

# Math 413/513 Chapter 3 (from Friedberg, Insel, & Spence)

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## 1 Matrices

### 1.1 Main results of this section

The main theorem of this section is the following:

**Theorem 1** *Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $r$ . Then  $r \leq m$ ,  $r \leq n$ , and  $A$  can be transformed by row and column operations into a matrix*

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} I_r & O_1 \\ O_2 & O_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $O_1, O_2, O_3$  are zero matrices. Thus  $D_{ij} = 1$  if  $i = j \leq r$  and 0 otherwise.

**Corollary 2** *There exist invertible matrices  $B \in F^{m \times m}$  and  $C \in F^{n \times n}$  such that  $D = BAC$ .*

**Corollary 3** *Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. Then*

1.  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } A^T$ .
2. *The rank of  $A$  is equal to the maximum number of linear independent rows, which is equal to the dimension of the row space.*
3. *The rows and columns of  $A$  generate subspaces of the same dimension, each with dimension equal to the rank of  $A$ .*

**Corollary 4** *Every invertible matrix is the product of elementary matrices.*

### 1.2 Explanation and proof of the corollaries

In order to make sense of these we need to know (1) what rank of a matrix is, (2) what row and column operations are, (3) what elementary matrices are, and (4) what the row and column spaces are.

**Definition 5** If  $A \in F^{m \times n}$ , then the  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } L_A$ , where  $L_A$  is the linear transformation  $F^n \rightarrow F^m$  given by  $x \rightarrow Ax$ . The column space is the span of the columns of  $A$  (so it is the span of  $n$  vectors in  $F^m$ ) and the row space is the span of the rows of  $A$  (so it is the span of  $m$  vectors in  $F^m$ ).

**Proposition 6** The column space of a matrix  $A$  is equal to  $R(L_A)$ . In particular, the rank of  $A$  is equal to the dimension of the column space.

**Proof.** The  $i$ th column is simply  $Ae_i \in R(L_A)$ , thus the column space is in  $R(L_A)$ . If  $y \in R(L_A)$ , then there exists  $x \in F^n$  such that  $y = Ax$ , and so if the columns of  $A$  are labeled  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ , we have that

$$y = x_1A_1 + \dots + x_nA_n.$$

■

We already know that row operations are important. It turns out that row operations correspond to multiplication by certain matrices.

**Definition 7** If  $A \in F^{m \times n}$ , the elementary row [column] operations are the following:

1. interchanging any two rows [columns] of  $A$ ;
2. multiplying any row [column] of  $A$  by a nonzero scalar;
3. adding any scalar multiple of a row [column] of  $A$  to another row [column].

**Definition 8** An  $n \times n$  elementary matrix is a matrix obtained by performing one elementary row operation on  $I_n$ .

So examples of elementary matrices are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Theorem 9** Let  $A \in F^{m \times n}$  and suppose  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by performing an elementary row [column] operation. Then there exists an  $m \times m$  [ $n \times n$ ] elementary matrix  $E$  such that  $B = EA$  [ $B = AE$ ], where  $E$  is the elementary matrix obtained from  $I$  in the same way. Conversely, multiplication by elementary matrices correspond to performing row operations.

**Proof.** The proof relies on verifying this on each type of row/column operation and each type of elementary matrix. It helps that we know that

$$Be_i = B_i$$

where  $B_i$  is the  $i$ th column, and we can see similarly that  $e_i^T B$  is the  $i$ th row. The details are left as an exercise. ■

It now follows that elementary matrices are invertible (this can also be verified directly as well) since each row operation is reversible. Thus doing a sequence of row (column) operations is the same as multiplying on the left (right) by a sequence of elementary matrices. Thus, the only thing left to show that Theorem 1 implies Corollary 2 is that the product of invertible matrices is invertible.

**Theorem 10** *Let  $A \in F^{m \times n}$ ,  $P \in F^{m \times m}$ , and  $Q \in F^{n \times n}$ . If  $P$  and  $Q$  are invertible, then*

1.  $\text{rank}(AQ) = \text{rank } A$
2.  $\text{rank}(PA) = \text{rank } A$
3.  $\text{rank}(PAQ) = \text{rank } A$

**Proof.** We can use what we know about linear transformations to see that

$$R(L_{AQ}) = R(L_A L_Q) = L_A L_Q(F^n)$$

But since  $Q$  is invertible, it is onto, so

$$L_A L_Q(F^n) = L_A(F^n) = R(A).$$

Thus the ranks of  $AQ$  and  $A$  are equal. Similarly, since  $P$  invertible,  $L_P$  is an isomorphism, so

$$\dim L_P(L_A(F^n)) = \dim L_A(F^n),$$

or  $\text{rank}(PA) = \text{rank } A$ . The last one follows. ■

**Corollary 11** *The product of elementary matrices is invertible, and elementary row and column operations and their compositions are rank preserving.*

This also allows us to prove Corollary 4.

