## Matrices, Vectors

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers (or functions) enclosed in brackets. These numbers (or functions) are called the entries (or sometimes the elements) of the matrix. For example,

$$
\begin{align*}
& {\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0.3 & 1 & -5 \\
0 & -0.2 & 16
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\
a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{array}\right] \text {, }}  \tag{1}\\
& {\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{-x} & 2 x^{2} \\
e^{6 x} & 4 x
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3}
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
4 \\
\frac{1}{2}
\end{array}\right]}
\end{align*}
$$

are matrices.

We shall denote matrices by capital boldface letters $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \cdots$, or by writing the general entry in brackets; thus $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$, and so on. By an $\boldsymbol{m} \times n$ matrix (read $m$ by $n$ matrix) we mean a matrix with $m$ rows and $n$ columns-rows come always first! $m \times n$ is called the size of the matrix. Thus an $m \times n$ matrix is of the form

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1 n}  \tag{2}\\
a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2 n} \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\
a_{m 1} & a_{m 2} & \cdots & a_{m n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Each entry in (2) has two subscripts. The first is the row number and the second is the column number. Thus $a_{21}$ is the entry in Row 2 and Column 1.

If $m=n$, we call $\mathbf{A}$ an $n \times n$ square matrix. Then its diagonal containing the entries $a_{11}, a_{22}, \cdots, a_{n n}$ is called the main diagonal of $\mathbf{A}$.

A vector is a matrix with only one row or column. Its entries are called the components of the vector. We shall denote vectors by lowercase boldface letters $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \cdots$ or by its general component in brackets, $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{j}\right]$, and so on. Our special vectors in (1) suggest that a (general) row vector is of the form

$$
\mathbf{a}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
a_{1} & a_{2} & \cdots, & a_{n}
\end{array}\right] . \quad \text { For instance, } \quad \mathbf{a}=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
-2 & 5 & 0.8 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] .
$$

A column vector is of the form

$$
\mathbf{b}=\left[\begin{array}{r}
b_{1} \\
b_{2} \\
\vdots \\
b_{m}
\end{array}\right] . \quad \text { For instance, } \quad \mathbf{b}=\left[\begin{array}{r}
4 \\
0 \\
-7
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Equality of Matrices

Two matrices $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left[b_{j k}\right]$ are equal, written $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{B}$, if and only if they have the same size and the corresponding entries are equal, that is, $a_{11}=b_{11}, a_{12}=b_{12}$, and so on. Matrices that are not equal are called different. Thus, matrices of different sizes are always different.

## Equality of Matrices

Let

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a_{11} & a_{12} \\
a_{21} & a_{22}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad \mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
4 & 0 \\
3 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then

$$
A=\mathbf{B} \quad \text { if and only if } \quad \begin{array}{ll}
a_{11}=4, & a_{12}=0 \\
& a_{21}=3 .
\end{array} a_{22}=-1 .
$$

The following matrices are all different. Explain!

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 3 \\
4 & 2
\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}
4 & 2 \\
1 & 3
\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}
4 & 1 \\
2 & 3
\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 3 & 0 \\
4 & 2 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 1 & 3 \\
0 & 4 & 2
\end{array}\right] \square
$$

## Addition

## Addition of Matrices

The sum of two matrices $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left[b_{j k}\right]$ of the same size is written $\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}$ and has the entries $a_{j k}+b_{j k}$ obtained by adding the corresponding entries of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$. Matrices of different sizes cannot be added.

As a special case, the sum $\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}$ of two row vectors or two column vectors, which must have the same number of components, is obtained by adding the corresponding components.

Addition of Matrices and Vectors
If $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}-4 & 6 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right]$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}5 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right]$. then $\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 2\end{array}\right]$.

## Scalar Multiplication

## Scalar Multiplication (Multiplication by a Number)

The product of any $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$ and any scalar $c$ (number $c$ ) is written $c \mathbf{A}$ and is the $m \times n$ matrix $c \mathbf{A}=\left[c a_{j k}\right]$ obtained by multiplying each entry of $\mathbf{A}$ by $c$.

Here $(-1) \mathbf{A}$ is simply written - A and is called the negative of A. Similarly, $(-k) \mathbf{A}$ is written $-k \mathbf{A}$. Also, $\mathbf{A}+(-\mathbf{B})$ is written $\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{B}$ and is called the difference of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ (which must have the same size!).

