Lectures 1 and 2 System of Linear Equations

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January 03, 2020



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and their representations through matrices and vector spaces.

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- For instance, linear algebra is fundamental in modern presentations of geometry: for describing basic objects such as lines, planes and rotations.
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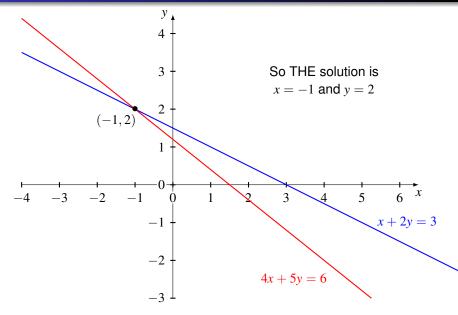
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What does it mean geometrically?



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- In this case, the solution is y = 2, x = -1.



The system can be written as

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 The solution depends completely on those six numbers in the equations. There must be a formula for x and y in terms of those six numbers. Cramer's Rule provides the formula:

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 6 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{3 \cdot 5 - 6 \cdot 2}{1 \cdot 5 - 4 \cdot 2} = \frac{3}{-3} = -1$$

Another method to solve the system: Cramer's Rule

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- We understand the Gaussian Elimination method by examples.

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This is absurd.



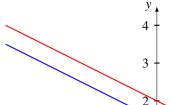
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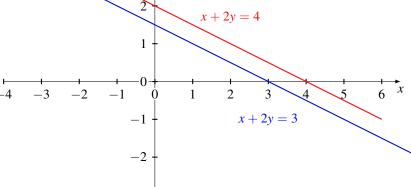
This is absurd. So the system does not have solutions.

A system may NOT have a solution at all

Geometrically,



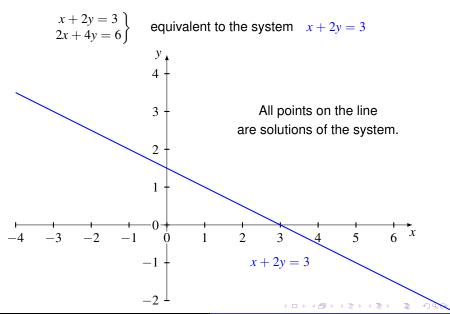
They do not intersect each other. So the system does not have solutions.



A system may have infinitely many solutions

$$\begin{cases} x + 2y = 3 \\ 2x + 4y = 6 \end{cases}$$
 equivalent to the system $x + 2y = 3$

A system may have infinitely many solutions



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 - Polynomial Curve Fitting.
 - Networks and Kirchhoff's Laws for electricity.

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$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

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whose graph passes through these n points. To solve for the coefficients of p(x), substitute each of the points into the polynomial function and obtain linear equations in variables $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$.



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- By solving this system of equations, we get p(x).
- Then we can compute the (approximate) traffic p(x') for the road at every time x'.

Kirchhoff's circuit laws: Physics concept

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- Kirchhoff's laws are fundamental in circuit theory. They quantify how current flows through a circuit and how voltage varies around a loop in a circuit.
- Kirchhoff's current law (1st Law) states that current flowing into a node (or a junction) must be equal to current flowing out of it.

An example to understand Gaussian Elimination

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 What was the aim? To change the system so that the coefficient of u in the 1st equation becomes non-zero.



$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 4u - 6v & = -2 \\
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So the system becomes

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• This is called the **row operation of 3rd type**. We already got the 2nd pivot. In the last stage, we eliminate ν from the 3rd equation. Apply (3rd eqn) - 4 (2nd eqn).

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 4u - 6v + 0w & = -2 \\
 1 \cdot v + w & = 5 \\
 -2w & = -12
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After the elimination process, we obtain a triangular system:

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- Substituting w = 6 and v = -1 into the 1st equation, we get u = -2.



Gaussian Elimination process in short

Original System

↓ Forward Elimination

Triangular System

↓ Backward Substitution

Solution

Gaussian Elimination process in short

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Solution

In the Gaussian Elimination process, the 3 types of row operations are called **elementary row operations**.



