

PDEs & RREFs

7

2.1. Clairaut's Theorem

Let $f(x, y)$ be a function whose second partials $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$ exist in an open set containing $\vec{0}$.

Is there a difference between

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = f_{yx} \quad \& \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = f_{xy} ?$$

By definition $f_x(x, y) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x, y) - f(x, y)}{\Delta x}$, so

$$\begin{aligned} f_{xy}(0, 0) &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left(\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\Delta x, \Delta y) - f(0, \Delta y)}{\Delta x} \right) - \left(\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\Delta x, 0) - f(0, 0)}{\Delta x} \right)}{\Delta y} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\Delta x, \Delta y) - f(0, \Delta y) - f(\Delta x, 0) + f(0, 0)}{(\Delta x)(\Delta y)} \end{aligned}$$

which is symmetric in x & y **EXCEPT** for the order of the limits.

Can we switch the order?

PROBLEM Compute $f_x(0, y)$ & $f_y(x, 0)$, then $f_{xy}(0, 0)$ & $f_{yx}(0, 0)$, for the function

$$f(x, y) := \begin{cases} \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0). \end{cases}$$

As you have just seen, we cannot necessarily swap the limits: $f_{yx}(0, 0) = 1$ but $f_{xy}(0, 0) = -1$. And the function is continuous, with continuous f_x & f_y , hence differentiable, so seems "nice". What is going on?!

Theorem: Assume f_{xy} & f_{yx} are continuous in a neighborhood of $(a,0)$. Then $f_{xy}(\vec{0}) = f_{yx}(\vec{0})$.

Can we switch the order?

PROBLEM Compute $f_x(\vec{0})$ & $f_y(\vec{x})$, then $f_{xy}(\vec{0})$ & $f_{yx}(\vec{0})$, for the function

$$f\left(\begin{matrix} x \\ y \end{matrix}\right) := \begin{cases} \frac{xy(x^2-y^2)}{x^2+y^2}, & \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ 0, & \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{cases}$$

As you have just seen, we cannot necessarily swap the limits: $f_{yx}(\vec{0}) = 1$ but $f_{xy}(\vec{0}) = -1$. And the function is continuous, with continuous f_x & f_y , hence differentiable, so seems "nice".

What is going on?!

Well, the full

$$f_{xy}\left(\begin{matrix} x \\ y \end{matrix}\right) = \frac{x^6 + 9x^4y^2 - 9x^2y^4 + 15y^6}{(x^2+y^2)^3}$$

is NOT continuous at $\vec{0}$ (consider horizontal + vertical limits), so maybe f isn't "nice" enough.

Theorem: Assume f_{xy} & f_{yx} are continuous in a neighborhood of $(a, 0)$. Then $f_{xy}(0) = f_{yx}(0)$.

Proof: Write $\Delta(h) := f(h) - f(0) - f'(0)h + f'(0)h$, and $g(x) := f(x) - f(0)$. By the MVT,

$$(*) \frac{\Delta(h)}{h} = \frac{g(h) - g(0)}{h} = g'(a) = f'_x(a) - f'_x(0)$$

for some $a \in [0, h]$. Setting $G(y) := f'_x(y)$,

$$\frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} \stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{G(h) - G(0)}{h} \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} G'(b) = f_{xy}(b)$$

for some $b \in [0, h]$, and

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = \lim_{\substack{(a) \rightarrow (0) \\ (b) \rightarrow (0)}} f_{xy}(a) = f_{xy}(0)$$

by continuity of f_{xy} . An exactly symmetric argument (in x & y) gives

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = f_{yx}(0). \quad \text{So } f_{xy}(0) = f_{yx}(0).$$

□

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$$(*) \frac{\Delta(h)}{h} = \frac{g(h) - g(0)}{h} = g'(a) = f_x'(h) - f_x'(0)$$

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$$\frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} \stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{G(h) - G(0)}{h} \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} G'(b) = f_{xy}(b)$$

for some $b \in [0, h]$, and

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = \lim_{(b) \rightarrow (0)} f_{xy}(b) = f_{xy}(0)$$

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$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = f_{yx}(0). \text{ So } f_{xy}(0) = f_{yx}(0).$$

□

2. PDEs (Partial Differential Equations)

These are used to model physical situations a lot. I'll only give a brief taste here. All functions are assumed C^2 so that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$.

