Attention! \bigotimes Do not use equation E'_1 anymore at this point!
Otherwise, you would bring the variable x_1 back in the game.

Gauß with a bug

We start with a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Let us write $\widetilde{A} := (A|\mathbf{b})$ as a row matrix:

$$\widetilde{A} = (A|\mathbf{b}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} & b_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\widetilde{\alpha}_1^T - \\ -\widetilde{\alpha}_2^T - \\ \vdots \\ -\widetilde{\alpha}_n^T - \end{pmatrix}$$

So a_{ij} is the j^{th} entry of $\tilde{\alpha}_i^T$. We can eliminate a_{21} by adding rows: $\tilde{\alpha}_2^T \rightsquigarrow \tilde{\alpha}_2^T - \lambda_2 \tilde{\alpha}_1^T$, where $\lambda_2 = \frac{a_{21}}{a_{11}}$. This can be written in terms of a matrix, and we obtain:

$$Z_{2-\lambda_{2}1}(A|\mathbf{b}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_{1} \\ 0 & \tilde{a}_{22} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{2n} & \tilde{b}_{2} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & \dots & a_{3n} & b_{3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} & b_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \widetilde{\alpha}_{1}^{T} \\ \widetilde{\alpha}_{2}^{T} - \lambda_{2} \widetilde{\alpha}_{1}^{T} \\ \widetilde{\alpha}_{3}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \widetilde{\alpha}_{n}^{T} \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we can do the same with all other rows, defining $\lambda_i = \frac{a_{i1}}{a_{11}}$, and computing:

$$\underbrace{Z_{n-\lambda_n1}\dots Z_{2-\lambda_21}}_{L_1^{-1}}(A|\mathbf{b}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ 0 & \tilde{a}_{22} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{2n} & \tilde{b}_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \tilde{a}_{n2} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{nn} & \tilde{b}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\alpha}_1^T \\ \tilde{\alpha}_2^T - \lambda_2 \tilde{\alpha}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\alpha}_n^T - \lambda_n \tilde{\alpha}_1^T \end{pmatrix} = L_1^{-1}(A|\mathbf{b})$$

Since L_1^{-1} substracts the first row from all others, its inverse is easily seen to be the matrix that adds this row to all others:

$$L_1^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ -\lambda_2 & 1 & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ -\lambda_n & & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad L_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ \lambda_2 & 1 & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ \lambda_n & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Once, we have eliminated the entries $a_{21} \dots a_{n1}$. We can do the same with $\tilde{a}_{32} \dots \tilde{a}_{n2}$. Here we use factors $\tilde{\lambda}_i = \frac{\tilde{a}_{i2}}{\tilde{a}_{22}}$

 $\int \left(\begin{array}{c} \Lambda \\ \boldsymbol{\ell}_{24} \\ \boldsymbol{\lambda} \\ \boldsymbol{$

We then obtain:

$$L_2^{-1}L_1^{-1}(A|b) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ 0 & \tilde{a}_{22} & \tilde{a}_{23} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{2n} & \tilde{b}_2 \\ 0 & 0 & \hat{a}_{33} & \dots & \hat{a}_{3n} & \hat{b}_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \hat{a}_{n3} & \dots & \hat{a}_{nn} & \hat{b}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

It (luckily) turns out, that

$$L_1L_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ \lambda_2 & 1 & & \\ \lambda_3 & \tilde{\lambda}_3 & 1 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ \lambda_n & \tilde{\lambda}_n & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If we do this column by column, (and don't run out of hats) we obtain:

$$\underbrace{L_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots L_{1}^{-1}(A|\mathbf{b})}_{L^{-1}} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} \cdots u_{1n} & c_{1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{nn} & c_{n} \end{pmatrix} = (U|\mathbf{c}).$$
where *L* is unit lower triangular:
$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ l_{n1} & \cdots & l_{n(n-1)} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ l_{n1} & \cdots & l_{n(n-1)} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

LU-decomposition A = LU

We thus have $L^{-1}A = U$, and $L^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}$. Multiplication by L yields the famous *LU*-decomposition:

$$A = LU$$
, $\mathbf{b} = L\mathbf{c}$.

Here L is lower triangular, and U is upper triangular. Once, we have decomposed A, we can, for given **b** compute **x** as follows:

solve $L\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$ "forward substitution" solve $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ "backward substitution"

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3.11 Solving systems of linear equations

Then $A\mathbf{x} = LU\mathbf{x} = L\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$.



- We recognise three nested loops, and thus, the cost of this algorithm is proportional to n^3 .
- After that, we have to perform backward substitution to compute \mathbf{x} from \mathbf{c} .
- If **b** is only known after the decomposition, we can compute **c** by forward substitution.
- In computer libraries A is overwritten by L and U. The upper triangular part is used to store U, the lower triangular part is used to store L:



This is called <u>in place factorisation</u>. It is possible, since we know anyway that U is zero below the diagonal, L is zero above the diagonal, and $l_{ii} = 1$. We may call this storage matrix $L \setminus U$.

compute $\mathbf{x} = U^{-1}\mathbf{c}$ as usual.

