{-1} .

Ex: Compute A^{-1} if

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

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

(262)

$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

-so $A^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right]$.

Check:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad \checkmark$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Actually, the checks above employed more work than was needed.

Proposition 22: Suppose A and

B are $n \times n$ matrices such that

(263)

$AB = I_n$. Then A and B are

both invertible and $B^{-1} = A$,

$$B = A^{-1}.$$

Proof: Suppose A is row equivalent to C, where C is in RREF. Let

E_1, \dots, E_m denote elementary matrices such that

$$E_m \cdots E_1 A = C.$$

Note that $AB = I_n$ implies

$$E_m \cdots E_1 AB = E_m \cdots E_1 I_n$$

or

$$C B = E_m \cdots E_1 .$$

Now, if C has a row of zeros, then

(264)

CB has a row of zeros. However,

$E_m \cdots E_1$ is invertible - so $E_m \cdots E_1$

has no row of zeros. As such, C

cannot have a row of zeros. Since

C is an $n \times n$ matrix in RREF and

C has no row of zeros, $C = I_n$.

This implies A is row equivalent to I_n

- so A is invertible and $A^{-1} = E_m \cdots E_1$.

Also $C = I_n$ implies

$B = I_n B = CB = E_m \cdots E_1$ - so B is

invertible and $B = A^{-1}$.

HW #28: Determine A^{-1} if

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$