Linear Algebra Lecture 1 - Solving Linear Equations

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i) K. Hoffman, R. Kunze, Linear Algebra

- i) K. Hoffman, R. Kunze, Linear Algebra
- ii) G. Strang, Linear Algebra and its Applications

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- i) K. Hoffman, R. Kunze, Linear Algebra
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iii) M. Artin, Algebra

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- iv) T. Koźniewski, Wykłady z algebry liniowej (in Polish)

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v) P. D. Lax, Linear Algebra and Its Applications

Simple introduction to Linear Algebra

i) C. W. Curtis, *Linear Algebra: An Introductory Approach*, Springer

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Linear programming

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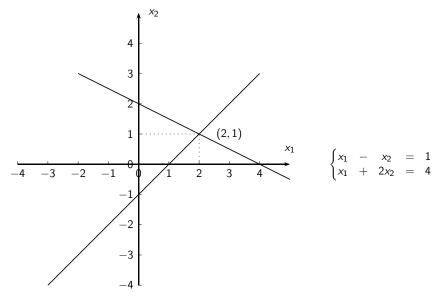
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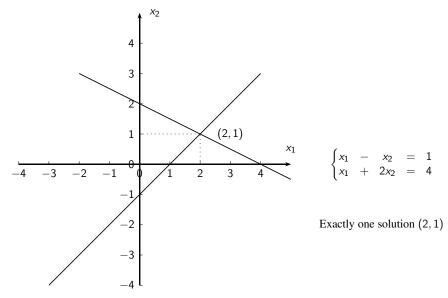
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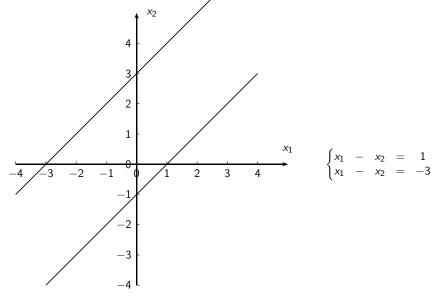
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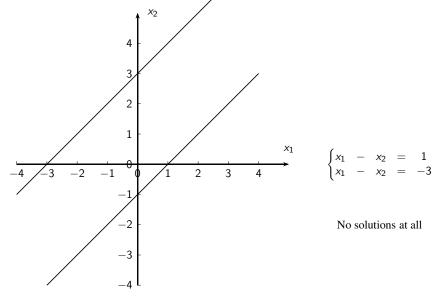
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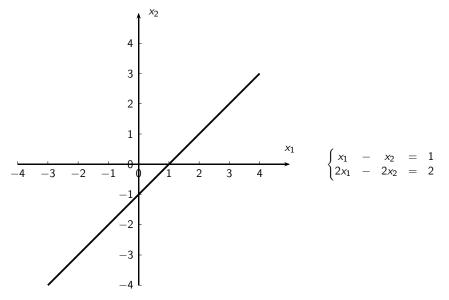




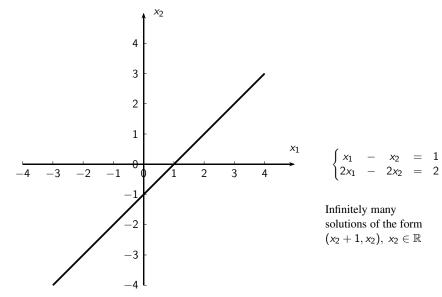


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Linear equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$

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Linear equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$ in n unknowns x_1, \ldots, x_n

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Linear equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$ in *n* unknowns x_1, \ldots, x_n with the **coefficients** $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$

Linear equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$ in *n* unknowns x_1, \ldots, x_n with the **coefficients** $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and the **constant term** $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

System of Linear Equations

A system of *m* linear equations in *n* unknowns x_1, \ldots, x_n

$$U: \begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{cases}$$

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with coefficients a_{ij} , i = 1, ..., m, j = 1, ..., n and constant terms $b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for i = 1, ..., m.

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with coefficients a_{ij} , i = 1, ..., m, j = 1, ..., n and constant terms $b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for i = 1, ..., m. If $b_1 = b_2 = ... = b_m = 0$ we call the system **homogeneous.**

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Any *n*-tuple $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that all equations in U are satisfied is called a **solution** of the system U.