## Scalar Multiplication

$$
\text { If } \mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cr}
2.7 & -1.8 \\
0 & 0.9 \\
9.0 & -4.5
\end{array}\right] \text {, then }-\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cr}
-2.7 & 1.8 \\
0 & -0.9 \\
-9.0 & 4.5
\end{array}\right] . \frac{10}{9} \mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}
3 & -2 \\
0 & 1 \\
10 & -5
\end{array}\right], 0 \mathrm{~A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Rules for Matrix Addition and Scalar Multiplication. From the familiar laws for the addition of numbers we obtain similar laws for the addition of matrices of the same size $m \times n$, namely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A} \tag{a}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})+\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A}+(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{C}) \quad \text { (written } \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{C}) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{0}=\mathbf{A} \tag{b}
\end{equation*}
$$

(d)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A}+(-\mathbf{A})=\mathbf{0} \tag{c}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\mathbf{0}$ denotes the zero matrix (of size $m \times n$ ), that is, the $m \times n$ matrix with all entries zero. $\rightarrow$ see previous slide.

Hence matrix addition is commutative and associative [by (3a) and (3b)].
Similarly, for scalar multiplication we obtain the rules
(4)
(a) $c(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})=c \mathbf{A}+c \mathbf{B}$
(b) $\quad(c+k) \mathbf{A}=c \mathbf{A}+k \mathbf{A}$
(c)

$$
c(k \mathbf{A})=(c k) \mathbf{A} \quad(\text { written } c k \mathbf{A})
$$

(d)

$$
1 \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{A}
$$

## Matrix Multiplication

## Multiplication of a Matrix by a Matrix

The product $\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A B}$ (in this order) of an $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$ times an $r \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{B}=\left[b_{j k}\right]$ is defined if and only if $r=n$ and is then the $m \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{C}=\left[c_{j k}\right]$ with entries
(1)

$$
c_{j k}=\sum_{l=1}^{n} a_{j l} b_{l k}=a_{j 1} b_{1 k}+a_{j 2} b_{2 k}+\cdots+a_{j n} b_{n k} \quad \begin{array}{ll} 
& =1, \cdots, m \\
& k=1, \cdots, p .
\end{array}
$$

The condition $r=n$ means that the second factor, $\mathbf{B}$, must have as many rows as the first factor has columns, namely $n$.
$c_{j k}$ in (1) is obtained by multiplying each entry in the $j$ th row of $\mathbf{A}$ by the corresponding entry in the $k$ th column of $\mathbf{B}$ and then adding these $n$ products. For instance, $c_{21}=a_{21} b_{11}+a_{22} b_{21}+\cdots+a_{2 n} b_{n 1}$, and so on. One calls this briefly a "multiplication of rows into columns." See the illustration in Fig. 155, where $n=3$.

$$
m=4\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n=3 \\
\overbrace{\left[\begin{array}{lll}
a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\
a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\
a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43}
\end{array}\right]}^{\left[\begin{array}{ll}
b_{11} & b_{12} \\
b_{21} & b_{22} \\
b_{31} & b_{32}
\end{array}\right]=\overbrace{\left[\begin{array}{ll}
c_{11} & c_{12} \\
c_{21} & c_{22} \\
c_{31} & c_{32} \\
c_{41} & c_{42}
\end{array}\right]}^{p=2})}=m=4
\end{array}\right.
$$

Fig. 155. Notations in a product $A B=C$
$\rightarrow$ In matrix multiplication, are then the corresponding entries directly multiplied? No! They are not. Why not?

Matrix Multiplication
$\mathbf{A B}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}3 & 5 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 \\ -6 & -3 & 2\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}2 & -2 & 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & -4 & 1 & 1\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}22 & -2 & 43 & 42 \\ 26 & -16 & 14 & 6 \\ -9 & 4 & -37 & -28\end{array}\right]$

Multiplication of a Matrix and a Vector
$\left[\begin{array}{ll}4 & 2 \\ 1 & 8\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 5\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}4 \cdot 3+2 \cdot 5 \\ 1 \cdot 3+8 \cdot 5\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}22 \\ 43\end{array}\right]$ whereas $\left[\begin{array}{l}3 \\ 5\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ll}4 & 2 \\ 1 & 8\end{array}\right] \quad$ is undefined.