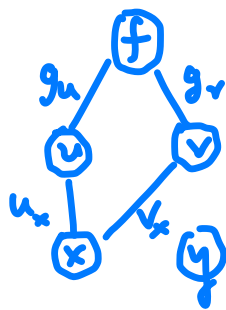
$$(1) \quad \underline{af_x + bf_y = 0} \quad (a, b \text{ real #'s})$$

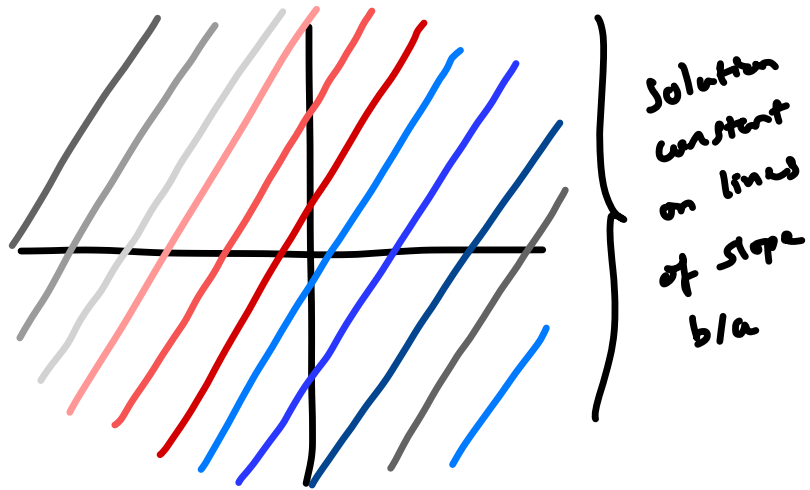
Change coords. to $\begin{cases} u = bx - ay \\ v = ax + by \end{cases}$

Writing $f(x, y) = g(u, v)$ and applying the chain rule, the equation becomes

$$0 = a(g_u u_x + g_v v_x) + b(g_u u_y + g_v v_y)$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{f_x}$





2. PDEs (Partial Differential Equations)

These are used to model physical situations a lot. I'll only give a brief taste here. All functions are assumed C^2 so that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$.

① $a f_x + b f_y = 0$ (a, b real #'s)

Change coords. to $\begin{cases} u = bx - ay \\ v = ax + by \end{cases}$

Writing $f\left(\begin{smallmatrix} x \\ y \end{smallmatrix}\right) = g\left(\begin{smallmatrix} u(x,y) \\ v(x,y) \end{smallmatrix}\right)$ and applying the chain rule, the equation becomes

$$0 = a \left(g_u \underset{b}{\parallel} u_x + g_v \underset{a}{\parallel} v_x \right) + b \left(g_u \underset{-a}{\parallel} u_y + g_v \underset{b}{\parallel} v_y \right)$$

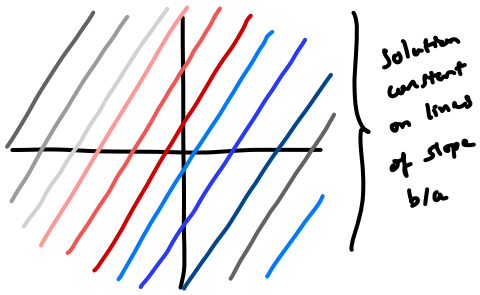
$$= (\cancel{ab} - ba) g_u + (a^2 + b^2) g_v$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = g_v \Rightarrow g \text{ constant in } v$$

$$\Rightarrow g\left(\begin{smallmatrix} u \\ v \end{smallmatrix}\right) = G(u).$$

$$\Rightarrow f\left(\begin{smallmatrix} x \\ y \end{smallmatrix}\right) = G(u(x,y)) = G(bx - ay),$$


for some function G .



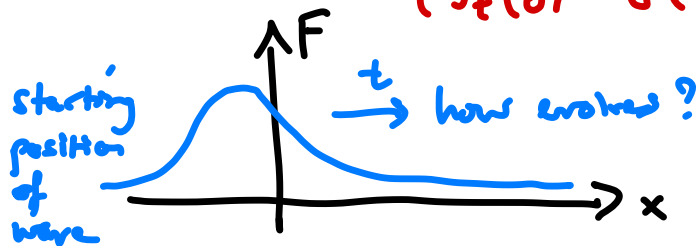
① $au_x + bu_t = 0$ $\Rightarrow u\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \varphi(bx - at)$

In the next example, f is a function of x (position) and t (time).