The bug:

- What, if u_{ij} is zero at some stage of the computation? Then we have division by 0.
- Also, on the computer, if u_{jj} is very small, say 10^{-14} , then due to round-off error, problems may also occur.

Remark: Gaussian elimination or LU-decomposition?
For solving a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ you have now two options:
(a) Gaussian elimination of $(A \mathbf{b})$ without memorising the row operations.
(b) LU -decomposition of A with memorising the row operations in the matrix L .

If you are just interested in the solution(s) of a given LES, then you will just do the Gaussian elimination step by step until you reach the upper triangle form (or the row echelon form, see next section).

Example 3.52. Let us a look at a higher dimensional and non-square example:

$$\begin{cases}
E_1: & x_1 + 2x_2 + x_4 = 3 \\
E_2: & 4x_1 + 8x_2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 + 4x_5 = 14 \\
E_3: & 2x_3 + 3x_4 + 12x_5 = 10 \\
E_4: & -3x_1 - 6x_2 - 6x_3 + 8x_4 + 4x_5 = 4
\end{cases}$$
(3.7)

You should immediately rewrite this in an augmented matrix form:

$$(A|\mathbf{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} E_{1:} \\ E_{2:} \\ E_{3:} \\ E_{4:} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 3 \\ 4 & 8 & 2 & 3 & 4 & | & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 12 & | & 10 \\ -3 & -6 & -6 & 8 & 4 & | & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

The entry in grey 1 is first one we have to consider. All entries below should get zero after the first elimination.

• multiply $\frac{4}{1} = 4$ to E_1 and subtract the result from E_2 ,

• multiply
$$\frac{-3}{1} = (-3)$$
 to E_1 and subtract the result from E_4 .

$$E_{1:} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 8 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 12 & 10 \\ E_{4:} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & -6 & -6 & 8 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \cdot E_{1} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 12 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & -6 & 11 & 4 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$$

The next number on the diagonal is a zero and it seems like that our algorithm has to stop here. However, since below there are also zeros, the column is already eliminated. We can just ignore the variable x_2 at this point and just restart the algorithm with starting point **2**.

Just subtract the equation E'_2 with the right factor from the other rows: $\frac{2}{2} = 1$ times from E'_3 and $\frac{-6}{2} = (-3)$ times from E'_4 . We get:

Next variable is x_4 . Now we consider 4. Multiply E''_3 with $\frac{8}{4} = 2$ and subtract from equation E''_4 :

Now, we cannot use any rows for elimination and we are finished. We get the following

result:



This is not a triangle matrix like in Example 3.42 but an upper triangle matrix by definition since below the diagonal, there are just zeros. This form is called the row echelon form and defined below.

3.11.4 Row echelon form

Definition 3.53. Row echelon form, pivot element

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ in the form of the left-hand side of (3.8) is called <u>row echelon form</u>. This means that the matrix A fulfils:

- all zero rows, if any, are at the bottom of the matrix,
- for each row: the first nonzero number from the left is always strictly to the right of the first nonzero coefficient from the row above it.

This leading nonzero number in each row is called the pivot.

In the row echelon form we can put the variable into two groups:

Definition 3.54. Free and leading variables

Variables in the column of a pivot are called <u>leading variables</u>. The other variables are called free variables.

Example 3.55. Looking at equation (3.8) again, we can distinguish the variables

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5			
$G_1''':$	1	2	0	1	0	3		
$G_2''':$	0	0	2	-1	4	2		(9
$G_3'''':$	0	0	0	4	8	8		()
$G_4^{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}$:	0	0	0	0	0	3/		

In this example x_1 , x_3 and x_4 are the leading variables and x_2 and x_5 are free.

- Free variables can be chosen independently in \mathbb{R} .
- The leading variables are chosen dependently of the free variables.



and $\dim(\operatorname{Ker}(A))$ is the number of free variables.

Proof. Obviously, the columns with pivots are linearly independent vectors where the columns with free variables are a linear combination of the other ones.

In the next section, we will generalise what we did in the example before.

3.11.5 Gaussian elimination with pivoting and PA = LKdecomposition

Now we consider the general case of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with non-square $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. Here the role of the upper triangular U is played by a matrix K in row echelon form, see Definition 3.53.

Need : Picoj

Remark: Pivot search

In other words: If the next entry that we want to choose as a pivot is zero, we just search the rest of the column below for a non-zero entry and switch the rows.