**Proof of Corollary 4.** We have just shown that the product of elementary matrices is invertible. Now suppose a matrix is invertible. By Corollary 2, we can convert the matrix into the form of  $D$ . Since this is rank preserving and the original matrix is invertible,  $D$  must be the identity matrix. But then we have that  $I = BAC$  where  $B$  and  $C$  are products of elementary matrices. It follows that  $A = B^{-1}C^{-1}$ , which is also a product of elementary matrices (if  $B = E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k$  and  $C = E_{k+1} E_{k+2} \cdots E_\ell$  then  $B^{-1}C^{-1} = E_k^{-1} \cdots E_1^{-1} E_\ell^{-1} \cdots E_{k+1}^{-1}$ , which is a product of elementary matrices since the inverse of an elementary matrix is an elementary matrix). ■

Finally, we can prove Corollary 3.

**Proof of Corollary 3.** We first note that if  $E$  is an elementary matrix, then  $E^T$  is also an elementary matrix (check this!) and also that  $D^T$  has the same form as  $D$  (though the dimensions of the matrix may differ). So if  $D = BAC$  then we have that  $D^T = C^T A^T B^T$ , and the rank of  $D^T$  is clearly equal to  $r = \text{rank } A$ . Since multiplication by  $C^T$  and  $B^T$  is rank preserving (it is the product of elementary matrices) we have that  $\text{rank } A^T = \text{rank } D^T = \text{rank } D = \text{rank } A$ . The others follow from the fact that  $\text{rank } A$  is the dimension of the column space of  $A$  and  $\text{rank } A^T$  is the dimension of the row space of  $A$  (which is the column space of  $A^T$ ). ■

### 1.3 Proof of Theorem 1

We phrase this as a sequence of exercises:

We will induct on  $m$ , the number of rows. Before looking at base cases, we actually think about the inductive step:

1) If  $m > 1$  and  $n > 1$  and  $A$  is not the zero matrix, show that by a finite number of row and column operations,  $A$  can be transformed into a matrix of the form:

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & B' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $B'$  is a matrix of dimension  $(m-1) \times (n-1)$ . Note that  $\text{rank } B = 1 + \text{rank } B' \leq m$  and  $\leq n$  by the inductive hypothesis.

We now can use the inductive hypothesis on  $B'$ . We need only prove the cases of  $n = 1$ ,  $m = 1$ , and for the zero matrix. Note that the zero matrix is already in the proper form, and has rank equal to zero (less than  $n$  and  $m$ ).

2) Show that if  $n = 1$  and  $A$  is not the zero matrix, we can transform  $A$  to the appropriate form by a finite sequence of column operations, and  $\text{rank } A = 1$ .

3) Show that if  $m = 1$  and  $A$  is not the zero matrix, we can transform  $A$  to the appropriate form by a finite sequence of row operations and  $\text{rank } A = 1$ .

This completes the proof. I suggest you go through the process on an actual example. The one from the book is:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 & 8 & 0 \\ 8 & 2 & 0 & 10 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 2 & 9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

You should find that this matrix has rank 3 and that you can transform it by row and column operations to the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## 2 Inverse matrix

We already know that an  $n \times n$  matrix is invertible if and only if it has rank  $n$ , and if and only if it is a product of elementary matrices. We can compute the inverse using augmented matrices.

**Definition 12** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be  $m \times n$  and  $m \times p$  matrices, respectively. The augmented matrix  $(A|B)$  is the  $m \times (n+p)$  matrix  $(A \ B)$ , i.e., the matrix whose first  $n$  columns are the columns of  $A$  and the last  $p$  columns are the columns of  $B$ .

**Proposition 13** Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  both have  $n$  rows and suppose  $M$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix. Then

$$M(A|B) = (MA|MB).$$

**Proof.** Exercise. ■

Now we can use this idea to find the inverse, since we see that

$$A^{-1}(A|I) = (A^{-1}A|A^{-1}I) = (I|A^{-1}).$$

Furthermore, we know that if  $A$  is invertible, we can use row and column operations to transform  $A$  into  $I$ , but in particular, since  $A$  is invertible, we do not need column operations. Thus there is an invertible matrix  $B$ , the product of elementary matrices, such that  $BA = I$ . If we apply this matrix to  $(A|I)$ , we get

$$B(A|I) = (BA|B) = (I|B).$$

Since  $BA = I$ , we have that  $B = A^{-1}$  and so we can construct the inverse by converting  $(A|I)$  to  $(I|A^{-1})$  via row operations.

