

Support Material (1)Matrices and Vectors

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. These numbers are called "Entries" of the matrix. If a matrix has m rows and n columns, one says that the matrix is of order $m \times n$ (m by n).

In particular: (1) If a matrix has n rows as well as n columns the matrix is said to be a square matrix of order n .

(2) If a matrix has one row and n columns, one says it is a row-matrix of order n .

(3) If a matrix has one column and m -rows, the matrix is said to be a column matrix of order m .

(4) A matrix of order 1×1 , say $[b]$ may be identified by " b " itself and we write $[b] = b$.

Notations: Matrices are usually denoted by upper case letters such as $A, B, C, \dots$ etc. However entries of a matrix are usually denoted by lower case letters. In particular if B is a matrix of order $m \times n$, then the entry of B which lies in the i th row and j th column may be denoted by b_{ij} . $i = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Hence

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad B = (b_{ij}) \quad \begin{matrix} i=1, 2, \dots, m \\ j=1, 2, \dots, n \end{matrix}$$

An Exception: Row and Column matrices are usually denoted by lower case letters with an arrow on top!! such as $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{r}, \vec{a}, \dots$ etc. and may be called Vectors!

Examples: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a matrix of order 2×3 (2 by 3)
 $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ is a square matrix of order 3
 $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 0 \\ 9 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is a column matrix (or column vector) of order 4.

special matrices:

(1) The Zero matrix: This is a matrix all of its entries are zeros and may be denoted by O (or $\vec{0}$ for vectors!)

Ex $\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the zero matrix of order 4×1

$O = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the zero matrix of order 2×3

(2) The unit or Identity matrix

1st. Let A be a square matrix of order n , say $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

The entries $a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$ are the so-called Main-diagonal entries of A . The other entries of A are called "The off-diagonal entries".

Now, we are ready to define unit matrix:

The unit matrix is a square matrix (order say n) whose diagonal entries are 1's and off-diagonal entries are all 0's.

This matrix is denoted by I or I_n .

Ex $I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $I_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\dots$, $I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Arithmetic of matrices:

(1) Equal Matrices: Matrices A , and B are said to be equal if and only if the following two conditions are met:

(1) A, B have same order, say $m \times n$

(2) Corresponding entries of A , and B are equal! $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$

EX: If $\begin{bmatrix} 2a-b & -3c \\ 1+d & a+b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 15 \\ -7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$, Find a, b, c , and d . (3)

Solution: equating corresponding entries, we get: $2a-b = -2$, $-3c = 15$,
 $1+d = -7$, $a+b = 8$

solve to get: $a = 2$, $b = 6$, $c = -5$, and $d = -8$

(2) Addition of matrices: Let A, B be matrices. The sum of A and B is defined only if A and B are of the same order $m \times n$. The sum is denoted by $A+B$ and is the $m \times n$ matrix obtained from A, B by adding corresponding entries! $A+B = (a_{ij}) + (b_{ij}) = (a_{ij} + b_{ij})$.

EX $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A+B = \begin{bmatrix} 1+2 & 9+5 \\ 3+(-1) & -1+7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 14 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

(3) Scalar multiplication: Let K be a scalar (real or complex number). Then the product of K and matrix A is denoted by KA and is obtained by simply multiplying every entry of A by K !

EX If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, then $3A = \begin{bmatrix} (3)(4) & (3)(-1) & (3)(2) \\ (3)(1) & (3)(7) & (3)(3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & -3 & 6 \\ 3 & 21 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

like wise $(-1)A$ or simply $-A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & +1 & -2 \\ -1 & -7 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$. The matrix " $-A$ " may be called "The negative of A ".

(4) Difference of matrices: Let A, B be $m \times n$ matrices

we define $A-B$ by $A+(-B)$. Therefore: To subtract two matrices, just subtract corresponding entries!!

