Chapter 1. Linear equations

Review of matrix theory

Fields

System of linear equations

Row-reduced echelon form

Invertible matrices

Fields

- Field F, +, •
 F is a set. +:FxF→F, •:FxF→F
 - x+y = y+x, x+(y+z)=(x+y)+z
 - \exists unique 0 in F s.t. x+0=x
 - $\forall x \in F, \exists \text{ unique -x s.t. } x+(-x)=0$
 - xy=yx, x(yz)=(xy)z
 - = unique 1 in F s.t. x1 = x
 - $\forall x \in F \{0\}, \exists \text{ unique } x^{-1} \text{ s.t. } xx^{-1} = 1$
 - x(y+z) = xy+yz

- A field can be thought of as generalizations of real numbers useful for some other purposes which has all the important properties of real numbers. There are many nontrivial examples.
- To verify something is a field, we need to show that the axioms are satisfied.
 - Example:
 - Real number field R
 - Complex number field $\mathbf{C} = \{x + yi | x, y \in \mathbf{R}\}$
 - The field of rational numbers Q
 (We learn this already. Verify it!)
 - The set of natural numbers N is not a field.
 - For example 2x z = 1 for no z in N.
 - The set of real valued 2x2 matrices is not a field.
 - For example for no A.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)A = I$$

 $\mathbf{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p\}$

 $x+y=z \pmod{p} z \in \mathbf{Z_p}$ is the remainder of x+y under the division by p $xy=t \pmod{p} t \in \mathbf{Z_p}$ is the remainder of xy under the division by p

- For p = 5, 9=4 mod 5. $1+4 = 0 \mod 5$. $3 4 = 2 \mod 5$. $3 2 = 1 \mod 5$.
- If p is not prime, then the above is not a field. For example, let p=6. 2.3= 0 mod 6. If 2.x = 1 mod 6, then 3=1.3=2.x.3=2.3.x=0.x=0.
 A contradiction.
- If p is a prime, like 2,3,5,…, then it is a field. The proof follows:

0 and 1 are obvious. For each x, -x equals p-x.

For
$$x \in \mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\}$$
, $gcd(x, p) = 1.\exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $ax + bp = 1$.

Let $a' = a, b' = b \mod p$. Then $a'x + b'p = 1 \mod p$. and $a'x = 1 \mod p$. Thus a' is the inverse of x.

Other axioms are easy to verify by following remainder rules well.

In fact, only the multiplicative inverse axiom fails if p is not a prime.

• A characteristic of a field is the smallest number p such that p.1=1+...+1 = 0. p is always a prime. If no p exists, then the characteristic is defined to 0.

 A subfield F' of a field F is a subset where F' contains 0, 1, and the operations preserve F' and inverses are in F'.

- Example:
$$Q\subset R\subset C$$

$$Q+Qi=\{x+yi|x,y\in Q\}\subset C$$

$$Q+Q\sqrt{2}=\{x+y\sqrt{2}|x,y\in Q\}\subset \mathbf{R}$$

 A subfield F" of a subfield F of a field F is a subfield of F.

A system of linear equations

• Solve for $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in F$ given $A_{ij} \in F, y_j \in F$

$$\left(egin{array}{ccc} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1n} \ dots & \ddots & dots \ A_{m1} & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{array}
ight) \left(egin{array}{c} x_1 \ dots \ x_n \end{array}
ight) = \left(egin{array}{c} y_1 \ dots \ y_m \end{array}
ight) ext{ or } AX = Y$$

- This is homogeneous if $y_i=0 \,\, {
 m for} \,\, i=1,\ldots,m$
- To solve we change to easier problem by row operations.

Elementary row operations

- Multiplication of one row of A by a scalar in F.
- Replacement of r th row of A by row r plus c times s th row of A (c in F, r ≠ s)
- Interchanging two rows
- An inverse operation of elementary row operation is a row operation,
- Two matrices A, B are row-equivalent if one can make A into B by a series of elementary row operations. (This is an equivalence relation)

$$(1)A \sim A, (2)A \sim B \leftrightarrow B \sim A, (3)A \sim B, B \sim C \rightarrow A \sim C$$

- Theorem: A, B row-equivalent mxn matrices. AX=0 and BX=0 has the exactly same solutions.
- Definition: mxn matrix R is row-reduced if
 - The first nonzero entry in each non-zero row of R is 1.
 - Each colume of R which contains the leading non-zero entry of some row has all its other entries 0
- Definition: R is a row-reduced echelon matrix if
 - R is row-reduced
 - Zero rows of R lie below all the nonzero rows
 - Leading nonzero entry A_{ik_i} of row i:

$$k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_r, 1 \le k_j \le n$$

 $(r \le n \text{ since strictly increasing})$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & i & -1/2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \cdots$$

- The main point is to use the first nonzero entry of the rows to eliminate entries in the colume. Sometimes, we need to exchange rows. This is algorithmic.
- In this example: $k_1 = 1, k_2 = 2, k_3 = 3$
- Theorem: Every mxn matrix A is rowequivalent to a row-reduced echelon form.