② $f_{tt} = c^2 f_{xx}$ (WAVE EQUATION)

Intuition:  (fun) concavity of a string induces upward force hence acceleration (f_{xx})

w/ initial conditions $\begin{cases} f(x, 0) := F(x) & \text{starting position} \\ f_t(x, 0) := G(x) & \text{starting velocity} \end{cases}$



Rewrite as

$$0 = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - c^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\right) f = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f$$

$$\Rightarrow u\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \varphi(x + ct) \text{ for some } \varphi.$$

①

Let $v\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) := \frac{1}{2c} \Phi(x + ct)$, where Φ is any antiderivative of φ . Then

$$\begin{cases} v_x = \frac{1}{2c} \Phi'(x + ct) = \frac{1}{2c} \varphi(x + ct) = \frac{u}{2c} \\ v_t = \frac{1}{2c} c \Phi'(x + ct) = \frac{1}{2} \varphi(x + ct) = \frac{u}{2} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) v = u \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) (f - v) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f - v = \Psi(x - ct) \text{ for some } \Psi$$

①


$$\Rightarrow f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{2c} \Phi(x + ct) + \Psi(x - ct) \quad (*)$$

For instance, if $F(x) = \cos(kx)$ (and $G=0$),
 then $f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \{ \cos(k(x+ct)) + \cos(k(x-ct)) \}$

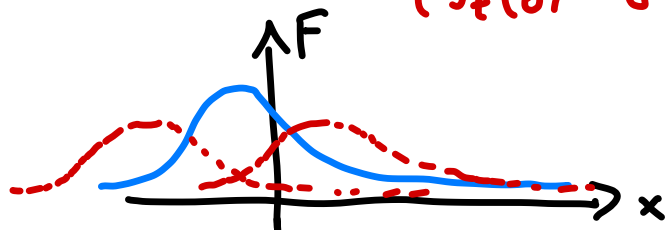
$$= \underbrace{\cos(kx)}_{\text{original } F(x)} \underbrace{\cos(kct)}_{\text{oscillates (faster for shorter waves)}}$$

In the next example, f is a function of x (position) and t (time).

(2) $f_{tt} = c^2 f_{xx}$ (WAVE EQUATION)

Intuition:  (fun) concavity of a string induces upward force hence acceleration (f_{xx})

w/ initial conditions $\begin{cases} f(x, 0) := F(x) & \text{starting position} \\ f_t(x, 0) := G(x) & \text{starting velocity} \end{cases}$ **Assume**



initial wave "spreads out" to left+right at speed c

Rewrite as $0 = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - c^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\right) f = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f =: u\left(\frac{x}{t}\right)$

$\Rightarrow u\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \varphi(x+ct)$ for some φ .

Let $v\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) := \frac{1}{2c} \Phi(x+ct)$, where Φ is any antiderivative of φ . Then

$$\begin{cases} v_x = \frac{1}{2c} \Phi'(x+ct) = \frac{1}{2c} \varphi(x+ct) = \frac{u}{2c} \\ v_t = \frac{1}{2c} c \Phi'(x+ct) = \frac{1}{2} \varphi(x+ct) = \frac{u}{2} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) v = u \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + c \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) (f-v) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow f-v = \Psi(x-ct)$ for some Ψ

(1) $f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{2c} \Phi(x+ct) + \Psi(x-ct)$ (*)

Initial conditions give

$$\begin{cases} F(x) = f(x, 0) = \frac{1}{2c} \Phi(x) + \Psi(x) \\ 0 = f_t(x, 0) = \frac{1}{2} \Phi'(x) - c \Psi'(x) \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{solve}$$

$$\Phi = cF \text{ and } \Psi = \frac{1}{2}F \Rightarrow$$

$$f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \{ F(x+ct) + F(x-ct) \}$$

For instance, if $F(x) = \cos(kx)$ (and $G=0$),

$$\text{then } f\left(\frac{x}{t}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \{ \cos(k(x+ct)) + \cos(k(x-ct)) \}$$

$$= \underbrace{\cos(kx)}_{\text{original } F(x)} \underbrace{\cos(kct)}_{\text{oscillates}}$$