Products of Row and Column Vectors
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}3 & 6 & 1\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 2 \\ 4\end{array}\right]=[19] . \quad\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 2 \\ 4\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lll}3 & 6 & 1\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}3 & 6 & 1 \\ 6 & 12 & 2 \\ 12 & 24 & 4\end{array}\right]$.

CAUTION! Matrix Multiplication Is Not Commutative, $A B \neq B A$ in General
$\left[\begin{array}{rr}1 & 1 \\ 100 & 100\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rr}-1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$ but $\left[\begin{array}{rr}-1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rr}1 & 1 \\ 100 & 100\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{rr}99 & 99 \\ -99 & -99\end{array}\right]$.

Our examples show that the order of factors in matrix products must always be observed very carefully. Otherwise matrix multiplication satisfies rules similar to those for numbers, namely.
(2)
(a) $\quad(k \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{B}=k(\mathbf{A B})=\mathbf{A}(k \mathbf{B}) \quad$ written $k \mathbf{A B}$ or $\mathbf{A} k \mathbf{B}$
(b) $\quad \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B C})=(\mathbf{A B}) \mathbf{C}$
written $\mathbf{A B C}$
(c) $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}) \mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A C}+\mathbf{B C}$
(d) $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B})=\mathrm{CA}+\mathrm{CB}$
provided $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}$, and $\mathbf{C}$ are such that the expressions on the left are defined; here, $k$ is any scalar. (2b) is called the associative law. (2c) and (2d) are called the distributive laws.

## Linear Systems of Equations

A linear system of $\boldsymbol{m}$ equations in $\boldsymbol{n}$ unknowns $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ is a set of equations of the form
(1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{11} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{1 n} x_{n}=b_{1} \\
& a_{21} x_{1}+\cdots+a_{2 n} x_{n}=b_{2} \\
& \cdots \cdots+\cdots+\cdots+a_{m n} x_{n}=b_{m} \\
& a_{m 1} x_{1}+\cdots+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

The system is called linear because each variable $x_{j}$ appears in the first power only, just as in the equation of a straight line. $a_{11}, \cdots, a_{m n}$ are given numbers, called the coefficients of the system. $b_{1}, \cdots, b_{m}$ on the right are also given numbers. If all the $b_{j}$ are zero, then (1) is called a homogeneous system. If at least one $b_{j}$ is not zero, then (1) is called a nonhomogeneous system.

A solution of (1) is a set of numbers $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ that satisfies all the $m$ equations. A solution vector of (1) is a vector $\mathbf{x}$ whose components form a solution of (1). If the system (1) is homogeneous, it has at least the trivial solution $x_{1}=0, \cdots, x_{n}=0$.

## Coefficient Matrix

Matrix Form of the Linear System (1). From the definition of matrix multiplication we see that the $m$ equations of (1) may be written as a single vector equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A x}=\mathbf{b} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coefficient matrix $\mathbf{A}=\left[a_{j k}\right]$ is the $m \times n$ matrix

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1 n} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2 n} \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\
a_{m 1} & a_{m 2} & \cdots & a_{m n}
\end{array}\right] \text {, and } \mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right] \text { and } \mathbf{b}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
b_{1} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
b_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

are column vectors. We assume that the coefficients $a_{j k}$ are not all zero, so that $\mathbf{A}$ is not a zero matrix. Note that $\mathbf{x}$ has $n$ components, whereas $\mathbf{b}$ has $m$ components.

## Augmented Matrix

The matrix

$$
\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1 n} & b_{1} \\
\cdot & \cdots & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdots & \cdot & \cdot \\
a_{m 1} & \cdots & a_{m n} & b_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

is called the augmented matrix of the system (1). The dashed vertical line could be omitted (as we shall do later); it is merely a reminder that the last column of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ does not belong to $\mathbf{A}$.
The augmented matrix $\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}$ determines the system (1) completely because it contains all the given numbers appearing in (1).

## Geometric Interpretation. Existence and Uniqueness of Solutions

If $m=n=2$, we have two equations in two unknowns $x_{1}, x_{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{11} x_{1}+a_{12} x_{2}=b_{1} \\
& a_{21} x_{1}+a_{22} x_{2}=b_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

If we interpret $x_{1}, x_{2}$ as coordinates in the $x_{1} x_{2}$-plane,
then each of the two equations represents a straight line, and $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ is a solution if and only if the point $P$ with coordinates $x_{1}, x_{2}$ lies on both lines.

