$$33 = (9 + \sqrt{9}) \sqrt{9} - \sqrt{9}
= \frac{99}{\sqrt{9}} \times \cdot 9
= \frac{99}{\sqrt{9}} \div \cdot 9
34 = \frac{99}{\sqrt{9}} + \cdot 9
35 = 9 \sqrt{9} + 9 - \cdot 9
36 = 9 \sqrt{9} + \sqrt{9} \times 9
= 9 \sqrt{9} + 9 \times \cdot 9
37 = 9 \sqrt{9} + 9 + 9 \cdot 9
38 = 9 \sqrt{9} + 9 + 9 \cdot 9 \\
38 = 9 \sqrt{9} + 9 + 9 + 9 + 9 \\
(Intractable)
= \frac{99 + 9}{\sqrt{9}}
= \frac{99 + 9}{\sqrt{9}}
= 9 \sqrt{9} + \sqrt{9} \sqrt{9} + \sqrt{9} \sqrt{9} + \sqrt{9} \\
40 = (9 + \cdot 9)(\sqrt{9} + \cdot 9)$$

On the Solubility of Linear Algebraic Equations.--

(a) It is proved in treatises on Algebra that the equations (in three variables for brevity)

$$a_{1}x + b_{1}y + c_{1}z + d_{1} = 0,$$

$$a_{2}x + b_{2}y + c_{2}z + d_{2} = 0,$$

$$a_{3}x + b_{3}y + c_{3}z + d_{3} = 0,$$

(1)

have a unique solution given by

provided the determinant

does not vanish.

(b) It is also proved, from (2), that if the "degenerate" homogeneous system

$$\begin{array}{c} a_{1}x + b_{1}y + c_{1}z = 0, \\ a_{2}x + b_{2}y + c_{2}z = 0, \\ a_{3}x + b_{3}y + c_{3}z = 0, \end{array}$$
(4)

has a non-null solution (i.e. a solution in which the variables are not all zero), then $\Delta = 0$.

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(c) The converse of the latter theorem (viz., that, if $\Delta = 0$, the system (4) has a non-null solution), is true, and frequently required; but it is not so easy to prove as the direct theorem (b), and indeed in many current text-books it is not proved at all.

(d) For we must distinguish between a formal algebraical solution and an arithmetical solution.

Consider, for example, the theorem :

Two homogeneous linear equations in three variables have always at least one non-null solution.

Let the equations be

Here it is not enough to point to the solution

$$(b_1c_2 - b_2c_1, c_1a_2 - c_2a_1, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1),$$

for these values of x, y, z may all vanish.

And in fact it does not seem possible to write down a formal solution which will be non-null whatever the special numerical values of the coefficients may be.

All the same the theorem is both true and important.

(e) The solution of many problems, and the proof of many theorems, in Algebra, Coordinate Geometry, Higher Analysis, and Mathematical Physics can be made to depend on the solution of a system of n non-homogeneous linear algebraic equations in n variables. In special cases special methods may be more instructive, and sometimes easier, but the wide applicability of this method of "undetermined coefficients" makes it an extremely valuable weapon for a student to have in his armoury.

It is of course always necessary to prove that the system of equations is "independent and consistent," or, in other words, that it has a unique solution. To the student familiar with determinants it suggests itself at once that this is equivalent, in accordance with (α) , to proving that the determinant of the equations does not vanish. As a rule, however, a direct proof of the non-evanescence of the determinant is impracticable. But he knows also, or assumes as the converse of the theorem (b), that, if the "degenerate" system has no non-null solution, Δ cannot vanish, this being equivalent

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to (c). He may therefore complete the process by proving the "inconsistency" of the degenerate system, as it is usually easy to do.

(f) Now, apart from the point about the theorem (c) being often left unproved, it is evident that in the above train of thought the determinant is introduced quite adventitiously, and it seems desirable to have a proof which brings the unique solubility of the non-homogeneous system into immediate relationship with the inconsistency of the degenerate system.

The matter given below would make a useful and instructive lesson in algebraic principles for a class who have no acquaintance with determinants.

THEOREM I.

A system of n-1 homogeneous linear equations in n variables has at least one non-null solution.

(i) n = 2. Let the equation be

 $ax + by = 0.\dots(6)$

If b=0, (0, 1) is a non-null solution; if $b \neq 0$, (b, -a) is one.

(ii) n=3. Let the equations be

If c_1 and c_2 are both zero, (0, 0, 1) is a non-null solution.