EX $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ e^t \end{bmatrix}$. Find $B-A$, $B-t^2A$, $B-B$.

soln. $B-A = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ e^t \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t-2 \\ e^t-(-1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t-2 \\ e^t+1 \end{bmatrix}$

$B-t^2A = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ e^t \end{bmatrix} - t^2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ e^t \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2t^2 \\ -t^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t-2t^2 \\ e^t+t^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$B-B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0} !!$

(5) Product of Matrices:

Let A be an $m \times p$ matrix and B be an $q \times n$ matrix. Then the product of A and B in that order is defined only if $p = q$. Further if $AB = C$, then C is of order $m \times n$ (Refer to display below).

To find entries of C , say c_{ij} we simply multiply corresponding entries of i th row of A , and j th column of B , and add up!

$$\begin{array}{c} A \cdot B = C \\ \begin{array}{ccc} m \times p & q \times n & m \times n \\ | \quad \text{---} \quad | & & \\ \leftarrow m \times n \rightarrow & & \end{array} \end{array}$$

EX: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 10 \\ -1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 9 & -8 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Then AB is defined and the product is of order 2×3 !

$$\begin{array}{c} A \cdot B = C \\ \begin{array}{ccc} 2 \times 3 & 3 \times 3 & 2 \times 3 \\ | \quad \text{---} \quad | & & \\ \leftarrow 2 \times 3 \rightarrow & & \end{array} \end{array}$$

Now $AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 10 \\ -1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 9 & -8 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} \end{bmatrix}$

For example to find c_{13} : circle 1st row of A , 3rd col. of B

as shown. Now multiply / add up: $(2)(0) + (1)(5) + (10)(3)$
 $= 0 + 5 + 30 = 35 \dots$ etc.

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 10 \\ -1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 9 & -8 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 106 & -81 & 35 \\ 28 & -19 & 29 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remarks: Given matrices A, B . Any of the following may occur:

- (a) Neither AB nor BA are defined
- (b) Both AB and BA are defined
- (c) Either AB or BA is defined
- (d) AB and BA are defined, but may or may not be equal!

EX $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\therefore AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ 21 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

clearly $BA \neq AB$!!

Power of a square matrix (5)

Let A be a square matrix of order n and let r be a positive integer ($r = 1, 2, 3, \dots$). Then by A^r we shall mean: $\underbrace{A \cdot A \cdot \dots \cdot A}_{r \text{ times}}$

In particular $A^0 = I_n$ " Identity matrix "

EX: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find A^2 .

solution $A^2 = A \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

Warning: $A^2 \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1^2 & 3^2 \\ 2^2 & (-1)^2 \end{bmatrix} !!$

Transpose of a matrix: Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be an $m \times n$ matrix. The transpose of A is the matrix obtained by interchange its rows and columns and will be denoted by A^t . It follows that

$$A^t = (a_{ji}) \text{ and is of order } \underline{n \times m}.$$

EX: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$, then $A^t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

properties of Transpose:

- (1) $(A \pm B)^t = A^t \pm B^t$
- (2) $(AB)^t = B^t A^t$, $(ABC)^t = C^t B^t A^t$
reverse
- (3) $I_n^t = I_n$, $O_{m \times n}^t = O_{n \times m}$
- (4) $(KA)^t = K A^t$, $K \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (5) $(A^t)^t = A$

symmetric / skew symmetric matrices: Let A be a square matrix.

(1) The matrix A is said to be symmetric if and only if $A^t = A$

(2) The matrix A is said to be skew symmetric if and only if $A^t = -A$.

EX: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 7 & -3 \\ 5 & -3 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$. Clearly $A^t = A \Rightarrow A$ is symmetric.

EX: $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \\ -2 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Clearly $B^t = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & -5 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \\ -2 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -B$

$\Rightarrow B$ is skew symmetric

observe that: Main-diagonal entries of a skew-symmetric matrix are all zeros

Elementary row operations: These are the permissible operations that may be performed on the rows of a matrix A . Let R_i denote the i th row of A . Here is a list of the three row-operations:

(1) Interchanging the i th and j th rows of A . This operation may be symbolized by $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$

(2) Multiplying the i th row by a non-zero scalar c . This operation may be symbolized by $R_i \rightarrow c R_i, c \neq 0$

(3) Adding K -times of j th row to the i th row. This operation may be symbolized by $R_i \rightarrow R_i + K R_j$. Only the i th row is changed.