Analysis of RX=0. R mxn matrix

- Let r be the number of nonzero rows of R. Then r ≤n
- Take k_i Variables of X: $x_{k_1}, x_{k_2}, \dots, x_{k_r}$
- Remaining variables of X: $u_1, u_2, \dots u_{n-r}$
- RX=0 becomes

- All the solutions are obtained by assigning any values whatsoever to $u_1, u_2, \dots u_{n-r}$
- If r < n, n-r is the dimension of the solution space.
- If r = n, then only X=O is the solution.

- Theorem 6: A mxn m< n. Then AX=0 has a nontrivial solutions.
- Proof:
 - R r-r-e matrix of A.
 - AX=0 and RX=0 has same solutions.
 - Let r be the number of nonzero rows of R.
 - $r \le m \le n$.
- Theorem 7. A nxn. A is row-equivalent to I iff AX=0 has only trivial solutions.
- Proof: → AX=0, IX=0 has same solutions.
 - AX=0 has only trivial solutions. So does RX=0.
 - Let r be the no of nonzero rows of R.
 - r≥n since RX=0 has only trivial solutions.
 - But r≤n always. Thus r=n.
 - R has leading 1 at each row. R = I.

• Matrix multiplications
$$C = AB, c_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^n A_{ir}B_{rj}$$
 $I = (\delta_{ij}), IA = A = AI, O.A = O = A.O$

- A(BC) = (AB)C A: mxn B:nxr C:rxk
- Elementary matrix E (nxn) is obtained from I by a single elementary move.

$$\left(egin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight) \, \left(egin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & a_{12} \ a_{21} & a_{22} \ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{array}
ight)$$

 Corollary: A, B mxn matrices. B is rowequivalent to A iff B=PA where P is a product of elementary matrices

Invertible matrices

- A nxn matrix.
 - If BA = I B nxn, then B is a left inverse of A.
 - If AC=I C nxn, then C is a right inverse of A
 - B s.t. BA=I=AB. B is the inverse of A
 - We will show finally, these notions are equivalent.
- Lemma: If A has a left inverse B and a right inverse C, then B = C.
 - Proof:B=BI=B(AC)=(BA)C=IC=C.

- Theorem: A, B nxn matrices.
 - (i) If A is invertibe, so is A⁻¹. (A⁻¹)⁻¹=A.
 - (ii) If both A,B are invertibe, so is AB and (AB)⁻¹=B⁻¹A⁻¹.
 - Products of invertible matrices are invertible.
- Theorem: An elementary matrix is invertible. e an operation, e₁ inverse operation. Let E = e(I). E₁=e₁(I). Then EE₁=e(E₁)= e(e₁(I))=I. E₁E=e₁(e(I))=I.

Theorem 12: A nxn matrix. TFAE:

- (I) A is invertible.
- (ii) A is row-equivalent to I.
- (iii) A is a product of elementary matrices.
- proof:
 - Let R be the row reduced echelon matrix of A.
 - $R = E_k ... E_1 A. A = E_1^{-1} ... E_k^{-1} R.$
 - A is inv iff R is inv.
 - R is inv iff R=I
 - ((→) if R≠I. Then exists 0 rows.
 R is not inv.(←) R=I is invertible.
 - Fact: R = I iff R has no zero rows.

Corollary: A →I by a series of row operations. Then I →A⁻¹ by the same series of operations.

– Proof:

- $I = E_k ... E_1 A$.
- By multiplying both sides by A⁻¹.
- $A^{-1} = E_k ... E_1$. Thus, $A^{-1} = E_k ... E_1 I$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & i & 1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1-2i & | & 1 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & | & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & -1+i & 1-2i \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & | & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 1 & -1+i & 1-2i \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Corollary: A,B mxn matrices
 B is row-equivalent to A iff B=PA for an invertible mxm matrix P.
- Theorem 13: A nxn TFAE
 - (i) A is invertible
 - (ii) AX=O has only trivial solution.
 - (iii) AX=Y has a unique solution for each nx1 matrix Y.
- Proof: By Theorem 7, (ii) iff A is row-equiv. to
 I. Thus, (i) iff (ii).
 - (ii) iff (iii) → A is invertible. AX=Y. Solution Y=A⁻¹X.

- ← Let R be r-r-e of A. We show R=I.
 - We show that the last row of R is not O.
 - Let E=(0,0,...,1) nx1 colume matrix.
 - If RX=E is solvable, then the last row of R is not O.
 - $-R=PA \rightarrow A=P^{-1}R$.
 - RX=E iff AX=P⁻¹E which is always solvable by the assumption (iii).

- Corollary: nxn matrix A with either a left or a right inverse is invertible.
- Proof:
 - Suppose A has a left inverse.
 - $\exists B, BA = I.$
 - AX=0 has only trivial solutions. By Th 13, done.
 BAX=0 -> X=0.
 - Suppose A has a right inverse.

$$\exists C, AC = I.$$

- · C has a left-inverse A.
- C is invertible by the first part. C⁻¹=A.
- A is invertible.