1.5 Elementary Matrices

Elementary Matrices

If we start with the identity matrix *I* and then perform exactly one elementary row operation, the resulting matrix is called an *elementary* matrix.

There are three types of elementary matrices corresponding to the three types of elementary row operations.

Type I An elementary matrix of type I is a matrix obtained by interchanging two rows of *I*.

EXAMPLE I The matrix

$$E_1 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

is an elementary matrix of type I since it was obtained by interchanging the first two rows of I. If A is a 3×3 matrix, then

$$E_{1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AE_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{31} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Type II An elementary matrix of type II is a matrix obtained by multiplying a row of *I* by a nonzero constant.

EXAMPLE 2

$$E_2 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

is an elementary matrix of type II. If A is a 3×3 matrix, then

$$E_{2}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 3a_{31} & 3a_{32} & 3a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AE_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 3a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 3a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 3a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Type III An elementary matrix of type III is a matrix obtained from *I* by adding a multiple of one row to another row.

EXAMPLE 3

$$E_3 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

is an elementary matrix of type III. If A is a 3×3 matrix, then

$$E_{3}A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + 3a_{31} & a_{12} + 3a_{32} & a_{13} + 3a_{33} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AE_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 3a_{11} + a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 3a_{21} + a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 3a_{31} + a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

1. Which of the matrices that follow are elementary matrices? Classify each elementary matrix by type.

(a)
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \textbf{(b)} & \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (d)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 1.5.1 If E is an elementary matrix, then E is nonsingular and E^{-1} is an elementary matrix of the same type.

EXERCISES

2. Find the inverse of each matrix in Exercise 1. For each elementary matrix, verify that its inverse is an elementary matrix of the same type.

Definition

A matrix B is **row equivalent** to a matrix A if there exists a finite sequence E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_k of elementary matrices such that

$$B = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1 A$$

The following properties of row equivalent matrices are easily established.

- **I.** If A is row equivalent to B, then B is row equivalent to A.
- II. If A is row equivalent to B, and B is row equivalent to C, then A is row equivalent to C.

Proof

5. Let

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

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

- (a) Find an elementary matrix E such that EA = B.
- (b) Find an elementary matrix F such that FB = C.

STUDEN(s)HUS. Gorow equivalent to A? Explain.

Theorem 1.5.2 Equivalent Conditions for Nonsingularity

Let A be an $n \times n$ *matrix. The following are equivalent:*

- (a) A is nonsingular.
- (b) $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution $\mathbf{0}$.
- (c) A is row equivalent to I.

Proof

Corollary 1.5.3 The system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ of n linear equations in n unknowns has a unique solution if and only if A is nonsingular.

Proof

(€) Let A be non singular.

 $Ax = b \Rightarrow A'Ax = A'b \Rightarrow x = A'b$

(=) Assume that Ax = b has a unique solution $X = X_1$.

and assume that A is singular.

=> Ax=0 has a non-tero solution x=x2.

Let $y = n_1 + n_2$, then $Ay = A(n_1 + n_2) = An_1 + An_2$

= b + 0 = b

This is a Contradiction

Hena A 15 non-singular

16. Let A be a 3×3 matrix and suppose that

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = 3\mathbf{a}_2 - 2\mathbf{a}_3$$

Will the system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ have a nontrivial solution? Is A nonsingular? Explain your answers. No, by the

$$a_1 - 3 a_2 + 2 a_3 = 0 \implies (x_1, x_2, x_3) = (1, -3, 2)$$
 is a solution.

If \underline{A} is nonsingular then \underline{A} is row equivalent to \underline{I} and hence there exist elementary matrices E_1, \ldots, E_k such that

$$E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1 A = I$$

Multiplying both sides of this equation on the right by A^{-1} , we obtain

$$E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1 I = A^{-1}$$

Thus the same series of elementary row operations that transforms a nonsingular matrix A into I will transform I into A^{-1} . This gives us a method for computing A^{-1} .