EX: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 7 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = B$

EX: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 6 & -5 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = B$

EX: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow \frac{R_2}{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = B$

Defn: If A and B are matrices and if B is obtained from A by performing a sequence of elementary row operations, one says A and B are equivalent.

Defn: Row-echelon matrices

A matrix is said to be in Row-echelon form if the following conditions are met:

- (1) All rows consisting entirely of zeros are grouped at the bottom of matrix.
- (2) For every non-zero row, the first non-zero entry is a "1" called the leading one for that row.
- (3) The Leading one of a row lies to the right of all the leading ones of the rows above it.

In other words leading ones form a stair-case starting high at the upper left corner of matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & * & * & * \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

If in addition to the three conditions above, the following condition (4) is satisfied, one says the matrix is in Reduced row-echelon form.

A row-echelon matrix or a reduced row-echelon matrix may be denoted by R .

Condition (4): The leading one of a row is the only non-zero entry in its column.

EX $\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a row-echelon matrix

EX $\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & 0 & \textcircled{1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a reduced row-echelon matrix

EX $\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is not a row-echelon matrix since leading one of R_2 lies to the left of leading one of R_1 .

Theorem: Every $m \times n$ matrix A is equivalent to a row-echelon matrix (or reduced row-echelon matrix) R . That is to say R can be obtained from A by performing a sequence of elementary row operations.

EX: Find a reduced row-echelon matrix R equivalent to

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 5 & -1 & 6 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 5 & -1 & 6 & 17 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & -1 & 6 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{matrix} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 5R_1 \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -8 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow -R_2} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_2} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = R \quad \#$$

Rank of matrix: Let A be matrix and let R be a row-echelon matrix equivalent to A . Then # of leading ones of R

say "r" is called "The Rank of A" and we write $\text{rank}(A) = r$.

In example above: $\text{rank}(A) = 2$.

system of Linear equations: A system of "m" equations in the "n" unknowns $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ is of the form

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ \vdots &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m \end{aligned}$$

which can be written in the simple matrix form $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ where $A = (a_{ij})$ $\begin{matrix} i=1,2,\dots,m \\ j=1,2,\dots,n \end{matrix}$ is the coefficient matrix, $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ is the

unknown column vector and $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$ is constant term column.

The system is non-homogeneous if $\vec{b} \neq \vec{0}$. If $\vec{b} = \vec{0}$, we get $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ which we call a homogeneous system.

Nature of solution of a linear system: consider $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$.

A linear system may have either

- (1) A unique solution
- (2) An infinitely-many solutions, or
- (3) No solution at all.

A system having a solution is called a consistent linear system. However system having no solutions are inconsistent!

Augmented matrix: This is the matrix obtained from "A" by inserting " $\vec{b}$ " as a last column. Augmented matrix is thus denoted by $[A : \vec{b}]$.

EX: For the system
$$\begin{aligned} 3x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ x - y &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

The augmented matrix is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

EX: write down a system having the augmented matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution: we know this system has 3 equations in two unknowns, say u, and v. Hence system is given by
$$\begin{cases} 2u + v = -1 \\ 2u + 4v = 0 \\ u - v = 7 \end{cases}$$

To solve a system of linear equations just bring its augmented matrix to row-echelon form (or reduced row-echelon form). (9)

Theorem: Very Important.

Consider the system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, A is an $m \times n$ matrix.

Let $\text{rank}(A) = r_1$, $\text{rank}[A|\vec{b}] = r_2$. Then

- (1) If $r_1 \neq r_2$, system has no solution (Inconsistent)
- (2) If $r_1 = r_2 = \# \text{ of unknowns } n$, the system has exactly one solution
- (3) If $r_1 = r_2 = \text{say } r < n$, the system has an infinitely-many solution. In fact the system has $n-r$ -parameter family of solutions. These parameters are the unknowns whose leading ones are missing!

