1.5 Elementary Matrices and a Method for Finding A-1

In this section we will develop an algorithm for finding the inverse of a matrix, and we will discuss some of the basic properties of invertible matrices.

In Section 1.1 we defined three elementary row operations on a matrix A:

- 1. Multiply a row by a nonzero constant c.
- 2. Interchange two rows.
- 3. Add a constant c times one row to another.

It should be evident that if we let B be the matrix that results from A by performing one of the operations in this list, then the matrix A can be recovered from B by performing the corresponding operation in the following list:

- 1. Multiply the same row by 1/c.
- 2. Interchange the same two rows.
- 3. If B resulted by adding c times row r_i of A to row r_j , then add -c times r_j to r_i .

It follows that if B is obtained from A by performing a sequence of elementary row operations, then there is a second sequence of elementary row operations, which when applied to B recovers A (Exercise 33). Accordingly, we make the following definition.

DEFINITION 1 Matrices A and B are said to be now equivalent if either (hence each) can be obtained from the other by a sequence of elementary row operations.

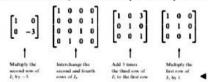
Our next goal is to show how matrix multiplication can be used to carry out an elementary row operation.

DEFINITION 2 A matrix E is called an *elementary matrix* if it can be obtained from an identity matrix by performing a *single* elementary row operation.

1.5 Elementary Matrices and a Method for Finding A^{-1} 83

► EXAMPLE 1 Elementary Matrices and Row Operations

Listed below are four elementary matrices and the operations that produce them.



The following theorem, whose proof is left as an exercise, shows that when a matrix A is multiplied on the left by an elementary matrix E, the effect is to perform an elementary row operation on A.

THEOREM 1.5.1 Row Operations by Matrix Multiplication

If the elementary matrix E results from performing a certain row operation on I_m and if A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then the product EA is the matrix that results when this same row operation is performed on A.

► EXAMPLE 2 Using Elementary Matrices

Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 1 & 4 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and consider the elementary matrix

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which results from adding 3 times the first row of I_3 to the third row. The product EA is

$$EA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is precisely the matrix that results when we add 3 times the first row of A to the third row. \blacktriangleleft

We know from the discussion at the beginning of this section that if E is an elementary matrix that results from performing an elementary row operation on an identity matrix I. then there is a second elementary row operation, which when applied to E produces I back again. Table I list these operations. The operations on the right side of the table are called the *limerse operations* of the corresponding operations on the left.

Theorem 1.5.1 will be a useful tool for developing new results about matrices, but as a practical matter it is usually preferable to perform row operations directly.

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Table 1

Rev Operation on I That Produces E	Row Operation on E That Reproduces /		
Multiply row i by $c \neq 0$	Multiply row i by 1/c		
Interchange rows i and j	Interchange rows i and j		
Add c time row i to row j	Add -c times row i to row j		

Borr Operation on I That Produces E	Box Operation on E That Reproduces /
Multiply row i by $c \neq 0$	Multiply row i by 1/c
Interchange rows i and j	Interchange rows i and j
Add c time row i to row j	Add -c times row i to row j

► EXAMPLE 3 Row Operations and Inverse Row Operations

In each of the following, an elementary row operation is applied to the 2×2 identity matrix to obtain an elementary matrix E, then E is restored to the identity matrix by applying the inverse row operation.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\uparrow$$
Multiply the second sow by \uparrow

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

$$\uparrow$$
Interchange the first sand second rows
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Add 5 times the second row to the first second row to the f

The next theorem is a key result about invertibility of elementary matrices. It will be a building block for many results that follow.

THEOREM 1.5.2 Every elementary matrix is invertible, and the inverse is also an ele-

Proof If E is an elementary matrix, then E results by performing some row operation on I. Let E_0 be the matrix that results when the inverse of this operation is performed on I. Applying Theorem 1.5.1 and using the fact that inverse row operations cancel the effect of each other, it follows that

$$E_0E = I$$
 and $EE_0 = I$

Thus, the elementary matrix E_0 is the inverse of E.