EXAMPLE 4 Compute A^{-1} if

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

Solution

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
2 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\xrightarrow{R_2 + R_1}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & -6 & -3 & -2 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$

Thus

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Solve the system

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ \chi_2 \\ \chi_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1? \\ -1? \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 12 \\ -12 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 4x_2 + 3x_3 = 12 \\ -x_1 - 2x_2 = -12 \\ 2x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Ax = b $\Rightarrow x = \overline{A}b$

Solution

The coefficient matrix of this system is the matrix A of the last example. The solution of the system is then

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ -12 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \\ -\frac{8}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

9. Let

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

(a) Verify that

$$A^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{rrr} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

AA = Ior AA' = I

(b) Use A^{-1} to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ for the following choices of \mathbf{b} .

$$x = A^{-1}b$$

(i)
$$\mathbf{b} = (1, 1, 1)^T$$

(ii)
$$\mathbf{b} = (1, 2, 3)^T$$

Diagonal and Triangular Matrices

An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be upper triangular if $a_{ij} = 0$ for i > j and lower triangular if $a_{ij} = 0$ for i < j. Also, A is said to be triangular if it is either upper triangular or lower triangular. For example, the 3×3 matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 5
\end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
6 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 4 & 3
\end{bmatrix}$$

are both triangular. The first is upper triangular and the second is lower triangular.

A triangular matrix may have 0's on the diagonal. However, for a linear system

 $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ to be in strict triangular form, the coefficient matrix A must be upper triangular with nonzero diagonal entries.

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An $n \times n$ matrix A is <u>diagonal</u> if $a_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$. The matrices

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

are all diagonal. A diagonal matrix is both upper triangular and lower triangular.

Triangular Factorization

If an $n \times n$ matrix A can be reduced to strict upper triangular form using only row operation III, then it is possible to represent the reduction process in terms of a matrix factorization. We illustrate how this is done in the next example.

EXAMPLE 6 Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 \\ \frac{1}{4} & 5 & 2 \\ \frac{1}{4} & -1 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{ } \boxed{ } \boxed{ } \boxed{ } \boxed{ }$$

and let us use only row operation III to carry out the reduction process. At the first step, we subtract $\frac{1}{2}$ times the first row from the second and then we subtract twice the first row from the third.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
R_2 & \xrightarrow{\downarrow} R_1 \\
R_3 & \xrightarrow{\downarrow} R_1
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 4 & 2 \\
1 & 5 & 2 \\
4 & -1 & 9
\end{bmatrix}$$

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

To keep track of the multiples of the first row that were subtracted, we set $l_{21} = \frac{1}{2}$ and $l_{31} = 2$. We complete the elimination process by eliminating the -9 in the (3,2) position.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 4 & 2 \\
0 & 3 & 1 \\
0 & -9 & 5
\end{bmatrix}
\rightarrow
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0 & 3 & 1 \\
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Let $l_{32} = -3$, the multiple of the second row subtracted from the third row. If we call the resulting matrix U and set

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

To see why the factorization in Example 6 works, let us view the reduction process in terms of elementary matrices. The three row operations that were applied to the matrix A can be represented in terms of multiplications by elementary matrices

correspond to the row operations in the reduction process. Since each of the elementary matrices is nonsingular, we can multiply equation (3) by their inverses.

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} U$$

[We multiply in reverse order because $(E_3E_2E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}E_3^{-1}$.] However, when the inverses are multiplied in this order, the multipliers l_{21} , l_{31} , l_{32} fill in below the diagonal in the product:

$$E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}E_3^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = L$$
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6. Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

(a) Find elementary matrices E_1 , E_2 , E_3 such that

$$E_3E_2E_1A=U$$

where U is an upper triangular matrix.

(b) Determine the inverses of E_1 , E_2 , E_3 and set $L = E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}E_3^{-1}$. What type of matrix is L? Verify that A = LU.

Example

Show that the following matrix cannot be factored directly as A = LU:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 4 & 8 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$