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## 7.6 Nonhomogeneous Systems

Now consider the nonhomogeneous linear system of  $n$  equations in  $m$  unknowns:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1m}x_m &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2m}x_m &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nm}x_m &= b_n. \end{aligned}$$

In matrix form,

$$\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B} \tag{7.1}$$

where  $\mathbf{A}$  is the coefficient matrix,

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

The system is *nonhomogeneous* if at least one  $b_j \neq 0$ . Nonhomogeneous systems differ from linear systems in two significant ways.

1. A nonhomogeneous system may have no solution. For example, the system
 
$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - 3x_2 &= 6 \\ 4x_1 - 6x_2 &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

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We call  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$  *consistent* if there is a solution. If there is no solution, the system is *inconsistent*.

2. A linear combination of solutions of a nonhomogeneous system  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$  need not be a solution. Therefore the solutions do not have the vector space structure seen in the homogeneous case.

Nevertheless, solutions of  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$  do have a property that parallels that for solutions of linear second order differential equations. We will call  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{O}$  the *associated homogeneous system* of the nonhomogeneous system  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$ . Although a sum of solutions of the nonhomogeneous system need not be a solution, we claim that the *difference* of any two solutions of the nonhomogeneous system is a solution, not of the system, but of the associated *homogeneous* system. The reason for this is that, if  $\mathbf{AU}_1 = \mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{AU}_2 = \mathbf{B}$ , then

$$\mathbf{A}(U_1 - U_2) = \mathbf{AU}_1 - \mathbf{AU}_2 = \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{O}.$$

This is the key to the fundamental theorem for writing the general solution of  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$ .

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**THEOREM 7.13**

Let  $\mathbf{H}$  be the general solution of the associated homogeneous system. Let  $\mathbf{U}_p$  be any particular solution of  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$ . Then the expression  $\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{U}_p$  contains every solution of the nonhomogeneous system  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$ . ♦

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*Proof* Suppose  $\mathbf{H}_1, \dots, \mathbf{H}_k$  form a basis for the solution space of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{O}$ , where  $k = m -$  number of nonzero rows of  $(\mathbf{A}_R)$ . Then the general solution of the homogeneous system is

$$\mathbf{H} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{H}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k \mathbf{H}_k.$$

If  $\mathbf{U}$  is any solution of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$ , then  $\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{U}_p$  is a solution of the associated homogeneous system, and therefore has the form

$$\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{U}_p = c_1 \mathbf{H}_1 + \dots + c_k \mathbf{H}_k$$

for some constants  $c_1, \dots, c_k$ . But then

$$\mathbf{U} = c_1 \mathbf{H}_1 + \dots + c_k \mathbf{H}_k + \mathbf{U}_p,$$

and this solution is contained in the general expression  $\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{U}_p$ . ♦

As an immediate consequence, Theorem 7.13 tells us when a nonhomogeneous system can have only one solution.

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**COROLLARY 7.6**

A consistent nonhomogeneous system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$  has a unique solution if and only if the associated homogeneous system has only the trivial solution. ♦

The corollary follows from the fact that the nonhomogeneous system has a unique solution exactly when  $\mathbf{H}$  is the zero vector in Theorem 7.13.

Theorem 7.13 suggests a strategy for finding all solutions of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$ , when the system is consistent.

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inverse.

1.  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$
2.  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$
3.  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$
4.  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -7 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$
5.  $\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 2 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$
7.  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -4 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 6 \\ 1 & -1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$
8.  $\begin{pmatrix} 11 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -7 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$
9.  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 4 & 6 & -3 & 9 \\ -2 & 1 & 7 & 4 \\ 13 & 0 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$
10.  $\begin{pmatrix} 7 & -3 & -4 & 1 \\ 8 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 & 7 \\ 3 & -2 & -5 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$

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## 8.5 Cramer's Rule

Cramer's rule is a determinant formula for the unique solution of a nonhomogeneous system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$  when  $\mathbf{A}$  is nonsingular. Of course, this is  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ , but the following method is sometimes convenient.