(faster for shorter waves)

We can generalize the wave equation to 2 space dimensions ($f = f\left(\frac{\vec{y}}{t}\right)$):

$$\textcircled{2'} \quad \underline{f_{tt} = c^2 (f_{xx} + f_{yy})} \quad (*)$$

You will prove in the HW that in polar coordinates,

$$\underline{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}} \text{ becomes } \underline{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2}}$$

So if f depends only on $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ & t ,

$$f_{xx} + f_{yy} = f_{rr} + \frac{1}{r} f_r$$

If f factors as a product $F(r) G(t)$,

(*) becomes

$$F G'' = c^2 \left(F'' + \frac{1}{r} F' \right) G$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{G''}{G} = c^2 \frac{F'' + \frac{1}{r} F'}{F}$$

constant in r

&

constant in t

\Rightarrow

constant $=: \alpha$

$$\Rightarrow G'' = \alpha G, \quad F'' + \frac{1}{r} F' + F = 0$$

say $\alpha = -c^2$

\downarrow

\downarrow

$G = \text{Sin + Cos type function}$

$F = \text{Bessel function}$

What happens when you throw a stone in a pond

On the other hand, what if I

went no oscillation — a solution

constant in time? You need to solve

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \underline{0 = F_{xx} + F_{yy}} \quad (\text{Laplace's equation})$$

and take $f\left(\frac{\vec{y}}{t}\right) = F\left(\frac{\vec{y}}{t}\right)$. Solutions to

$\textcircled{3}$ are called harmonic functions.

§ 3. Linear systems

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix,
 $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ a vector. How to solve

$$A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

for $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$? Write it out

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{cases}$$

as a system of m linear equations in
 n variables, and perform "Gaussian
elimination", otherwise known as row-reduction.

Elementary Row Operations (EROs)

- Ⓐ REPLACE an equation/row by {itself + multiples of other equations/rows}
- Ⓑ SWAP two equations/rows
- Ⓒ SCALE an equation/row (i.e., multiply it by a nonzero constant)

produces a new "row-equivalent" system of equations whose solution set certainly includes all the old solutions. In fact, since Ⓐ-Ⓒ are reversible, the new solution set is the same:

Row-equivalent systems are equivalent.

Example: find the solution set in \mathbb{R}^3 of

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (R_1) \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 9 \\ (R_2) \quad 2x_1 + 4x_2 - 3x_3 = 1 \\ (R_3) \quad 3x_1 + 6x_2 - 5x_3 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{write} \\ \text{shorthand} \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

eliminate x_1 in R_2, R_3 ↓ $R_2 \mapsto R_2 - 2R_1$
 $R_3 \mapsto R_3 - 3R_1$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (R_1) \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 9 \\ (R_2) \quad 2x_2 - 5x_3 = -17 \\ (R_3) \quad 3x_2 - 8x_3 = -27 \end{array} \right\} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -5 & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & -8 & -27 \end{array} \right]$$

eliminate x_2 in R_3 ↓ $R_3 \mapsto R_3 - \frac{3}{2}R_2$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (R_1) \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 9 \\ (R_2) \quad 2x_2 - 5x_3 = -17 \\ (R_3) \quad -\frac{1}{2}x_3 = -\frac{3}{2} \end{array} \right\} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -5 & -17 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

So $\underline{x_3 = 3}$, and back-substituting in (R_2) gives $2x_2 - 15 = -17 \Rightarrow \underline{x_2 = -1}$, whereupon substituting in (R_1) gives $x_1 - 1 + 3 = 9 \Rightarrow \underline{x_1 = 7}$. You can check that $(7, -1, 3)$ solves the original system.

Why does this work? Applying

Elementary Row Operations (EROs)

- (a) REPLACE an equation/row by {itself + multiples of other equations/rows}
- (b) SWAP two equations/rows
- (c) SCALE an equation/row (i.e., multiply it by a nonzero constant)

produces a new "row-equivalent" system of equations whose solution set certainly includes all the old solutions. In fact, since (a)-(c) are reversible, the new solution set is the same:

Row-equivalent systems are equivalent.

Here's an example that uses all three operations.