Hence there are three possible cases:
(a) Precisely one solution if the lines intersect.

> existence: (a) \& (b);
(b) Infinitely many solutions if the lines coincide.
uniqueness: (a).
(c) No solution if the lines are parallel

For instance.

$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{1}+x_{2}=1 \\
2 x_{1}-x_{2}=0 \\
\text { Case }(a)
\end{gathered}
$$



$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{1}+x_{2}=1 \\
2 x_{1}+2 x_{2}=2 \\
\text { Case (b) }
\end{gathered}
$$



$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{1}+x_{2}=1 \\
x_{1}+x_{2}=0 \\
\text { Case (c) }
\end{gathered}
$$



## Applications of Linear Systems


gLOBAL POSITIONING


POLYNOMIAL INTERPOLATION


## NETWORK ANALYSIS

$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{1}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{4}\right)+x_{2}\left(\mathrm{O}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow \\
x_{3}\left(\mathrm{CO}_{2}\right)+x_{4}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

BALANCING CHEMICAL EQUATIONS

## Solving Linear Systems by Row Reduction

If by a sequence of elementary row operations, the augmented matrix for a system of linear equations
is put in reduced row echelon form, then the solution set can be obtained either by inspection, or by converting certain linear equations to parametric form.

## Elementary Row Operations. Row-Equivalent Systems

## Elementary Row Operations for Matrices:

Interchange of two rows
Addition of a constant multiple of one row to another row Multiplication of a row by a nonzero constant c.

CAUTION! These operations are for rows, not for columns! They correspond to
Elementary Operations for Equations:
Interchange of two equations
Addition of a constant multiple of one equation to another equation Multiplication of an equation by a nonzero constant $c$.

## Elementary Operations for Equations:

## Interchange of two equations

Addition of a constant multiple of one equation to another equation Multiplication of an equation by a nonzero constant $c$.

Clearly, the interchange of two equations does not alter the solution set. Neither does that addition because we can undo it by a corresponding subtraction.

Similarly for that multiplication, which we can undo by multiplying the new equation by $1 / c($ since $c \neq 0)$, producing the original equation.

To be in reduced row echelon form, a matrix must have the following properties:

1. If a row does not consist entirely of zeros, then the first nonzero number in the row is a 1. We call this a leading 1.
2. If there are any rows that consist entirely of zeros, then they are grouped together at the bottom of the matrix.
3. In any two successive rows that do not consist entirely of zeros, the leading 1 in the lower row occurs farther to the right than the leading 1 in the higher row.
4. Each column that contains a leading 1 has zeros everywhere else.

A matrix that has the first three properties is said to be in row echelon form.

## EXAMPLE 1

Row Echelon
and Reduced
Row Echelon
Form
The following matrices are in reduced row echelon form:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}
1 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -1
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{rrrrr}
0 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The following matrices are in row echelon form:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}
1 & 4 & -3 & 7 \\
0 & 1 & 6 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 5
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{lllrl}
0 & 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

We leave it for you to confirm that each of the matrices in this example satisfies all of the requirements for its stated form.

## EXAMPLE 2

More on Row
Echelon and
Reduced Row
Echelon Form
all matrices of the following types are in row echelon form:
$\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{llll}1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{llllllllll}0 & 1 & * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & *\end{array}\right]$
Moreover, all matrices of the following types are in reduced row echelon form:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & * \\
0 & 1 & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 1 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & * & * \\
0 & 1 & * & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{llllllllll}
0 & 1 & * & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & * & * & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & * & * & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & *
\end{array}\right]
$$

## GAUSS-JORDAN AND GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION

Now we will give a step-by-step procedure that can be used to reduce any matrix to reduced row echelon form by elementary row operations. As we state each step, we will illustrate the idea by reducing the following matrix to reduced row echelon form:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12  \tag{6}\\
2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\
2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

It can be proved that elementary row operations, when applied to the augmented matrix of a linear system, do not change the solution set of the system. Thus, we are assured that the linear system corresponding to the reduced row echelon form of (6) will have the same solutions as the original system. Here are the steps for reducing (6) to reduced row echelon form:

Step 1. Locate the leftmost column that does not consist entirely of zeros.