Equivalence Theorem
One of our objectives as we progress through this text is to show how seemingly diverse ideas in linear algebra are related. The following theorem, which relates results we have obtained about invertibility of matrices, homogeneous linear systems, reduced row

echelon forms, and elementary matrices, is our first step in that direction. As we study new topics, more statements will be added to this theorem.

THEOREM 1.5.3 Equivalent Sta

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the following statements are equivalent, that is, all true or all false.

- (a) A is invertible.
- (b) Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution
- (c) The reduced row echelon form of A is Ia.
- (d) A is expressible as a product of elementary matrices.

The following figure illustrates visually that from the se-

 $(a) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (d) \Rightarrow (a)$ we can conclude that

 $(d)\Rightarrow(c)\Rightarrow(b)\Rightarrow(a)$

(a) + (b) + (c) + (d)



Proof We will prove the equivalence by establishing the chain of implication $(a) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (d) \Rightarrow (a)$.

 $(s)\Rightarrow(b)$ Assume A is invertible and let \mathbf{x}_0 be any solution of $A\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}$. Multiplying both sides of this equation by the matrix A^{-1} gives $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_0)=A^{-1}\mathbf{0}$, or $(A^{-1}A)\mathbf{x}_0=\mathbf{0}$, or $I\mathbf{x}_0=\mathbf{0}$, or $\mathbf{x}_0=\mathbf{0}$. Thus, $A\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.

 $(b) \Rightarrow (c)$ Let Ax = 0 be the matrix form of the system

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

 $a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = 0$
 \vdots \vdots \vdots
 $a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n = 0$ (1)

and assume that the system has only the trivial solution. If we solve by Gauss-Jordan elimination, then the system of equations corresponding to the reduced row echelon form of the augmented matrix will be

$$x_1 = 0$$
 $x_2 = 0$
 \vdots
(2)

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for (1) can be reduced to the augn

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for (2) by a sequence of elementary row operations. If we disregard the last column (all zeros) in each of these matrices, we can conclude that the reduced row echelon form of

 $\langle e \rangle \Rightarrow \langle d \rangle$ Assume that the reduced row echelon form of A is I_a , so that A can be reduced to I_a by a finite sequence of elementary row operations. By Theorem 1.5.1, each of these operations can be accomplished by multiplying on the left by an appropriate elementary matrix. Thus we can find elementary matrices E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_4 such that

$$E_1 \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_a \tag{3}$$

By Theorem 1.5.2, E_1 , E_2 , ..., E_k are invertible. Multiplying both sides of Equation (3) on the left successively by E_1^{-1} , ..., E_2^{-1} , E_1^{-1} we obtain

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_t^{-1} I_n = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_t^{-1}$$
(4)

By Theorem 1.5.2, this equation expresses A as a product of elementary matrices.

 $(d)\Rightarrow (a)$ If A is a product of elementary matrices, then from Theorems 1.4.7 and 1.5.2, the matrix A is a product of invertible matrices and hence is invertible.

A Method for Inverting

As a first application of Theorem 1.5.3, we will develop a procedure (or algorithm) that
can be used to tell whether a given matrix is invertible, and if so, produce its inverse. To derive this algorithm, assume for the moment, that A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. In Equation (3), the elementary matrices execute a sequence of row operations that reduce A to I_n . If we multiply both sides of this equation on the right by A^{-1} and simplify, we

$$A^{-1} = E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 I_n$$

But this equation tells us that the same sequence of row operations that reduces A to I_a will transform I_a to A^{-1} . Thus, we have established the following result.

Inversion Algorithm To find the inverse of an invertible matrix A, find a sequence of elementary row operations that reduces A to the identity and then perform that same sequence of operations on I_n to obtain A^{-1} .

A simple method for carrying out this procedure is given in the following example.

► EXAMPLE 4 Using Row Operations to Find A⁻¹

Find the inverse of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution We want to reduce A to the identity matrix by row operations and simultaneously apply these operations to I to produce A^{-1} . To accomplish this we will adjoin the identity matrix to the right side of A, thereby producing a partitioned matrix of the form

story Matrices and a Method for Finding A^{-1} 57

Then we will apply row operations to this matrix until the left side is reduced to I; these operations will convert the right side to A^{-1} , so the final matrix will have the form

The computations are as follows:

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \blacktriangleleft$$

Often it will not be known in advance if a given $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible. However, if it is not, then by parts (a) and (c) of Theorem 1.5.3 it will be impossible to reduce Ato I_n by elementary row operations. This will be signaled by a row of zeros appearing on the left side of the partition at some stage of the inversion algorithm. If this occurs, then you can stop the computations and conclude that A is not invertible.