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Any *n*-tuple $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that all equations in U are satisfied is called a **solution** of the system U. For example, the *n*-tuple $(0, \ldots, 0)$ is a solution of a homogenous system of linear equations.

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A system with no solutions is called **inconsistent**.

Any *n*-tuple $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that all equations in U are satisfied is called a **solution** of the system U. For example, the *n*-tuple $(0, \ldots, 0)$ is a solution of a homogenous system of linear equations.

A system with no solutions is called **inconsistent**. Two systems of linear equations are called **equivalent** if they have the same sets of solutions.

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Operations on Equations

Any equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$ can be **multiplied** by a non-zero constant $c \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ in order to get the equation $ca_1x_1 + ca_2x_2 + \ldots + ca_nx_n = cb$.

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Any equation $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$ can be **multiplied** by a non-zero constant $c \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ in order to get the equation $ca_1x_1 + ca_2x_2 + \ldots + ca_nx_n = cb$.

One can add any two equations $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \ldots + a_nx_n = b$, $a'_1x_1 + a'_2x_2 + \ldots + a'_nx_n = b'$ and get the equation $(a_1 + a'_1)x_1 + (a_2 + a'_2)x_2 + \ldots + (a_n + a'_n)x_n = b + b'$.

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Theorem

The following operations on a system of linear equations do not change the set of its solutions (i.e. they lead to an equivalent system):

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i) swapping the order of any two equations,

Theorem

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- i) swapping the order of any two equations,
- ii) multiplying any equation by a non-zero constant,

Theorem

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- i) swapping the order of any two equations,
- ii) multiplying any equation by a non-zero constant,
- iii) adding an equation to the other.

Theorem

The following operations on a system of linear equations do not change the set of its solutions (i.e. they lead to an equivalent system):

- i) swapping the order of any two equations,
- ii) multiplying any equation by a non-zero constant,
- iii) adding an equation to the other.

Proof.

Any solution of the original system is a solution of the new system. All above operations are reversible. $\hfill\square$

A General Solution

A general solution of the system of linear equation U is an equivalent linear system U' of the form:

$$U':\begin{cases} x_{j_1} = c_{11}x_1 + c_{12}x_2 + \dots + c_{1n}x_n + d_1 \\ x_{j_2} = c_{21}x_1 + c_{22}x_2 + \dots + c_{2n}x_n + d_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{j_k} = c_{k1}x_1 + c_{k2}x_2 + \dots + c_{kn}x_n + d_k \end{cases}$$

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where $\{j_1, \ldots, j_k\} \subset \{1, \ldots, n\}$, $j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_k$ and $c_{ij} = 0$ for any $i = 1, \ldots, k$ and $j = j_1, \ldots, j_k$. That is, the unknowns x_{j_1}, \ldots, x_{k_k} appear only on the **left hand-side** of each equation exactly once.

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A General Solution

A general solution of the system of linear equation U is an equivalent linear system U' of the form:

$$U':\begin{cases} x_{j_1} = c_{11}x_1 + c_{12}x_2 + \dots + c_{1n}x_n + d_1 \\ x_{j_2} = c_{21}x_1 + c_{22}x_2 + \dots + c_{2n}x_n + d_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{j_k} = c_{k1}x_1 + c_{k2}x_2 + \dots + c_{kn}x_n + d_k \end{cases}$$

where $\{j_1, \ldots, j_k\} \subset \{1, \ldots, n\}$, $j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_k$ and $c_{ij} = 0$ for any $i = 1, \ldots, k$ and $j = j_1, \ldots, j_k$. That is, the unknowns x_{j_1}, \ldots, x_{k_k} appear only on the **left hand-side** of each equation exactly once.

The unknowns x_{j_1}, \ldots, x_{j_k} are called **basic** (or **dependent**) **variables**. The other unknowns are called **free variables** or **parameters**.

Matrices

A $m \times n$ matrix D with entries in \mathbb{R} is a rectangular array of real numbers arranged in m rows and n columns, i.e.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & d_{12} & \dots & d_{1n} \\ d_{21} & d_{22} & \dots & d_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ d_{m1} & d_{m2} & \dots & d_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $d_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$.