Example 3.58. Invertible matrix (with pivoting):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (P_{2\leftrightarrow3})^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} (P_{2\leftrightarrow3})^2 \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= P_{2\leftrightarrow3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Or if one uses the storage-saving notation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(P_{2\leftrightarrow3})}{\sim} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 3.59. Invertible matrix (with hindsight and pivoting)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{P_{2 \leftrightarrow 3}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 4 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$- \text{ Doesn't matter when the row exchange happens}$$

$$- \text{ Unst remember which ones in which order: } P$$

$$A \times = b \longrightarrow PA \times = Pb \longrightarrow LU \times = Pb$$

Gaussian elimination with pivoting $(A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n})$

$$\begin{split} K &= A, \ L = \mathbb{1}_m, \ \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}, \ r = 1, \ P_{row} = \mathbb{1}_m \\ for \ j = 1 \dots n & (\text{loop over columns}) \\ perform pivot search for the first non-zero element of K at or below k_{rj} \\ if \ i_{pivot} \ was found, \ exchange \ row \ r \ and \ row \ i_{pivot} \ of \ L \setminus K, \ \mathbf{c}, \ and \ P_{row} \\ for \ i = r \dots m & (\text{loop over rows}) \\ l_{ir} = \frac{k_{ij}}{k_{rj}} \\ k_{ij} = 0 \\ for \ s = r + 1 \dots m \\ k_{is} = k_{is} - l_{ir}k_{rs} \\ c_r = c_r - l_{ir}c_r \\ r = r + 1 & \text{consider the next row} \end{split}$$

Example 3.60. non-square matrix (no pivoting needed here)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We observe that $\operatorname{rank}(A) = 2$.

Example 3.61. Modified Example: with pivoting

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= P_{2\leftrightarrow 3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The result of pen-and-paper pivoting

Although this exchange of rows happens during the course of elimination, the outcome of the resulting algorithm for matrices A can be written as

$$P_{row}A = LK_s$$

where in P_{row} all the performed permutations, and K is in row echelon form. Hence, for a right hand side **b** we may solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ as follows:

$$\mathbf{w} = P_{row}\mathbf{b} \qquad (\text{row permutations})$$
$$L\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{w} \qquad (\text{forward substitution})$$
$$K\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c} \qquad (\text{backward substitution})$$

Then $P_{row}A\mathbf{x} = LK\mathbf{x} = L\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{w} = P_{row}\mathbf{b}$. Usually, P_{row} is not stored as a matrix, but rather as a vector \mathbf{p} of indices: $w_i = b_{p_i}$.

Example 3.62. We look at the example:

As always:

$$(A|\mathbf{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} E_1:\\ E_2:\\ E_3:\\ E_4: \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{12} & \mathbf{10} \\ 4 & \mathbf{8} & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{14} \\ 1 & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{3} \\ -\mathbf{3} & -\mathbf{6} & -\mathbf{6} & \mathbf{8} & \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}$$

/

We need a row exchange.

Let us exchange E_1 with E_3 :

Now, there is a gray 1 that we will use for the subtraction:

Subtract ⁴/₁ = 4 times E'₁ from E'₂,
subtract ⁻³/₁ = (-3) times E'₁ from E'₄.

Here the solution:

Also, x_2 remains only in row 1. Hence, we do not have to do anything with x_2 . We can go to x_3 .

There the gray 2 in E_2'' is the next pivot. Subtract E_2'' with the right multiple $(\frac{2}{2} = 1)$ from E_3'' . Also subtract $\frac{-6}{2} = (-3)$ times E_2'' from E_4'' . We get:

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5		•	
$E_1'':$	1	2	0	1	0	$ 3 \rangle$	I	
$E_{2}'':$	0	0	2	-1	4	2		
$E_3^{\prime\prime}$:	0	0	2	3	12	10	$-1 \cdot E_2^{\prime\prime}$	0,
E_4'' :	0	0	-6	11	4	10/	$+3 \cdot E_{2}^{\prime \prime}$	

Look at x_4 . Here, 4 is the pivot. We subtract $E_3''' = 2$ times from E_4''' :

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5			
$G_1''':$	1	2	0	1	0	3 \	8	
G_2''' :	0	0	2	-1	4	2	8	
$G_{3}''':$	0	0	0	4	8	8		. 4
$G_4^{\prime\prime\prime}$:	0	0	0	8	16	16 /	$-2 \cdot G_{3}'''$	

The elimination algorithm ends. This is the wanted solution in row echelon form

$$E_{1}^{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}: \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} & x_{2} & x_{3} & x_{4} & x_{5} \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ E_{3}^{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}: & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ E_{4}^{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime}: & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 8 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(3.13)

Can you write down the set of all solutions S?