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**THEOREM 8.5** *Cramer's Rule*

Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be a nonsingular  $n \times n$  matrix of numbers, and  $\mathbf{B}$  be an  $n \times 1$  matrix of numbers. Then the unique solution of  $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$  is determined by

$$x_k = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} |\mathbf{A}(k; \mathbf{B})| \quad (8.7)$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , where  $\mathbf{A}(k; \mathbf{B})$  is the matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{A}$  by replacing column  $k$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  with  $\mathbf{B}$ . ♦

It is easy to see why this works. Let

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Multiply column  $k$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $x_k$ . This multiplies the determinant of  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $x_k$ :

$$x_k |\mathbf{A}| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k}x_k & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k}x_k & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nk}x_k & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}.$$

For each  $j \neq k$  add  $x_j$  times column  $j$  to column  $k$  in the last determinant. Since this operation does not change the value of a determinant, then

does not change the value of a determinant, then

$$\begin{aligned} x_k |\mathbf{A}| &= \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{n1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & b_1 & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & b_2 & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & b_n & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = |\mathbf{A}(k; \mathbf{B})| \end{aligned}$$

and this gives us equation (8.7).

**EXAMPLE 8.7**

Solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 3x_2 - 4x_3 &= 1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 &= 14 \\ x_2 - 3x_3 &= 5. \end{aligned}$$

The matrix of coefficients is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & -4 \\ -1 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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We find that  $|A| = 13$ , so this system has a unique solution. By Cramer's rule,

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{13} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -3 & -4 \\ 14 & 1 & -3 \\ 5 & 1 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{117}{13} = -9,$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{13} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -4 \\ -1 & 14 & -3 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{10}{13},$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{13} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 14 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{25}{13} \diamond$$

**SECTION 8.5 PROBLEMS**

In each of Problems 1 through 10, solve the system using Cramer's rule, or show that the rule does not apply because the matrix of coefficients is singular.

- $15x_1 - 4x_2 = 5$   
 $8x_1 + x_2 = -4$
- $x_1 + 4x_2 = 3$   
 $x_1 + x_2 = 0$
- $8x_1 - 4x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$   
 $x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3 = -5$   
 $-2x_1 + 6x_2 + x_3 = -4$
- $5x_1 - 6x_2 + x_3 = 4$   
 $-x_1 + 3x_2 - 4x_3 = 5$   
 $2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = -8$
- $x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 = 0$   
 $x_2 - 4x_3 = 0$   
 $x_1 - x_2 - x_3 = 5$
- $6x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 - x_5 = 7$   
 $x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 = -5$
- $x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 - 4x_4 = 0$   
 $-2x_1 + x_3 - 2x_5 = 4$   
 $x_3 - x_4 - x_5 = 8$
- $2x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 - x_4 = 6$   
 $x_2 - 3x_3 = 10$   
 $x_1 - 4x_3 = 0$   
 $x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 = 4$

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the matrix of coefficients is singular.

- $15x_1 - 4x_2 = 5$   
 $8x_1 + x_2 = -4$
- $x_1 + 4x_2 = 3$   
 $x_1 + x_2 = 0$
- $8x_1 - 4x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$   
 $x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3 = -5$   
 $-2x_1 + 6x_2 + x_3 = -4$
- $5x_1 - 6x_2 + x_3 = 4$   
 $-x_1 + 3x_2 - 4x_3 = 5$   
 $2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = -8$
- $x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 = 0$   
 $x_2 - 4x_3 = 0$   
 $x_1 - x_2 - x_3 = 5$
- $6x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 - x_5 = 7$   
 $x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 = -5$
- $2x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 - x_4 = 6$   
 $x_2 - 3x_3 = 10$   
 $x_1 - 4x_3 = 0$   
 $x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 = 4$
- $2x_1 - 3x_2 + x_4 = 2$   
 $x_2 - x_3 + x_4 = 2$   
 $x_3 - 2x_4 = 5$   
 $x_1 - 3x_2 + 4x_3 = 0$
- $14x_1 - 3x_3 = 5$   
 $2x_1 - 4x_3 + x_4 = 2$   
 $x_1 - x_2 + x_3 - 3x_4 = 1$   
 $x_3 - 4x_4 = -5$
- $x_2 - 4x_4 = 18$   
 $x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 = -1$   
 $x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 + x_4 = 5$   
 $x_2 + 3x_4 = 0$

**8.6 The Matrix Tree Theorem**

In 1847, G.R. Kirchhoff published a classic paper in which he derived many of the electrical circuit laws that bear his name, including the matrix tree theorem we will now discuss.

Figure 8.1 shows a typical electrical circuit. The underlying geometry of the circuit is shown in Figure 8.2. Such a diagram of points and interconnecting lines is called a *graph*, and was seen in the context of atoms moving through crystals in Section 7.1.3. A *labeled graph* has symbols attached to the points.