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where $d_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$. Sometimes we write $D = [d_{ij}]$ for i = 1, ..., m, j = 1, ..., n. The set of all **m-by-n** matrices with entries in \mathbb{R} will be denoted $M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$.

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Matrix of a System of Linear Equations

To each system of linear equations

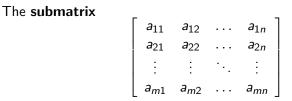
$$U: \begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{cases}$$

we associate its $m \times (n+1)$ matrix

a ₁₁	a ₁₂		a _{1n}	b ₁ b ₂
a ₂₁	a ₂₂		a _{2n}	<i>b</i> ₂
:	÷	·	÷	÷
	a _{m2}		a _{mn}	b _m

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Matrix of a System of Linear Equations



is called the matrix of coefficients. The last column

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

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consists of constant terms.

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There are three elementary row operations on a matrix of a linear system:

- i) swapping any two rows of the matrix,
- ii) multiplying any row by a non-zero constant c, i.e. replacing the *i*-th row [a_{i1} a_{i2}...a_{in}] with the row [ca_{i1} ca_{i2}...ca_{in}],

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- iii) adding any row to the other, i.e. replacing the *i*-th row $[a_{i1} \ a_{i2} \dots a_{in}]$ with the row $[a_{i1} + a_{j1} \ a_{i2} + a_{j2} \dots a_{in} + a_{jn}]$.

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By the Theorem the elementary row operations lead to a matrix of an equivalent linear system. The algorithm using the three elementary row operations, leading to a general solution is called the **Gaussian elimination**.

The **leading coefficient** (or **pivot**) of a non-zero row is the leftmost non-zero entry of the row.

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A matrix is in an echelon form if:

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A matrix is in an echelon form if:

- i) all non-zero rows are above all zero rows,
- ii) the leading coefficient of any row lies strictly to the right of the leading coefficient of any upper row.

A matrix is in a **reduced echelon form** if it is in an echelon form, all leading coefficients are equal to 1 and every leading coefficient is the only non-zero element in its column.

Example

The following matrix is in an echelon form. The leading coefficients are marked with circles.

Γ0	1	2	0	3	2	5
0	0	(1)	2	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	2	6
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0

It is not in the reduced echelon form because in columns 3 and 5 there are leading coefficients and other non-zero entries.

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Theorem

Any matrix can be brought into the reduced echelon form using elementary row operations.

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Proof.

Use induction on the number of columns to prove that every matrix can be brought into an echelon form.

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Theorem

Any matrix can be brought into the reduced echelon form using elementary row operations.

Proof.

Use induction on the number of columns to prove that every matrix can be brought into an echelon form. Let $A = [a_{ij}] \in M(m \times 1; \mathbb{R})$.

If
$$A \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and, for example, $a_{11} \neq 0$ then

$$\begin{bmatrix} r_2 - \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}} r_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_m - \frac{a_{m1}}{a_{11}}} r_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof. Let $A = [a_{ij}] \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ and let n > 1.



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Let $A = [a_{ij}] \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ and let n > 1. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be the number of first non-zero column, changing the order of rows one can assume that $a_{1k} \neq 0$.

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1k} & a_{1(k+1)} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \hline 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{2k} & a_{2(k+1)} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{mk} & a_{m(k+1)} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_m - \frac{a_{mk}}{a_{1k}} r_1} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1k} & a_{1(k+1)} & \cdots & a_{mn} \\ \hline 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & b_{2(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & b_{m(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

for some $b_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Proof.

By the inductive assumption the matrix in the lower right corner, i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_{2(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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can be brought to an echelon form by elementary operations.

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can be brought to an echelon form by elementary operations. The same operations will bring matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1k} & a_{1(k+1)} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \hline 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & b_{2(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & b_{m(k+1)} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

to an echelon form.

Proof.

Assume that matrix $A = [a_{ij}] \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ is in echelon form and the leading coefficients are $a_{1j_1}, a_{2j_2}, \ldots, a_{m'j_{m'}}$ where $j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_{m'}$ and $m' \le m$, i.e. rows $m' + 1, m' + 2, \ldots, m$ are zero.