EXAMPLE 5 Showing That a Matrix is Not invertible Consider the matrix

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Applying the procedure of Example 4 yields

[1	6	4	1	0	0]		
2	4	-1	0	1	0		
-1	2	5	0	0	ıJ		
[1	6	4	1	0	ο٦		
0	-8	-9	-2	1	0		 We added -2 times the faut row to the second and added the first row to the third.
0	8	9	1	0	1		
Гι	6	4	1	0	ο٦		
0	-8	-9	-2	1	0		ided the second
0	0	0	-1	1	1	row to	o the third

► EXAMPLE 6 Analyzing Homog

(a)
$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$
 (b) $x_1 + 6x_2 + 4x_3 = 0$
 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$ $2x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 = 0$
 $x_1 + 8x_3 = 0$ $-x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 = 0$

Solution From parts (a) and (b) of Theorem 1.5.3 a homoger only the trivial solution if and only if its coefficient matrix is invertible. From Examples 4 and 5 the coefficient matrix of system (a) is invertible and that of system (b) is not. Thus,

Exercise Set 1.5

1. (a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (b) $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

2. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 3-4, find a row operation and the corresponding elementary matrix that will restore the given elementary matrix to the identity matrix. ◄

3. (a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} -7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (d)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
4. (a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

5. (a)
$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 & -1 \\ 3 & -6 & -6 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ verse of the matrix (if the inverse exists). 4

(b) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -4 & -4 \\ 1 & -3 & -1 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ II. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ I2. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$

6. (a)
$$E = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 & -1 \\ 3 & -6 & -6 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

$$(b) E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -4 & -4 \\ 1 & -3 & -1 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad 13. \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$14. \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 3\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ -4\sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

14.
$$\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 3\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ -4\sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c)
$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 7-8, use the following matrices and find an elementary matrix E that satisfies the stated equation.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 8 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 5 & 0 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

7. (a)
$$EA = 8$$
 (b) $EB = A$ (c) $EA = C$ (d) $EC = A$

8. (a)
$$EB = D$$
 (b) $ED = B$

(d) EF = 8 (c) EB = F

rices A and B are row equivalent by finding a sequence of elementary row operations that produces B from A, and then use that result to find a matrix

27.
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$
28. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 9 & 4 \\ -5 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ a & b & c \end{bmatrix}$$

is an elementary matrix, then at least one entry in the third

36. Show that



is not invertible for an

Working with Proofs

- Prove that if A and B are m × n matrices, then A and B are row equivalent if and only if A and B have the same reduced row echelon form.
- Prove that if A is an invertible matrix and B is row equivalent to A, then B is also invertible.

of elementary row operations, then there is a second elementary row operations, which when applied em A

True-False Exercises

TV. In parts (a)-(g) determine whether the statement is true of false, and justify your answer.

- (a) The product of two elementary matrices of the same size must be an elementary matrix.
- (b) Every elementary matrix is invertible.
- (c) If A and B are row equivalent, and if B and C are row equivalent, then A and C are row equivalent.
- (d) If A is an $n \times n$ matrix that is not invertible, then the linear system Ax = 0 has infinitely many solutions.
- (e) If A is an n × n matrix that is not invertible the obtained by interchanging two rows ε
- (f) If A is invertible and a multiple of to the second row, then the results. 75 / 802
- (g) An expression of an invertible matrix ..

Working with Technology

T1. It can be proved that if the partiti

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertible, then its inverse is

$$\begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \\ -(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & (D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

provided that all of the inverses on the right side exist. Use this esult to find the inverse of the matrix

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

1.6 More on Linear Systems and Invertible Matrices 61

1.6 More on Linear Systems and Invertible Matrices

In this section we will show how the inverse of a matrix can be used to solve a linear system and we will develop some more results about invertible matrices.