EX: solve
$$\begin{cases} 2x + 3y - 4z = 9 \\ x + y - z = 1 \\ 3x + 4y - 5z = 0 \end{cases}$$

Solution: Augmented matrix $[A|\vec{b}] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & -4 & 9 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & -4 & 9 \\ 3 & 4 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\begin{matrix} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 3R_1 \end{matrix}} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -2 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -2 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -10 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow \frac{R_3}{-10}} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -2 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ stop!}$$

$\text{rank}(A) = 2$, $\text{rank}[A|\vec{b}] = 3 \Rightarrow \text{No solution!}$

EX solve $x_1 - 2x_2 + 5x_3 - 2x_4 = 3$

$$2x_1 - 4x_2 + 9x_3 + x_4 = -1$$

Solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & -2 & 5 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & -4 & 9 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & -2 & 5 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow -R_2} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & -2 & 5 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & -5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 5R_2} \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & -2 & 0 & 23 & -32 \\ 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & -5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad (*)$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|\vec{b}) = 2 < n = 3$$

$\Rightarrow$ Infinitely-many solutions. Since $n-r = 3-2 = 1 \dots$ we have a two-parameter family. Since leading ones for x_2, x_4 are missing,

we let $x_2 = t, x_4 = s$ $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$

It follows from (*) that $x_1 - 2x_2 + 23x_4 = -32$
 $x_3 - 5x_4 = 7$

$$\text{Hence } x_1 = -32 + 2x_2 - 23x_4 = -32 + 2t - 23s$$

$$x_3 = 7 + 5x_4 = 7 - 5s$$

$$\therefore \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -32 + 2t - 23s \\ t \\ 7 - 5s \\ s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -32 \\ 0 \\ 7 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} -23 \\ 0 \\ -5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad t, s \in \mathbb{R}$$

Inverse of a Square matrix:

Let A be a square matrix of order n . We say that " A " is invertible if there exists a matrix X such that $AX = I_n$ and $XA = I_n$.

The matrix X is then called "The Inverse of A " and we write

$X = A^{-1}$. It follows that A^{-1} has the properties (1) $AA^{-1} = I_n$.
(2) $A^{-1}A = I_n$.

properties of Inverse: Let A, B , and C be invertible $n \times n$ matrices.

- (1) $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ (2) $(A^{-1})^t = (A^t)^{-1}$
(3) $(KA)^{-1} = K^{-1}A^{-1}$, $K \in \mathbb{R}, K \neq 0$
(4) $I_n^{-1} = I_n$ (5) $(AB)^{-1} = \underset{\text{reverse}}{B^{-1}A^{-1}}$, $(ABC)^{-1} = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Determinant of a square matrix

Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be a square matrix of order n . The determinant of " A " is a real number denoted by $\det A$ or $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$.

Computing Determinants:

Case (1): Determinant of a matrix of order 2×2 :

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. We define $\det A$ by

$$\det A \stackrel{\text{or}}{=} \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

Case (2) : Determinant of a matrix of order 3×3 . (11)

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$ be a square matrix of order 3.

Def. : Cofactor of an entry:

The Cofactor of an entry a_{ij} of A is denoted by c_{ij} and is defined by $c_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j}$ The 2×2 determinant obtained from A by deleting i th row and j th column

For instance $c_{23} = (-1)^{2+3} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} = -(\star)$

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

"Delete 2nd row and 3rd column"

The sign pattern for determinant of order 3×3

Since $(-1)^{i+j} = \pm 1$, the signs $(-1)^{i+j}$ are shown

$$\begin{bmatrix} (-1)^{1+1} = (+) & (-1)^{1+2} = (-) & (-1)^{1+3} = (+) \\ (-1)^{2+1} = (-) & (-1)^{2+2} = (+) & (-1)^{2+3} = (-) \\ (-1)^{3+1} = (+) & (-1)^{3+2} = (-) & (-1)^{3+3} = (+) \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

Laplace expansion of $\det A$:

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

To find $\det A$: choose any row (or a column). Then find the cofactors of the entries of the chosen row (or column).