Augmented matrix of the system

Consider the system:

$$v + w = 5$$

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The forward elimination steps can be described as follows.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 4 & -6 & 0 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R1 \leftrightarrow R2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ -2 & 7 & 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R3 \to R3 + (1/2)R1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R3 \to R3 - 4 \cdot R2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -12 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Now one can solve the corresponding system by back substitution. This is the reason we call the operations in the Gaussian Elimination process as elementary row operations.
- In this case, where we have a full set of 3 pivots, there is only one solution.



 When we have less pivots than 3, i.e., if a zero appears in a pivot position, then the system may not have solution at all,

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- For example, if the augmented matrix corresponding to a system has the form

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Now consider some particular values of *.

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• Example 1:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R3 - (4/3)R2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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The corresponding system is

$$u + v + w = *$$

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This system does not have solution.



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- Example 2: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R3 (4/3)R2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$

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• Consider a system of m linear equations in n variables x_1, \ldots, x_n .

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- If $b_1 = \cdots = b_m = 0$, then it is called a **homogeneous system**.



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- If $b_1 = \cdots = b_m = 0$, then it is called a **homogeneous system**.
- Every homogeneous system has a trivial solution $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$. What about non-homogeneous system?



Consider a system of linear equations:

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 Suppose the following system is obtained by applying elementary row operations on the 1st system.

$$B_{11}x_1 + B_{12}x_2 + \dots + B_{1n}x_n = b'_1$$

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- Since the elementary row operations are invertible with inverses of same types, the 1st system can also be obtained from the 2nd system by applying elementary row operations.
- In this case, we call that the two systems are equivalent.



Equivalent systems have same solutions set

Consider two equivalent systems:

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

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

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and

$$B_{11}x_1 + B_{12}x_2 + \dots + B_{1n}x_n = b'_1$$

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Then they have the same set of solutions.



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

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• For a non-homogeneous system, we apply **elementary row** operations on the augmented matrix $(A \mid b)$.



A homogeneous system of linear equations

For a homogeneous system:

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- **Solution** For the 3rd one, inverse operation is 'replacement of the *r*th row of *A* by (*r*th row $-c \cdot s$ th row)'.



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Here (ii) and (iii) are not row reduced matrices.



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The matrix in (ii) is row reduced, but NOT row reduced echelon.



Theorem

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Every $m \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb R$ is row equivalent to a row reduced echelon matrix.

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Exercise. Let *A* be an $n \times n$ row reduced echelon matrix over \mathbb{R} .



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Exercise. Let A be an $n \times n$ row reduced echelon matrix over \mathbb{R} . Show that A is invertible if and only if A is the identity matrix.



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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3/2 & 0 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -12 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$R2 \xrightarrow{R2} R2 - R$$

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Example: A matrix → Row reduced echelon matrix

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So it is just combination of forward and backward eliminations.



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Considering the corresponding system, we have the solution u=-2, v = -1 and w = 6.

Consider the homogeneous system corr. to the coefficient matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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The values of x_1 , x_3 and x_5 can be chosen freely.



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Elementary matrices

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These are all the 2×2 elementary matrices.



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- So applying an *elementary row operation* on a matrix is same as left multiplying by the corresponding *elementary matrix*.

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Corollary

Let A and B be two $m \times n$ matrices. Then A and B are equivalent

if and only if

B = PA, where P is a product of some $m \times m$ elementary matrices.



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 and $E'E = e'(E) = e'(e(I)) = I$.



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Hence A is invertible if and only if B is invertible if and only if B = I (since B is row-reduced echelon) if and only if $E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}\cdots E_k^{-1} = A$.



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$$A^{-1} = (E_k \cdots E_2 E_1) = E_k \cdots E_2 E_1(I).$$



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So $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3}{7} & \frac{1}{7} \\ -\frac{1}{7} & \frac{2}{7} \end{pmatrix}$.

Thank You!