3.12 Looking at columns and maps

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 \\ | \end{pmatrix} + \dots + x_n \begin{pmatrix} | \\ \mathbf{a}_n \\ | \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\operatorname{Ran}(A) = \{A\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\} = \{x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \ldots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n : x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m.$ (3.14)

Corollary 3.63. Solvability in the column picture

For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ the following claims are equivalent

(i) $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution,

(*ii*)
$$\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)$$
,

(iii) \mathbf{b} can be written as a linear combination of the columns from A.



 $\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{Ran}(A) \Rightarrow A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution $\mathbf{c} \notin \operatorname{Ran}(A) \Rightarrow A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ has <u>no</u> solution

Example 3.64. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution if and only if

$$\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)$$

This means that $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ lies on the line through $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Remember that for each matrix A there is a linear map $f_A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, cf. section 3.3, defined by

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \stackrel{f_A}{\mapsto} A\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

 $f_A(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{ f_A(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \} = \{ A\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \} = \operatorname{Ran}(A).$

Hence, we find the following:

Proposition 3.65. Unconditional solvability needs surjectivity of f_A)

- For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ the following claims are equivalent:
 - (i) The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ at least one solution \mathbf{x} .
- (*ii*) $All \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ lie in $\operatorname{Ran}(A)$.
- (*iii*) $\operatorname{Ran}(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$.
- $(iv) \operatorname{rank}(A) = m \le n.$
- (v) The row echelon form of A, denoted by A', has a pivot in every row.
- (vi) f_A is surjective.



Example 3.66. Consider a 3×5 matrix A and calculate the row echelon form A':

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 & -2 & 3 \\ -3 & 0 & -4 & -3 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \cdots \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad A' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 6 & -2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Each row of A' has a pivot and (v) from Proposition 3.65 holds. One immediately sees $rank(A) = 3 = m \le n = 5$.

(i) says that the LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has for every right-hand sides $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ at least one solution.

Now we go to the uniqueness



Example 3.68. Consider a 4×3 matrix A and calculate the row echelon form A':

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 \\ -4 & -5 & -3 \\ 4 & 7 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \cdots \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad A' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Each column in A' has a pivot. One also sees: $rank(A) = 3 = n \le m = 4$.

The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has exactly the solution $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}$ for $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\2\\-4\\4 \end{pmatrix}$; but for $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix}$ there is no solution \mathbf{x} .

Both things together:

Proposition 3.69. Existence and Uniqueness of a solution For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ the following claims are equivalent: (i) The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ a unique solution. (*ii*) Ker(A) = $\{\mathbf{o}\}$ and Ran(A) = \mathbb{R}^m . (iii) $\operatorname{rank}(A) = m = n$, i.e. A is quadratic with maximal rank. (iv) f_A is bijective. nRow echelon form A' of A: • Each column and row has a pivot. 0 • The matrix has to be quadratic. m0 0 • We have $\operatorname{rank}(A) = m = n$. 0 • The row echelon form A' has triangle form. 0 0 Proposition 3.70. m=n: square matrices For a quadratic $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ the following claims are equivalent: (i) The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. (ii) The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has for some $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ a unique solution. (iii) The LES $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. (iv) Ker $(A) = \{\mathbf{o}\}$ (v) $\operatorname{Ran}(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$. (vi) $\operatorname{rank}(A) = n$. (vii) For A, the row echelon form A' has a pivot in each row. (viii) For A, the row echelon form A' has a pivot in each column. (ix) f_A is surjective.

- (x) f_A is injective.
- (xi) f_A is bijective.

Box 3.71. Fredholm alternative

For square matrices, we have either both claims below or neither of them:

- unconditional solvability (f_A ist surjective),
- unique solutions (Ker(A) = {**o**}, hence f_A is injective)

Summary

- By $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we denote number tables with *m* rows and *n* columns.
- We call these number tables *matrices* and can naturally scale them and add them Both operations in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ are realised by doing these inside the components.
- *Linear equations* look like

 $constant \cdot x_1 + constant \cdot x_2 + \cdots + constant \cdot x_n = constant.$

- Systems of linear equations (LES) are finitely many of these linear equations.
- A *solution* of the system is a choice of all unknowns x_1, \ldots, x_n such that all equations are satisfied.
- A short notation for LES is the matrix notation: $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.
- This notation leads us to the general *matrix product*.
- Each matrix A induces a *linear map* $f_A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. A linear map satisfies two properties (\cdot) and (+).
- If f_A is bijective, the corresponding matrix is *invertible* with respect to the matrix product.
- *Linearly independent vectors* are the most efficient method to describe a linear subspace.
- A linearly independent family that generates the whole subspace U is called a *basis* of U.
- Range, rank and kernel are important objects for matrices.
- For solving a LES, we use *Gaussian elimination* or equivalently LU-decomposition. In the general case the upper diagonal matrix U is substituted by a *row echelon* form.
- Solvability and unique solvability can be equivalently formulated and, for example, read from the row echelon form.