If not, say $c_1 \neq 0$. The equations are then "equivalent" to

$$\begin{cases} a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = 0, \qquad \dots \dots (9) \\ c_1(a_2x + b_2y + c_3z) - c_2(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z) = 0 \dots \dots (10) \end{cases}$$

(10) is an equation in the two variables x and y which by (i) has at least one non-null solution (X, Y); and, since $c_1 \neq 0$, (9) gives a definite value Z for z when X, Y are put for x, y.

(X, Y, Z) is a non-null solution of (7), (8).

(iii) n = 4. Let the equations be

$$\begin{cases} a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1w = 0, \dots, (11) \\ a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2w = 0, \dots, (12) \\ a_3x + b_3y + c_3z + d_3w = 0, \dots, (13) \end{cases}$$

If d_1 , d_2 and d_3 are all zero, (0, 0, 0, 1) is a non-null solution.

(127)

If not, say $d_1 \neq 0$. The equations are then equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1w = 0, & \dots \dots (14) \\ d_1(a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2w) - d_2(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1w) = 0, \dots \dots (15) \\ d_1(a_3x + b_3y + c_3z + d_3w) - d_3(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1w) = 0, \dots \dots (16) \end{cases}$$

(15), (16) are two equations in the three variables x, y, z which by (ii) have at least one non-null solution (X, Y, Z); and since $d_1 \neq 0$, (14) gives a definite value W for w when X, Y, Z are put for x, y, z.

(X, Y, Z, W) is a non-null solution of (11), (12), (13).

It is obvious that we can proceed step by step in this way indefinitely. Hence the theorem.

Remark.—In (iii), $(\lambda X, \lambda Y, \lambda Z, \lambda W)$ is a non-null solution, where λ is arbitrary. It is not necessarily, however, the most general non-null solution. Similarly in the case of *n* variables.

Example 1. Theorem.—At least one homogeneous linear relation subsists among n + 1 homogeneous linear functions of n variables.

For the relation

$$\lambda(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z) + \mu(a_2x + b_2y + c_2z) + \nu(a_3x + b_3y + c_3z) + \rho(a_4x + b_4y + c_4z) \equiv 0 \quad (17)$$

is equivalent to the three equations

 $\lambda a_1 + \mu a_2 + \nu a_3 + \rho a_4 = 0$, etc.,

which by Theorem I. has always at least one solution in which λ , μ , ν , ρ are not all zero.

Example 2. Theorems.—If a homogeneous linear relation subsists among n homogeneous linear functions of n variables, then values of the variables not all zero exist for which all the functions vanish; and conversely.

For the *direct* theorem, suppose

 $\lambda(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z) + \mu(a_2x + b_2y + c_2z) + \nu(a_3x + b_3y + c_3z) \equiv 0, \quad (18)$

where λ , μ , ν are not all zero, say $\nu \neq 0$.

Take x, y, z, not all zero, so that (Th. I.)

$$\begin{cases} a_1 x + b_1 y + c_1 z = 0, \\ a_2 x + b_2 y + c_2 z = 0. \end{cases}$$

Since $v \neq 0$, (18) then gives $a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = 0$.

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For the *converse*, suppose

where X, Y, Z are not all zero, say $Z \neq 0$.

As in Ex. 1, take
$$\lambda$$
, μ , ν , ρ so that
 $\lambda(a_1x + b_1y + c_1z) + \mu(a_2x + b_2y + c_3z) + \nu(a_3x + b_3y + c_3z) + \rho z \equiv 0.$ (20)

Put X, Y, Z for x, y, z in (20) and we find $\rho = 0$.

Example 3. Theorem.—In Cartesian coordinates, at least one curve whose equation is of the form

$$a(x^{2} + y^{2}) + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0.....(21)$$

passes through any three points; where a, g, f are not all zero.

Observe that we cannot say without qualification that there is only one such curve, even if we premise that the three given points are distinct; e.g. the three points $(-iy_1, y_1), (-iy_2, y_2), (-iy_3, y_3)$ lie on the curve $x^2 + y^2 + \lambda(x + iy) = 0$, where the coefficient λ is arbitrary.

(To be continued.) See P. 13] JOHN DOUGALL

Notes on Algebraic Inequalities.-

1. It is worthy of remark that there is a method of proving algebraic inequalities which is very generally applicable, and which furnishes proofs of great directness and completeness.

The method consists in expressing the difference A - B in a manifestly positive form, when we have to prove A > B.

The first inequality occurring in school Algebra is usually proved in this way. We have to show that if a, b, and x are positive quantities $\frac{a+x}{b+x}$ is nearer to 1 than $\frac{a}{b}$. We have

$$\frac{a+x}{b+x}-\frac{a}{b}=\frac{x(b-a)}{b(b+x)}.$$

The two cases a > b and b > a are then considered separately, and the conclusion drawn.

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