For instance if 1st row is chosen, the cofactors of its entries are c_{11}, c_{12} , and c_{13}

$$\therefore \det A = a_{11}c_{11} + a_{12}c_{12} + a_{13}c_{13}$$

... etc. Note that according to (*) above:

$$c_{11} = (+) \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \quad c_{12} = (-) \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \quad c_{13} = (+) \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$

Remark: Determinants of order $n \times n$, $n \geq 4$

This is a straight forward generalization to determinants of order 3×3 which we have discussed earlier.

EX: Find $\det A$ if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution $\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \rightarrow$ Sign pattern $[\ominus \oplus \ominus]$ for R_2

Let us use 2nd row to find $\det A$. The easiest!..

$$\det A = \ominus 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix} - 0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= -3[6 - 1] = -15.$$

properties of determinants:

Action of elementary row-operations on a determinant

(1) If $A \xrightarrow{R_i \leftrightarrow R_j} B$, then $\det B = -\det A$

In words: Interchange two rows of a determinant changes its value by a negative sign.

(2) If $A \xrightarrow[R_i \neq 0]{R_i \rightarrow cR_i} B$, then $\det B = c \det A$

In words: Multiplying a row of a determinant by $c \neq 0$, changes its value by c -times!

EX $\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$. Clearly $\det A = -10$

Now $\det \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 14 & -7 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = 7(-10) = -70$.. because 1st row is seven times that of $\det A$!

(3) If $A \xrightarrow{R_j \rightarrow R_j + KR_i} B$, then

$$\det A = \det B$$

This is a very powerful property which says: Applying an elementary row operation of type (III) on "A" Does not change its determinant.

Other properties: Let A be a square matrix of order n (13)

(1) If A has two Identical rows, then $\det A = 0$

(2) If A has a zero row, then $\det A = 0$

(3) $\det A = \det A^t$. This powerful property tells us:

(a) we can use columns to expand determinants

(b) All properties that hold for rows of a determinant, remain true for columns.

(c) we are permitted column operation on a determinant.

usually we use row or column operations to get as many zeros as possible in a row (or column) then use it to expand $\det A$.

EX: let $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 9 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 7 & 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Indeed $\det B = 0$ since its 1st and 2nd columns are identical.

EX: let $C = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\det C$

Let us 1st apply column operations to get as many zeros in a row!

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\substack{C_2 \rightarrow C_2 - C_1 \\ C_3 \rightarrow C_3 + 4C_1}]{\substack{C_2 \rightarrow C_2 - C_1 \\ C_3 \rightarrow C_3 + 4C_1}} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 & 15 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Get zeros

$$\therefore \det C = +1 \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 15 \\ 1 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = -33$$

More properties of determinants: Let A, B be square matrices of order n and $K \in \mathbb{R}$ be scalar

(1) $\det(AB) = (\det A) \det B$

(2) $\det I_n = 1$, $\det O_{n \times n} = 0$

(3) $\det A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A}$ provided A^{-1} exists

(4) $\det A^t = \det A$ (5) $\det(KA) = K^n \det A$

(6) If $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, then $\det(A^n) = (\det A)^n$.

Ex: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, Find $\det A^{100}$.

Solution $\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 6 - 5 = 1$

$$\therefore \det A^{100} = (\det A)^{100} = (1)^{100} = 1$$

Ex: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ find $\det A^{-1}$.

1st. $\det A = +1 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \Rightarrow \det A^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$ as well.

Ex: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\det(A - \lambda I_2)$ and solve $\det(A - \lambda I_2) = 0$.