Number of Solutions of a
Linear System
Linear System ither has no solutions, has exactly one solution, or has infinitely many solutions.
We are now in a position to prove this fundamental result.

THEOREM 1.6.1 $\,A$ system of linear equations has zero, one, or infinitely many solutions. There are no other possibilities.

Proof If Ax = b is a system of linear equations, exactly one of the following is true: (a) the system has no solutions, (b) the system has exactly one solution, or (c) the system (a) the system has no solutions, (o) the system has exactly one solution, of (c) the system has more than one solution. The proof will be complete if we can show that the system has infinitely many solutions in case (c).

Assume that Ax = b has more than one solution, and let $x_0 = x_1 - x_2$, where x_1 and x_2 are any two distinct solutions. Because x_1 and x_2 are distinct, the matrix x_0 is

$$Ax_0 = A(x_1 - x_2) = Ax_1 - Ax_2 = b - b = 0$$

If we now let k be any scalar, then

$$A(x_1 + kx_0) = Ax_1 + A(kx_0) = Ax_1 + k(Ax_0)$$

= b + k0 = b + 0 = b

But this says that $x_1 + kx_0$ is a solution of Ax = b. Since x_0 is nonzero and there are infinitely many choices for k, the system Ax = b has infinitely many solutions.

Solving Linear Systems by Matrix Inversion

Thus far we have studied two procedures for solving linear systems—Gauss-Jordan elimination and Gaussian elimination. The following theorem provides an actual formula for the solution of a linear system of n equations in n unknowns in the case where the coefficient matrix is invertible.

THEOREM 1.6.2 If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then for each $n \times 1$ matrix **b**, the system of equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has exactly one solution, namely, $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

Proof Since $A(A^{-1}b) = b$, it follows that $x = A^{-1}b$ is a solution of Ax = b. To show From Sinke A(n) = 0. In thousand that $x_0 = n$ is a notation of $x_0 = n$. To show that this is the only solution, we will assume that x_0 is an arbitrary solution and then show that x_0 must be the solution $A^{-1}b$.

If x_0 is any solution of Ax = b, then $Ax_0 = b$. Multiplying both sides of this equation by A^{-1} , we obtain $x_0 = A^{-1}b$.

► EXAMPLE 1 Solution of a Linear System Using A-1

Consider the system of linear equations

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 5$$

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In matrix form this system can be

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9\\ 13 & -5 & -3\\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Keep in mind that the method of Example 1 only applies when the system has as many equations as unknowns and the coefficient matrix is invert-

By Theorem 1.6.2, the solution

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

or $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = -1$, $x_3 = 2$.

Linear Systems with a Common Coefficient Matrix

Frequently, one is concerned with solving a sequence of system

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$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_3, \dots, \quad A\mathbf{x}$$

each of which has the same square coefficient matrix A. If A is ...

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_1, \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_2, \quad \mathbf{x}_3 = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_3, \dots, \quad \mathbf{x}_k = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_k$$

can be obtained with one matrix inversion and k matrix multiplications. An efficient way to do this is to form the partitioned matrix

$$[A \mid \mathbf{b}_1 \mid \mathbf{b}_2 \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{b}_k] \tag{1}$$

in which the coefficient matrix A is "augmented" by all k of the matrices $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_k$, and then reduce (1) to reduced row echelon form by Gauss-Jordan elimination. In this way we can solve all k systems at once. This method has the added advantage that it applies even when A is not invertible.

EXAMPLE 2 Solving Two Linear Systems at Once

Solve the systems

(a)
$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 4$$

 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 5$
 $x_1 + 8x_3 = 9$
(b) $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 1$
 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 6$
 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 6$

Solution The two systems have the same coefficient matrix. If we augment this coefficient matrix with the columns of constants on the right sides of these systems, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 & 9 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reducing this matrix to re

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

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It follows from the last two columns that the solution of system (a) is $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 0$, $x_1 = 1$ and the solution of system (b) is $x_1 = 2$, $x_2 = 1$, $x_3 = -1$.