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0	a_{1j_1}	*	*	*	• • •	*	*	*	*	*	
0	0	a_{2j_2}	*	*	•••	*	*	*	*	*	
0	0	0	0	$a_{3j_{3}}$		*	*	*		*	
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0	0	0	0	0		0	a _{m'jm'}	*		*	
0	0	0	0	0	•••	0	0	0	0	0	
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0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	
	0 : 0	0 0 0 0 : : 0 0	$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & a_{2j_2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$							

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Proof.

The following elementary operations will bring the matrix A in an echelon form into the reduced echelon form

$$r_k - rac{a_{kj_i}}{a_{ij_i}}r_i$$
 for $i = 2, \dots, m', k = 1, \dots, i-1,$
 r_i/a_{ij_i} for $i = 1, \dots, m'.$

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In short, in each of the column $j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_{m'}$ we use the leading coefficient to make the entries above it zero and then we divide the corresponding row to make the leading coefficient equal to 1.

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Proof.

) () () () () ()))	0 : 0	* a _{3j3} : 0	···· ···· ··· ··· ···	* : 0 0	* * : a _{m'jm'} 0 : 0	: * 0	· 0	. : . * 0	r ₂	∕a _{2j2}	: 0 0 :	: 0 0	: 0 0 :	: 0 0	:	:	* * : a _{m'jm'} 0 : 0	: * 0	* * 0 0	* 0	$\begin{array}{c} r_1 - \frac{a_{1j_3}}{a_{3j_3}}r_3 \\ r_2 - \frac{a_{2j_3}}{a_{3j_3}}r_3 \\ \longrightarrow \end{array}$
						. → [0 0 : 0 : 0 : 0	1 0 : 0 0 : 0	0 * 1 * 0 0 : : 0 0 0 0 : : 0 0 0 0 : : 0 0	1 : 0	···· ··.	* * 0 0 :	0 0 1 1 0 : 0	* * * ·· * 0 ··· 0	* ·· · 0 ·	* · * · * 0 · :						

How to solve a system of linear equations?

Bring a matrix of a system of linear equation to the reduced echelon form. If there is a pivot in the column of constant terms the system if inconsistent. Otherwise, the general solution can be read from the echelon form by choosing the basic variables as those corresponding to columns with a pivot.

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Example

Let's solve the system
$$\begin{cases} x_1 & -2x_2 & +x_3 & -x_4 & = 2\\ 2x_1 & -4x_2 & +3x_3 & +x_4 & = 0 \end{cases}$$

The matrix of this system is
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 2\\ 2 & -4 & 3 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

By the elementary row operation $r_2 - 2r_1$ we put the matrix in an echelon form, i.e.

$$\left[\begin{array}{rrrr|rrr} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -4 \end{array}\right]$$

The elementary operation $r_1 - r_2$ puts matrix in the reduced echelon form, that is

Example (continued)

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} (1) & -2 & 0 & -4 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & (1) & 3 & -4 \end{array}\right]$$

There is no leading coefficient in the constant term columnn so it has solutions. The basic variables are x_1, x_3 and the free variables are x_2, x_4 .

The general solution is $\begin{cases} x_1 = 2x_2 + 4x_4 + 6\\ x_3 = - 3x_4 - 4 \end{cases}, x_2, x_4 \in \mathbb{R}.$ Every solution of this linear system is of the form

$$(2x_2+4x_4+6, x_2, -3x_4-4, x_4), x_2, x_4 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

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The Uniqueness of the Reduced Echelon Form

Proposition

Let $A \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ be a matrix. If matrices $B, C \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ were obtained from A by a series of elementary row operations and they are in the reduced echelon form then B = C.

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Proof.

Let j be the number of the leftmost column where the matrices B and C differ. Let

$$1 \leq j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_k < j,$$

be the numbers of the columns with pivots in B and C smaller than j. Let B' and C' be submatrices of matrices B and C, respectively, consisting of columns j_1, \ldots, j_k, j . Let U_B, U_C be systems of linear equations which matrices are equal to B' and C', respectively (the last column consists of constant terms).

Proof.