### 3 Problems

- FIS Section 3.1 exercises 2, 3, 5, 7-11
- FIS Section 3.2 exercises 2-7, 11, 14, 15, 18, 21. Read the Theorem 3.7 and its proof.

### 4 Systems of linear equations

Recall a system of  $m$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns can be written as

$$Ax = b$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$$

are given and

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

is the unknown. The solution set  $S$  of the equation  $Ax = b$  is the set of all  $x \in F^n$  that satisfy this equation and each element of  $S$  is said to be a solution of the equation.

**Definition 14** *The system  $Ax = b$  is said to be consistent if its solution set  $S$  is nonempty, otherwise it is said to be inconsistent.*

**Definition 15** *If  $b = \vec{0}$ , then we say the system is homogeneous, otherwise it is nonhomogeneous.*

Note that each equation  $Ax = b$  has an associated homogeneous equation  $Ax = \vec{0}$ .

Notice that every homogeneous system has a solution, namely  $x = \vec{0}$ , so every homogeneous linear system is consistent.

**Theorem 16** *Let  $Ax = \vec{0}$  be a homogeneous system of  $m$  equations with  $n$  unknowns over a field  $F$ , and let  $K$  denote the solution set. Then  $K = N(L_A)$  and hence  $K$  is a subspace of  $F^n$  of dimension  $n - \text{rank } A$ .*

**Corollary 17** *If  $m < n$  then  $Ax = 0$  has a nonzero solution.*

**Proof.** We know that  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } L_A \leq m$ , and so the dimension of the solution set  $K$  is  $n - \text{rank } A \geq n - m > 0$ . ■

**Theorem 18** *Let  $K$  be the solution set to the linear equation  $Ax = b$  and let  $K_H$  be the solution set to the associated homogeneous equation  $Ax = \vec{0}$ . Then for any solution  $s \in K$ ,*

$$K = \{s\} + K_H = \{s + k : k \in K_H\}.$$

Note that this says that  $K$  is not a vector space, but an affine space (we did not define this, but it is a translation of a vector space).  $K_H$  is a vector space.

**Proof.** Suppose  $s \in K$ . If  $k \in K_H$ , then  $A(s + k) = As + Ak = b + \vec{0} = b$ , and so  $s + k \in K$ , and we get  $\{s\} + K_H \subseteq K$ . Conversely, if  $x \in K$ , then  $A(s - x) = As - Ax = b - b = \vec{0}$  and so  $s - x \in K_H$ , and  $x = s + (x - s) \in \{s\} + K_H$ . ■

**Theorem 19** *Let  $Ax = b$  be a system of linear equations in  $n$  equations and  $n$  unknowns. If  $A$  is invertible, then the system has exactly one solution,  $A^{-1}b$ . Conversely, if the system has exactly one solution, then  $A$  is invertible.*

**Proof.** Suppose  $A$  is invertible. Then clearly if  $x = A^{-1}b$  then  $Ax = A(A^{-1}b) = (AA^{-1})b = Ib = b$  so  $x$  is a solution. Suppose  $s$  is any solution, then

$$\begin{aligned} As &= b \\ A^{-1}As &= A^{-1}b \end{aligned}$$

and we can conclude that  $s = A^{-1}b$ .

Conversely, suppose  $Ax = b$  has exactly one solution,  $s$ . If  $k \in K_H$ , then  $s + k$  is also a solution, so if  $s$  is the only solution, we must have that  $K_H = \{\vec{0}\}$ . That implies that  $N(L_A) = \{\vec{0}\}$  and looking at the dimensions we can conclude that  $A$  is invertible. ■

**Theorem 20** Let  $Ax = b$  be a system of linear equations. Then the system is consistent if and only if  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } (A|b)$ .