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\
2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\
2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1
\end{array}\right]} \\
\qquad \\
\text { Leftmost nonzero column }
\end{gathered}
$$

Step 2. Interchange the top row with another row, if necessary, to bring a nonzero entry to the top of the column found in Step 1.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\
2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

The first and second rows in the preceding matrix were interchanged.

Step 3. If the entry that is now at the top of the column found in Step 1 is $a$, multiply the first row by $1 / a$ in order to introduce a leading 1 .

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\
2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

> The first row of the preceding matrix was multiplied by $\frac{1}{2}$.

Step 4. Add suitable multiples of the top row to the rows below so that all entries below the leading 1 become zeros.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\
0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -17 & -29
\end{array}\right]
$$

Step 5. Now cover the top row in the matrix and begin again with Step 1 applied to the submatrix that remains. Continue in this way until the entire matrix is in row echelon form.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\
0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -17 & -29
\end{array}\right]} \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -17 & -29
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { Leftmost nonzero column } \\
\text { in the submatrix }
\end{array}} \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{lrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1
\end{array}\right] \begin{array}{l}
\text { The first row in the submatrix was } \\
\text { multiplied by }-\frac{1}{2} \text { to introduce a leading } 1 .
\end{array}} \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text {-5 times the first row of the submatrix } \\
\text { was added to the second row of the } \\
\text { submatrix to introduce a zero below the } \\
\text { leading 1. }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { The top row in the submatrix was covered, } \\
& \text { and we returned again to Step 1. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

The first (and only) row in the new submatrix was multiplied by 2 to introduce a leading 1 .

The entire matrix is now in row echelon form. To find the reduced row echelon form we need the following additional step.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

The first (and only) row in the new submatrix was multiplied by 2 to introduce a leading 1 .

Step 6. Beginning with the last nonzero row and working upward, add suitable multiples of each row to the rows above to introduce zeros above the leading 1's.
$\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right]$
$\frac{7}{2}$ times the third row of the preceding
matrix was added to the second row.
$\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right]$
-6 times the third row was added to the first row.
$\left[\begin{array}{llllll}1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right]$
5 times the second row was added to the first row.

The last matrix is in reduced row echelon form.

The procedure (or algorithm) we have just described for reducing a matrix to reduced row echelon form is called Gauss-Jordan elimination.

This algorithm consists of two parts,
a forward phase in which zeros are introduced below the leading 1's
and then a backward phase in which zeros are introduced above the leading 1's.

If only the forward phase is used, then the procedure produces a row echelon form and is called Gaussian elimination. $\varepsilon$ end of Step 5

## SOME FACTS ABOUT ECHELON FORMS

1. Every matrix has a unique reduced row echelon form;
2. Row echelon forms are not unique;

## EXAMPLE 5

Solving a Linear System
by Gauss-Jordan Elimination

Solve the following linear system by Gauss-Jordan elimination:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}+3 x_{2}-2 x_{3}+2 x_{5}=0 \\
& 2 x_{1}+6 x_{2}-5 x_{3}-2 x_{4}+4 x_{5}-3 x_{6}=-1 \\
& 5 x_{3}+10 x_{4}+15 x_{6}= 5 \\
& 2 x_{1}+6 x_{2}+8 x_{4}+4 x_{5}+18 x_{6}= 6
\end{aligned}
$$

Solution The augmented matrix for the system is

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrr}
1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
2 & 6 & -5 & -2 & 4 & -3 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 & 5 \\
2 & 6 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 18 & 6
\end{array}\right]
$$

Adding -2 times the first row to the second and fourth rows gives

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrr}
1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 & 5 \\
0 & 0 & 4 & 8 & 0 & 18 & 6
\end{array}\right]
$$

Multiplying the second row by -1 and then adding -5 times the new second row to the third row and -4 times the new second row to the fourth row gives

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrr}
1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

Interchanging the third and fourth rows and then multiplying the third row of the resulting matrix by $\frac{1}{6}$ gives the row echelon form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrr}
1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{gathered}
\rightarrow \text { row echelon form; } \\
\text { Gaussian elimination. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Adding -3 times the third row to the second row and then adding 2 times the second row of the resulting matrix to the first row yields the reduced row echelon form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

$\rightarrow$ reduced row echelon form;
Gauss-Jordan elimination.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The corresponding system of equations is