	[1	0		0	b _{1j}]		[1	0		0	<i>c</i> 1 <i>j</i>
	0	1		÷	b_{2j}			0	1		:	c _{2j}
	:		÷.,	0	÷			:		۰.	0	:
B' =	0	0		1	b _{kj}	,	C' =	0	0		1	c _{kj}
	0	0		0	$b_{(k+1)j}$			0	0		0	C(k+1)j
	:		÷.,	0	:			:		۰.	0	:
	LΟ	0	• • •	0	b _{mj}			LΟ	0		0	c _{mj}

By the assumption, the systems U_B and U_C are equivalent, as their matrices were obtained by a series of elementary row transformations from the same submatrix of matrix A. The following may happen for B and C: the (k + 1)-th pivot is in the *j*-th column, behind the *j*-th column or it does not exist. Say, if for matrix B the (k + 1)-th pivot is behind the *j*-th column or it does not exist then $b_{ij} = 0$ for $i \ge k + 1$. Analogously, if the same happens for matrix C then $c_{ij} = 0$ for $i \ge k + 1$.

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Proof.

It is impossible that the (k + 1)-th pivot is in the *j*-th column simultaneously in matrix B and in matrix C as this would mean the *j*-th columns of B and C are the same. If one of the matrices B, Chas the (k + 1)-th pivot is in the *j*-th column and the other one has the (k + 1)-th pivot behind the *j*-th column or it does not exist then one of the systems U_B , U_C is inconsistent and the other is consistent. This leads to a contradiction. If both matrices B, Chave the (k + 1)-th pivot behind the *j*-th column or it does not exist then $b_{ii} = c_{ii} = 0$ for $i \ge k + 1$. Therefore the system U_B has a unique solution $(b_{1i}, b_{2i}, \ldots, b_{ki})$ and the system U_C has a unique solution $(c_{1i}, c_{2i}, \ldots, c_{ki})$, which again leads to a contradiction.

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Remark Obviously, echelon form is not unique.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_2 - r_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_1 \leftrightarrow r_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_2 - r_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{r_2 - r_1}{\longrightarrow} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
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The reduced echelon form of matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

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Remark

One can read a general solution from a matrix which after a permutation (i.e. change of the order) of columns is in the reduced echelon form (by choosing basic variables as those corresponding to columns which after the permutation contain a pivot).

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A general solution of the system

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & (1) & 3 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 5 & (1) & -7 \end{array}\right]$$

is

$$\begin{cases} x_2 = -2x_1 - 3x_3 + 2 \\ x_4 = x_1 - 5x_3 - 7 \end{cases}, \ x_1, x_3 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

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Reduced Echelon Form of a Square Matrix

Proposition

Let $A \in M(n \times n; \mathbb{R})$ be a square matrix (i.e. it has the n rows and n columns). Then the reduced echelon form of A either has a zero

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row or it is equal to
$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in M(n \times n; \mathbb{R}).$$

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Proof.

By definition, the numbers of columns with pivots form a strictly increasing sequence

$$1 \leq j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_k \leq n.$$

Therefore $k \le n$. If k < n then there are n - k zero rows (only k rows contain a pivot).

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Therefore $k \le n$. If k < n then there are n - k zero rows (only k rows contain a pivot). The case k = n is possible only if $j_1 = 1, j_2 = 2, \ldots, j_n = n$, i.e. the reduced form of A is equal to l_n .

Generalized Inverse

Definition

Let $A \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$ be a matrix. Matrix $A^g \in M(n \times m; \mathbb{R})$ is called a generalized inverse of matrix A if

$$A = AA^{g}A.$$

A generalized inverse always exists (the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse A^+ is a generalized inverse) but it is not unique. For example any matrix is a generalized inverse of a zero matrix.

Proposition

Let $A \in M(m \times n; \mathbb{R})$, $b \in M(m \times 1; \mathbb{R})$. If $A^g b$ is a solution of the system of linear equations Ax = b then all solutions of that system are given by the formula

$$x = A^g b + (I - A^g A)y,$$

where $y \in M(n \times 1)$ is any vector.

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Generalized Inverse (continued)

Proof.

Let $x = A^g b + (I - A^g A)y$, where y is an arbitrary vector. Then

$$Ax = AA^gb + Ay - AA^gAy = AA^gb = b.$$

Assume that Ax = b. Then

$$x = A^g b + (I - A^g A)x,$$

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i.e., it is enough to take y = x.