Properties of Invertible Up to now, to show that an $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible, it has been necessary to find an Matrices n x n matrix B such that

$$AB = I$$
 and $BA = I$

The next theorem shows that if we produce an $n \times n$ matrix B satisfying either condition, then the other condition will hold automatically.

THEOREM 1.6.3 Let A be a square matrix.

- (a) If B is a square matrix satisfying BA = I, then $B = A^{-1}$.
- (b) If B is a square matrix satisfying AB = I, then $B = A^{-1}$.

We will prove part (a) and leave part (b) as an exercise.

Proof (a) Assume that BA = I. If we can show that A is invertible, the proof can be completed by multiplying BA = I on both sides by A^{-1} to obtain

$$BAA^{-1} = IA^{-1}$$
 or $BI = IA^{-1}$ or $B = A^{-1}$

To show that A is invertible, it suffices to show that the system Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution (see Theorem 1.5.3). Let x_0 be any solution of this system. If we multiply both sides of $Ax_0 = 0$ on the left by B, we obtain $BAx_0 = B0$ or $Ix_0 = 0$ or $x_0 = 0$. Thus, the system of equations Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution.

Equivalence Theorem We are now in a position to add two more statements to the four given in Theorem 1.5.3.

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the following are equivalent

- (a) A is invertible.
- (b) Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution
- (c) The reduced row echelon form of A is In.
- (d) A is expressible as a product of elementary matrices.
- (e) Ax = b is consistent for every n × 1 matrix b.
- (f) Ax = b has exactly one solution for every $n \times 1$ matrix b.

Proof Since we proved in Theorem 1.5.3 that (a), (b), (c), and (d) are equivalent, it will be sufficient to prove that $(a) \Rightarrow (f) \Rightarrow (e) \Rightarrow (a)$.

(a) ⇒ (f) This was already proved in Theorem 1.6.2.

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 $(s) \Rightarrow (s)$ If the system Ax = b is consistent for every $n \times 1$ matrix b, then, in particular, this is so for the systems

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n be solutions of the respective systems, and let us form an $n \times n$ matrix C having these solutions as columns. Thus C has the form

$$C = \{\mathbf{x}_1 \mid \mathbf{x}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

As discussed in Section 1.3, the successive columns of the product AC will be

$$Ax_1, Ax_2, \dots, Ax_n$$

[see Formula (8) of Section 1.3]. Thus,

It follows from the equivalency of parts (e) and (f) that if you can show that Ax = bhas at least one solution for every $n \times 1$ matrix b, then you can conclude that it has exsetly one solution for every $n \times 1$ matrix b.

$$AC = [Ax_1 \mid Ax_2 \mid \cdots \mid Ax_n] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 79 / 802$$

By part (b) of Theorem 1.6.3, it follows that $C = A^{-1}$. Thus, A is invertible.

We know from earlier work that invertible matrix factors produce an invertible product. Conversely, the following theorem shows that if the product of square matrices is invertible, then the factors themselves must be invertible.

THEOREM 1.6.5 Let A and B be square matrices of the same size. If AB is invertible, then A and B must also be invertible.

Proof We will show first that B is invertible by showing that the homogeneous system Bx=0 has only the trivial solution. If we assume that x_0 is any solution of this system, then

$$(AB)\mathbf{x}_0=A(B\mathbf{x}_0)=A\mathbf{0}=\mathbf{0}$$

so $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$ by parts (a) and (b) of Theorem 1.6.4 applied to the invertible matrix AB. But the invertibility of B implies the invertibility of B^{-1} (Theorem 1.4.7), which in turn implies that

$$(AB)B^{-1} = A(BB^{-1}) = AI = A$$

is invertible since the left side is a product of invertible matrices. This completes the

In our later work the following fundamental problem will occur frequently in various contexts.

A fundamental Problem Let A be a fixed $m \times n$ matrix. Find all $m \times 1$ matrices b such that the system of equations Ax = b is consistent.