Example: find the solution set in \mathbb{R}^4 of

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x_3 - x_4 = -1 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3 + 4x_4 = 2 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 3x_3 + 3x_4 = 3 \\ 3x_1 + 6x_2 + 6x_3 + 3x_4 = 6 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{(b): R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \\ (c) \\ R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R_1}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{(a) \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_1 \\ R_4 \rightarrow R_4 - 3R_1 \\ (a) \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2 \\ R_4 \rightarrow R_4 - 3R_2}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

STOP. The 3rd line corresponds to the equation $0 = 2$, and so the system is inconsistent (no solutions).

2.4. The reduction algorithm

Using the EROs, I now explain how to put any matrix in a particularly nice form:

Reduced Row Echelon Form (RREF)

A matrix A is in RREF if all of the following hold:

(i) the 1st nonzero entry of each row is 1, called a 'leading 1';

(ii) when a column contains a leading 1, all other entries in that column are 0 (this is called a 'pivot column'); and

(iii) when a row contains a leading 1, each row above it contains a leading 1 further to the left.

The weaker notion of "row-echelon form" is obtained by dropping (i) and weakening (ii) (only the entries below a leading nonzero entry must be 0).

Elementary Row Operations (EROs)

- (a) REPLACE an equation/row by {itself + multiples of other equations/rows}
- (b) SWAP two equations/rows
- (c) SCALE an equation/row (i.e., multiply it by a nonzero constant)

Example: If "*" stands for "arbitrary numbers", then $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & * & 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & * & * & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & * & * & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ are (in) RREF,

while (if "o" is "arbitrary NONZERO number"), $\begin{pmatrix} o & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & o & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} o & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & o & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & o & o \end{pmatrix}$ are (in) REF.

Problem: Which are in RREF? Use (or REF)

EROs to put ones which aren't in RREF.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Row-reduction means "some procedure for associating an RREF matrix to a given matrix A via EROs".

$$A \longmapsto \text{rref}(A).$$

Since the procedure simply applies EROs to A , the new matrix is row-equivalent to A .

FACT: There is exactly one RREF matrix row-equivalent to a given matrix A .

(I'll explain why next week.)

CONSEQUENCE: $\text{rref}(A)$ is independent of the procedure used!

Here is one such procedure: I'd suggest using it when you don't immediately see a shortcut.

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

(c) $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(d)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

(e) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(e)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(e)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

||
ref(A)

Row-reduction algorithm

- (a) "cursor" starts at upper left-hand entry of A
- (b) move cursor to the right if the cursor entry & all entries below it are 0; repeat until this is no longer the case
- (c) if cursor entry = 0, swap cursor row with the first row below it having nonzero entry in the cursor column
- (d) divide cursor row by cursor entry
- (e) eliminate all other entries in the cursor column by adding suitable multiples of the cursor row to other rows
- (f) if cursor is at bottom right, STOP. Otherwise, move down and to the right, & go back to (b).

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

(c) $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(d)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

(e) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(e)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(e)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
 \parallel
 $\text{rref}(A)$

Now how do we use this to solve a linear system?

STEP 1 Convert the system to an augmented matrix

$$M = [A \mid \vec{b}]$$

STEP 2 Apply the row-reduction algorithm to compute $\text{rref}(M)$.

STEP 3 Convert back to a linear system and find the types $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$ solving it. More precisely, use the non-pivot — or “free” — variables to parametrize the solutions.

STEP 2

$$\text{rref}(M) = \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

pivot columns: x_1, x_3

free variables: x_2, x_4

STEP 3

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x_1 - 2x_2 - x_4 = -1 \\ x_3 + x_4 = 2 \end{array} \right\}$$

Solve for pivot variables in terms of free ones (which can be freely chosen!)

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = -1 + 2x_2 + x_4 \\ x_3 = 2 - x_4 \end{cases}$$

Finally, write out the general solution vector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + 2x_2 + x_4 \\ x_2 \\ 2 - x_4 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_4 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

this is called standard form.

STEP 1

Convert the system to an augmented matrix

$$M = [A | \vec{b}]$$

STEP 2

Apply the row-reduction algorithm to compute $\text{rref}(M)$.

STEP 3

Convert back to a linear system and find the tuples $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$ solving it. More precisely, use the non-pivot - or "free" - variables to parametrize the solutions.

Example:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 3x_1 - 6x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 = 1 \\ -2x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 + 3x_4 = 4 \\ x_3 + x_4 = 2 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

STEP 1

$$M = \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 3 & -6 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$