Solution $A - \lambda I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & 4 \\ 5 & 3-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$

$$\therefore \det(A - \lambda I_2) = (2-\lambda)(3-\lambda) - 20 = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda - 14$$

Now $\det(A - \lambda I_2) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 5\lambda - 14 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 7, -2$

Computing Inverse of a square matrix:

Case (1): Let A be a square matrix of order 2. Then A^{-1} is invertible iff $\det A \neq 0$ and that A^{-1} is given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: Find B^{-1} if $B = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution: $\det B = (7)(9) - (1)(3) = 60 \neq 0 \Rightarrow B^{-1}$ exists.

$$\text{Now } B^{-1} = \frac{1}{60} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -3 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Case (2): Let A be a square matrix of order n , $n \geq 2$.

The matrix " A " is invertible iff $\det A \neq 0$.

Defn.: Adjoint of a square matrix:

Let $A = (a_{ij})$ $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and let c_{ij} be cofactor of a_{ij}

The adjoint of "A" is denoted and defined by

(15)

$$\text{adj} A = (c_{ij})^t \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

In words: $\text{adj} A =$ The Transpose of the matrix of all cofactors of A

Theorem: $A(\text{adj} A) = (\det A)I_n$, $(\text{adj} A)A = (\det A)I_n$

In particular if A is invertible,

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \text{adj} A$$

This last powerful relation is used to compute A^{-1} .

EX: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find A^{-1} .

Solution: $\text{adj} A = (c_{ij})^t = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix}^t = \begin{bmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \\ - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \\ + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \end{bmatrix}^t$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -12 & -4 \\ -2 & 9 & 3 \\ 1 & -4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^t = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ -12 & 9 & -4 \\ -4 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\det A = -1$. Hence $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ -12 & 9 & -4 \\ -4 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 12 & -9 & 4 \\ 4 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition: upper / lower Triangular matrices: let A be square matrix.

A matrix A_1 is an upper Triangular matrix if all entries below the main-diagonal are zeros. -- Like wise a matrix A_2 is a lower triangular if all entries above the main-diagonal are zeros.

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ " upper Triangular "}$$

$$A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ " lower Triangular "}$$

Note: $\det A_1 =$ product of main-diagonal entries $= a_{11} a_{22} \dots a_{nn}$
 $\det A_2 = a_{11} a_{22} \dots a_{nn}$ as well.

FACTS ABOUT LINEAR SYSTEMS

(16)

[a] Homogeneous systems of linear equations

Consider the homogeneous system $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$, where A is an $m \times n$ matrix

consisting of m equations in the n -unknowns $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$.

Fact 1: Every homogeneous system is consistent; meaning: It has at least one solution.

Fact 2: Every homogeneous system has a trivial solution $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$.
Any other solution is called a non-trivial solution.

Fact 3: If $m < n$, the homogeneous system has a non-trivial solution (in fact an-infinitely-many).

Fact 4: If $m = n$ and $\det A = 0$, the system has a non-trivial solution.
However if $\det A \neq 0$, the homogeneous system has only the trivial solution $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

Fact 5: If $m > n$, and if B is a sub-matrix of order $n \times n$ such that $\det B \neq 0$, the system has only the trivial solution. Otherwise, it has a non-trivial solution.

EX: The homogeneous system

$$\begin{aligned} x + 2y + 3z &= 0 \\ 3x - 7y + z &= 0 \\ 4x - 5y + 4z &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

has a non-trivial solution since $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & -7 & 1 \\ 4 & -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\det A = 0$ "verify!"

[b] Non-homogeneous systems of linear equations

consider the non-homogeneous system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ where A is an $n \times n$ matrix.

(1) If $\det A \neq 0$, the system has the unique solution $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$.

(2) If $\det A = 0$, the system may have either no solution or an-infinitely-many solution depending on the column $\vec{b}$.

EX: The system $\begin{aligned} 3x - 7y &= 4 \\ 2x + y &= -1 \end{aligned}$ has a unique solution since

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible ($\det A = 3 + 14 = 17 \neq 0$). Further

$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{17} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Hence the unique solution is $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b} = \frac{1}{17} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{3}{17} \\ -\frac{11}{17} \end{bmatrix}$.

END