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If A is an invertible matrix, Theorem 1.6.2 completely solves this problem by asserting that for every $m \times 1$ matrix b, the linear system Ax = b has the unique solution $x = A^{-1}b$. If A is not square, or if A is square but not invertible, then Theorem 1.6.2 does not apply. In these cases b must usually satisfy certain conditions in order for Ax = b to be consistent. The following example illustrates how the methods of Section 1.2 can be used to determine such conditions

► EXAMPLE 3 Determining Consistency by Elimination

What conditions must b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 satisfy in order for the system of equations

$$x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 = b_1$$

 $x_1 + x_3 = b_2$
 $2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = b_3$

to be consistent?

Solution The augmented matr

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & b_2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

which can be reduced to row echelon form as follows

It is now evident from the third row in the matrix that the system has a solution if and only if b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 satisfy the condition

$$b_3 - b_2 - b_1 = 0$$
 or $b_3 = b_1 + b_2$

To express this condition another way, Ax = b is consistent if and only if b is a matrix of the form

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_1 + b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where b_1 and b_2 are arbitrary.

EXAMPLE 4 Determining Consistency by Elimination

What conditions must b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 satisfy in order for the system of equations

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = b_1$$

$$2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = b_2$$

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Solution The augmented matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & b_1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & b_2 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 & b_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reducing this to reduced row echelon form yields (verify)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -40b_1 + 16b_2 + 9b_3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 13b_1 - 5b_2 - 3b_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5b_1 - 2b_2 - b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
(2)

What does the result in Example 4 tell you about the coeffi-cient matrix of the system?

In this case there are no restrictions on b1, b2, and b1, so the system h

$$x_1 = -40b_1 + 16b_2 + 9b_1$$
, $x_2 = 13b_1 - 5b_2 - 3b_3$, $x_3 = 5b_1 - 2b_2 - b_3$ (3) for all values of b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 .

Exercise Set 1.6

In Exercises 1-8, solve the system by inverting the coefficient 12. $x_1 + 3x_2 + 5x_3 = b_1$ matrix and using Theorem 1.6.2.

1.
$$x_1 + x_2 = 2$$

 $5x_1 + 6x_2 = 9$

$$2. \ 4x_1 - 3x_2 = -3 \\
2x_1 - 5x_2 = 9$$

3.
$$x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 4$$

 $2x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 = -1$
 $2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 3$

4.
$$5x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_1 = 4$$

 $3x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_1 = 2$
 $x_2 + x_1 = 5$

5.
$$x + y + z = 5$$

 $x + y - 4z = 10$
 $-4x + y + z = 0$

$$w + x + 4y + 4z = 7$$

$$w + 3x + 7y + 9z = 4$$

$$-w - 2x - 4y - 6z = 6$$

7.
$$3x_1 + 5x_2 = b_1$$

 $x_1 + 2x_2 = b_2$
8. $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = b_1$
 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 5x_3 = b_2$
 $3x_1 + 5x_2 + 8x_3 = b_1$

In Exercises 9-12, solve the linear systems together by reducing

9.
$$x_1 - 5x_2 = b_1$$

 $3x_1 + 2x_2 = b_2$

$$3x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

(i)
$$b_1 = 1$$
, $b_2 = 4$ (ii) $b_1 = -2$, $b_2 = 5$

18.
$$-x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 = b_1$$

 $x_1 + 9x_2 - 2x_3 = b_2$
 $6x_1 + 4x_2 - 8x_3 = b_3$

(i)
$$b_1 = 0$$
, $b_2 = 1$, $b_3 = 0$
(ii) $b_1 = -3$, $b_2 = 4$, $b_3 = -5$

11.
$$4x_1 - 7x_2 = b_1$$

 $x_1 + 2x_2 = b_2$

(i)
$$b_1 = 0$$
, $b_2 = 1$
(iii) $b_1 = -1$, $b_2 = 3$

(i)
$$b_1 = 0$$
, $b_2 = 1$
(ii) $b_1 = -4$, $b_2 = 6$
(iii) $b_1 = -1$, $b_2 = 3$
(iv) $b_1 = -5$, $b_2 = 1$

$$x_1 + 3x_2 + 5x_3 = b_1$$
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$$-x_1 - 2x_2 = b_2$$

$$2x_1 + 5x_2 + 4x_3 = b_3$$
(i) b = 1 b = 0 b = -

(i)
$$b_1 = 1$$
, $b_2 = 0$, $b_3 = -1$
(ii) $b_1 = 0$, $b_2 = 1$, $b_3 = 1$
(iii) $b_1 = -1$, $b_2 = -1$, $b_3 = 0$