**Proof.** Notice  $Ax = b$  is consistent if and only if  $b \in R(L_A)$  if and only if  $b$  is in the column space (span of the columns of  $A$ ). This is true if and only if the ranks of  $(A|b)$  is the same as the rank of  $A$ . ■

## 5 Problems

FIS section 3.3, exercises 2-6, 8-10

## 6 Solving systems of linear equations

**Definition 21** Two systems of linear equations are equivalent if they have the same solution set.

**Theorem 22** Let  $Ax = b$  be a system of  $m$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns, and let  $C \in F^{m \times m}$  be invertible. Then the system

$$(CA)x = Cb$$

is equivalent to  $Ax = b$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $x$  is a solution to  $Ax = b$ . Then  $C(Ax) = Cb$  and hence  $(CA)x = Cb$ . Conversely, suppose  $(CA)x = Cb$ . Then  $Ax = C^{-1}Cb = b$ . ■

**Corollary 23** If  $(A'|b')$  is obtained from  $(A|b)$  by a finite number of elementary row operations, then  $A'x = b'$  is equivalent to the original system.

**Proof.** The row operations can be represented by an invertible matrix  $C$ , and so  $(A'|b') = C(A|b) = (CA|Cb)$ . The result now follows from the Theorem. ■

We now describe an algorithm for easily solving linear systems called Gaussian Elimination. We will find a sequence of row operations to produce zeroes in the matrix:

- 1) In the leftmost nonzero column, create a 1 in the first row.
- 2) Use row operations of the third type to obtain zeroes in the other positions in the first column.
- 3) Create a 1 in the next row in the leftmost possible column without using the previous rows.
- 4) Obtain zeroes below that 1.
- 5) Repeat steps 3 and 4 until there are no nonzero rows.

Steps 1-5 are called the forward pass and result in a matrix that could be pretty easily solved using back substitution. To make it easier, however, we will do a backward pass to get more zeroes.

- 6) Working upward, beginning with the last nonzero row, add multiples of each row to the rows above to create zeroes.

7) Repeat step 6 until is done on the second row.

The result is a matrix in reduced row echelon form.

**Definition 24** A matrix is said to be in reduced row echelon form if all of the following are satisfied:

1. The rows containing all zeroes are at the bottom (if there are any).
2. The first nonzero entry in each row is the only nonzero entry in its column. (These are called pivots.)
3. The first nonzero entry in each row is 1 and it occurs in a column to the right of the first nonzero entry in the preceding row.

**Theorem 25** Let  $Ax = b$  be a system of  $r$  nonzero equations in  $n$  unknowns. Suppose  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } (A|b)$  and  $(A|b)$  is in reduced row echelon form. Then

1.  $\text{rank } A = r$
2. Each of the variables that does not appear as a pivot is a free variable, and the others are determined by solving the equation. In this way, we can write the solution to  $Ax = b$  as  $s_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{n-r} t_j u_j$ .

As an example, consider

$$\left( \begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 & -9 & 17 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -3 & 6 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & -5 & 8 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & -8 & 14 \end{array} \right)$$

which has reduced row echelon form

$$\left( \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

**Theorem 26** Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $r$ , where  $r > 0$  and let  $B$  be the reduced row echelon form of  $A$ . Then:

1. The number of nonzero rows of  $B$  is  $r$ .
2.  $B$  contains columns that look like  $e_1, \dots, e_r$  (and possibly other columns) where  $e_j$  is equal to 1 in the  $j$ th slot and zero otherwise. We call these columns  $b_{j_1}, \dots, b_{j_r}$ .
3. The columns of  $A$  that are in the same slots as the columns of  $B$  corresponding to  $e_1, \dots, e_r$  are linearly independent, i.e., the columns  $a_{j_1}, \dots, a_{j_r}$  are linearly independent.



4. if a column  $k$  of  $B$  is  $d_1e_1 + \cdots + d_re_r = d_1b_{j_1} + \cdots + d_rb_{j_r}$ , then the column  $k$  of  $A$  is  $d_1a_{j_1} + \cdots + d_ra_{j_r}$  (notice the same coefficients).

**Proof.** The first statement is clear since if there are more, then the rank of  $B$  would be less than  $r$ , but since there exists an invertible matrix  $C$  such that  $B = CA$ , we must have that  $\text{rank } B = \text{rank } A = r$ . The second follows from the definition of reduced row echelon form and the fact that the rank is  $r$ . The last two follow from the fact that the columns satisfy  $b_j = Ca_j$ , so

$$\sum_{i=1}^r d_i b_{j_i} = \sum_{i=1}^r d_i C a_{j_i} = C \sum_{i=1}^r d_i a_{j_i}.$$

■

**Corollary 27** *The reduced row echelon form is unique.*

**Proof.** Exercise ■

## 7 Problems

FIS Section 3.4, exercises 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15