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{1}+3 x_{2}+4 x_{4}+2 x_{5} & =0 \\
x_{3}+2 x_{4} & =0 \\
x_{6} & =\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Solving for the leading variables we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-3 x_{2}-4 x_{4}-2 x_{5} \\
& x_{3}=-2 x_{4} \\
& x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-3 x_{2}-4 x_{4}-2 x_{5} \\
& x_{3}=-2 x_{4} \\
& x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

If we now assign the free variables $x_{2}, x_{4}$, and $x_{5}$ arbitrary values $r, s$, and $t$, respectively, then we can express the solution set parametrically as

$$
x_{1}=-3 r-4 s-2 t, x_{2}=r, x_{3}=-2 s, x_{4}=s, x_{5}=t, x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
$$

Alternatively, we can express the solution set as a linear combination of column vectors by writing

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3} \\
x_{4} \\
x_{5} \\
x_{6}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-3 r-4 s-2 t \\
r \\
-2 s \\
s \\
t \\
\frac{1}{3}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
\frac{1}{3}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{c}
-3 r-4 s-2 t \\
r \\
-2 s \\
s \\
t \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

$$
=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0  \tag{7}\\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
\frac{1}{3}
\end{array}\right]+r\left[\begin{array}{r}
-3 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right]+s\left[\begin{array}{r}
-4 \\
0 \\
-2 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right]+t\left[\begin{array}{r}
-2 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

## GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION AND BACK SUBSTITUTION

In the examples given thus far we solved various linear systems by first transforming the augmented matrix to reduced row echelon form (Gauss-Jordan elimination) and then solving the corresponding linear system. However, it is possible to use only the forward phase of the reduction algorithm (Gaussian elimination) and solve the system that corresponds to the resulting row echelon form. With this approach the backward phase of the Gauss-Jordan algorithm is replaced by an algebraic procedure, called back substitution, in which each equation corresponding to the row echelon form is systematically substituted into the equations above, starting at the bottom and working up.

## EXAMPLE 6

Gaussian Elimination and
Back Substitution
We will solve the linear system in Example 5 using the row echelon form of the augmented matrix produced by Gaussian elimination. In the forward phase of the computations in Example 5 , we obtained the following row echelon form of the augmented matrix:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrrr}
1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \rightarrow \text { see slide } 33 .
$$

To solve the corresponding system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{1}+3 x_{2}-2 x_{3}+2 x_{5} & =0 \\
x_{3}+2 x_{4}+3 x_{6} & =1 \\
x_{6} & =\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

we proceed as follows:

## Step 1.

Solve the equations for the leading variables.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-3 x_{2}+2 x_{3}-2 x_{5} \\
& x_{3}=1-2 x_{4}-3 x_{6} \\
& x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Step 2.

Beginning with the bottom equation and working upward, successively substitute each equation into all the equations above it.
Substituting $x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}$ into the second equation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-3 x_{2}+2 x_{3}-2 x_{5} \\
& x_{3}=-2 x_{4} \\
& x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Substituting $x_{3}=-2 x_{4}$ into the first equation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-3 x_{2}-4 x_{4}-2 x_{5} \\
& x_{3}=-2 x_{4} \\
& x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Step 3.

Assign arbitrary values to the free variables, if any.
If we now assign $x_{2}, x_{4}$, and $x_{5}$ the arbitrary values $r, s$, and $t$, respectively, we obtain

$$
x_{1}=-3 r-4 s-2 t, x_{2}=r, x_{3}=-2 s, x_{4}=s, x_{5}=t, x_{6}=\frac{1}{3}
$$

which agrees with the solution obtained in Example 5 by Gauss-Jordan elimination.

We now call a linear system $S_{1}$ row-equivalent to a linear system $S_{2}$ if $S_{1}$ can be obtained from $S_{2}$ by (finitely many!) row operations.

## Row-Equivalent Systems

Row-equivalent linear systems have the same set of solutions.
$\rightarrow$ They are also called, by simplicity, equivalent systems.

A linear system is called overdetermined if it has more equations than unknowns, determined if $m=n$, and underdetermined if it has fewer equations than unknowns.

Furthermore, a system is called consistent if it has at least one solution (thus. one solution or infinitely many solutions), but inconsistent if it has no solutions at all.