13.
$$x_1 + 3x_2 = b_1$$
 14. $6x_1 - 4x_2 = b_1$ $-2x_1 + x_2 = b_2$ $3x_1 - 2x_2 = b_2$

$$3x_1 - 2x_2 = 6$$

15.
$$x_1 - 2x_2 + 5x_3 = b_1$$
 16. $x_1 - 2x_2 - x_3 = b_1$
 $4x_1 - 5x_2 + 8x_3 = b_2$ $-4x_1 + 5x_2 + 2x_3 = b_2$
 $-3x_1 + 3x_2 - 3x_3 = b_1$ $-4x_1 + 7x_2 + 4x_3 = b_1$

17.
$$x_1 - x_2 + 3x_1 + 2x_4 = b_1$$

 $-2x_1 + x_2 + 5x_2 + x_4 = b_2$
 $-3x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_1 - x_4 = b_1$
 $4x_1 - 3x_2 + x_2 + 3x_4 = b_4$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) Show that the equation Ax = x can be rewritten as (A I)x = 0 and use this result to solve Ax = x for x

$$\mathbf{19},\begin{bmatrix}1 & -1 & 1\\2 & 3 & 0\\0 & 2 & -1\end{bmatrix}X = \begin{bmatrix}2 & -1 & 5 & 7 & 8\\4 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 1\\3 & 5 & -7 & 2 & 1\end{bmatrix}$$

28. $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 1 & 3 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

- 21. Let dx = 0 be a homogeneous system of n linear equations in n unknowns that has only the trivial solution. Prove that if k is any positive integer, then the system $A^kx = 0$ also has only the trivial solution.
- 22. Let Ax = 0 be a homogeneous system of n linear equations in n unknowns, and let Q be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Prove that Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution if and only if (QA)x = 0 has only the trivial solution.
- Let Ax = b be any consistent system of linear equations, and let x₁ be a fixed solution. Prove that every solution to the system can be written in the form $x=x_1+x_2$, where x_2 is a solution to Ax=0. Prove also that every matrix of this form
- 24. Use part (a) of Theorem 1.6.3 to prove part (b).

True-False Exercises

- TF. In parts (a)-(g) determin false, and justify your answer. ne whether the statement is true or
- (a) It is impossible for a system of linear equations to have exactly
- (b) If A is a square matrix, and if the linear system Ax = b has a unique solution, then the linear system Ax = e also must have a unique solution.
- (c) If A and B are $n \times n$ matrices such that $AB = I_n$, then $BA = I_n$. (d) If A and B are row equivalent matrices, then the linear systems Ax = 0 and Bx = 0 have the same solution set.

 Solve the linear system method of Example 2.

1.7 Diagonal, Wangular, and Symo

- (e) Let A be an n × n matrix and S is an n × n invertible n If x is a solution to the linear system $(S^{-1}AS)x = b$, then Sx is a solution to the linear system Ay = Sb.
- rar system Ax = 4x has a unique solution if and only if A-4J is an invertible matrix.
- (g) Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. If A or B (or both) are not

Working with Technology

T1. Colors in print media, on computer monitors, and on television screens are implemented using what are called "color mod-els". For example, in the RGB model, colors are created by mixing ets. For examps, in the RUB model, cotors are created by mexing procentages of red (R), green (G), and blue (R), and in the YIQ model (used in TV broadcasting), colors are created by mixing procentages of luminescence (Y) with percentages of a chromisance factor (d) and a chromisance factor (Q). The conversion from the RGB model to the YIQ model is accomplished by the

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y \\ I \\ Q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 299 & .587 & .114 \\ .596 & -.275 & -.321 \\ .212 & -.523 & .311 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

T2 Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

1.7 Diagonal, Triangular, and Symmetric Matrices

In this section we will discuss matrices that have various special forms. These matrices arise in a wide variety of applications and will play an important role in our subsequent work.

Diagonal Matrices A square matrix in which all the entries off the main diagonal are zero is called a diagonal matrix. Here are some examples:

