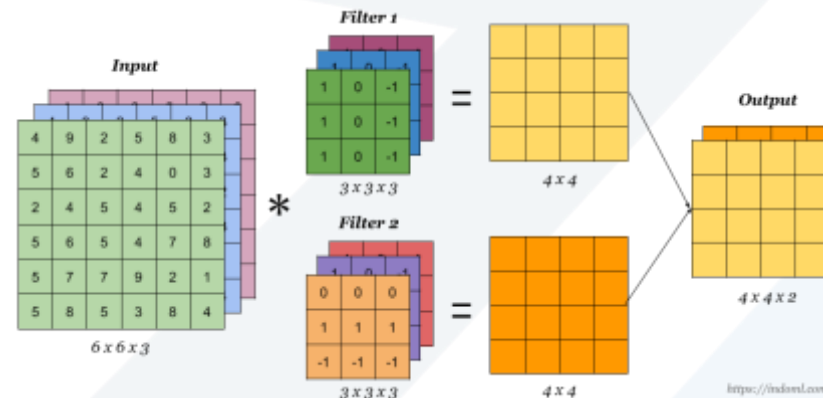


# CECC122: Linear Algebra and Matrix Theory

## Lecture Notes 1 & 2: Linear Equations and Matrices



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## Chapter 1

# Linear Equations and Matrices

1. Systems of Linear Equations
2. Gaussian Elimination and Gauss-Jordan Elimination
3. Matrices and Matrix Operations
4. The Inverse of a Matrix
5. Elementary Matrices
6. Complex Matrices

## 1. Systems of Linear Equations

- **Definition:** An **equation** is where **two mathematical expressions** are defined as being **equal**. A **linear equation** is one where all **variables (unknowns)** such as  $x, y, z$  ( $x_1, x_2, x_3$ ) have **power** of 1 only.

- The following are also linear equations:

$$x + 2y + z = 5;$$

$$x + 2y = \sqrt{2};$$

$$3x_1 + x_2 + \pi x_3 + x_4 = -8;$$

$$\sin(\pi/2)x - y = e^2.$$

- The following are **not** linear equations:

$$xy + 5z = 2;$$

$$\sin x_1 + 2x_2 - 3x_3 = 0;$$

$$e^x - 2y = 3;$$

$$1/x + y^3 = 4.$$

- A linear equation in  $n$  variables:  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$ ;  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b \in R$ .  
 $a_1$ : **leading coefficient**;  $x_1$ : **leading variable**.

- **Note:** Linear equations have **no products** or **roots** of variables and no variables involved in **trigonometric**, **exponential**, or **logarithmic** functions.
- Generally a **finite** number of **linear equations** with a **finite** number of **unknowns**  $x, y, z, w, \dots$  is called a **system of linear equations** or just a **linear system**.

- For example, the following is a linear system of two equations with three unknowns  $x, y$  and  $z$ :

$$\begin{aligned} x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ -x + 3y &= -4 \end{aligned} \quad (*)$$

- In general, a linear system of  $m$  equations in  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  is written as:

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

where the coefficients  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_j$  represent real numbers.

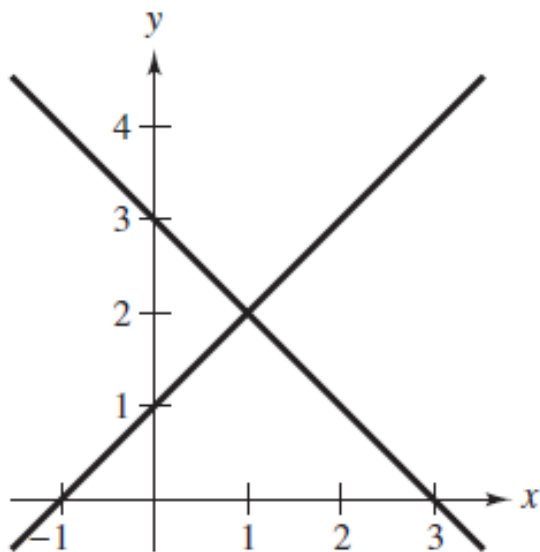
- A **solution** of a linear system in  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  is a sequence of  $n$  numbers  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$  for which the substitution  $x_1 = s_1, x_2 = s_2, \dots, x_n = s_n$  makes each equation a **true statement**.
- For example, the system in (\*) has the solution  $x = 1, y = -1$  and  $z = 2$ , which can be written as  $(1, -1, 2)$ .
- The set of **all solutions** of a linear equation is its **solution set**.
- A linear system that has **no solution** is called **inconsistent**.
- A linear system that has **at least one solution** is called **consistent**.
- **Notes:** Every system of linear equations has either:  
(1) exactly **one** solution,                      (2) infinitely **many** solutions, or  
(3) **no** solution.

- Example 1: (Systems of Two Equations in Two Variables)

$$x + y = 3$$

$$x - y = -1$$

two intersecting lines

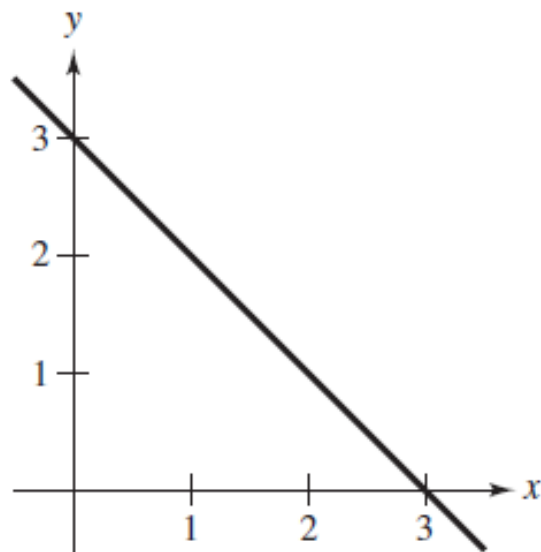


exactly one solution

$$x + y = 3$$

$$2x + 2y = 6$$

two coincident lines

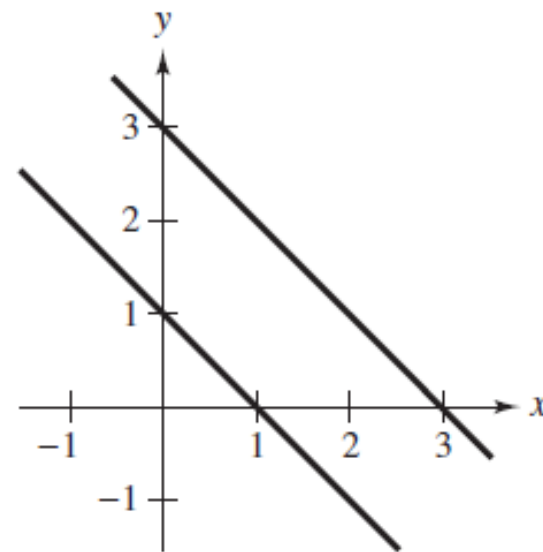


infinite number

$$x + y = 3$$

$$x + y = 1$$

two parallel lines



no solution

- **Example 2: (Using back substitution to solve a system in row echelon form)**

$$x - 2y + 3z = 9 \quad (1)$$

$$y + 3z = 5 \quad (2)$$

$$z = 2 \quad (3)$$

Substitute  $z = 2$  into (2)  $\Rightarrow y + 3(2) = 5$   
 $y = -1$

and substitute  $y = -1$  and  $z = 2$  into (1)  $\Rightarrow x - 2(-1) + 3(2) = 9$   
 $x = 1$

The system has exactly one solution:  $x = 1, y = -1, z = 2$

- **Definition:** Two systems of linear equations are called **equivalent** if they have precisely the **same** solution set. The **aim** here is to convert the **given system** into an equivalent simpler system that is in **row-echelon form**.

- Operations that Produce Equivalent Systems:
  - Interchange** two equations.
  - Multiply** an equation by a **nonzero constant**.
  - Add** a **multiple** of an equation to **another** equation.
- Example 3: Solve a system of linear equations (consistent system)**

$$x - 2y + 3z = 9 \quad (1)$$

$$-x + 3y = -4 \quad (2)$$

$$2x - 5y + 5z = 17 \quad (3)$$

$$(1) + (2) \rightarrow (2)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \end{array} \quad (4)$$

$$2x - 5y + 5z = 17$$

$$(1) \times (-2) + (3) \rightarrow (3)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \\ -y - z = -1 \end{array} \quad (5)$$



$$(4) + (5) \rightarrow (5)$$

$$x - 2y + 3z = 9$$

$$y + 3z = 5$$

$$2z = 4 \quad (6)$$

$$(6) \times \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow (6)$$

$$x - 2y + 3z = 9$$

$$y + 3z = 5$$

$$z = 2$$

So the solution is:  $x = 1, y = -1, z = 2$

- Example 4: Solve a system of linear equations (inconsistent system)

$$x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$2x_1 - x_2 - 2x_3 = 2 \quad (2)$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 - 3x_3 = -1 \quad (3)$$

$$(1) \times (-2) + (2) \rightarrow (2) \quad (1) \times (-1) + (3) \rightarrow (3)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

$$5x_2 - 4x_3 = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$5x_2 - 4x_3 = -2 \quad (5)$$

$$(4) \times (-1) + (5) \rightarrow (5)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

$$5x_2 - 4x_3 = 0$$

$$0 = -2$$

(a false statement)

- Example 5: Solve a system of linear equations (infinitely many solutions)

$$x_2 - x_3 = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_3 = -1 \quad (2)$$

$$-x_1 + 3x_2 = 1 \quad (3)$$

$$(1) \leftrightarrow (2)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_3 = -1 \quad (1)$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$-x_1 + 3x_2 = 1 \quad (3)$$

$$(1) + (3) \rightarrow (3)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_3 = -1$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = 0$$

$$3x_2 - 3x_3 = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$(2) \times (-3) + (4) \rightarrow (4)$$

$$x_1 - 3x_3 = -1 \Rightarrow x_2 = x_3, \quad x_1 = -1 + 3x_3$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = 0$$

$$\boxed{0 = 0} \quad (\text{a True statement})$$

letting  $x_3 = t$ , then the solutions are:  $\{(3t-1, t, t) | t \in R\}$

## 2. Gaussian Elimination and Gauss-Jordan Elimination

### Matrices

- Definition:** A matrix with  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns ( $m \times n$  matrix) is a rectangular array.

	Column 1	Column 2	...	Column $n$
Row 1	$a_{11}$	$a_{12}$	...	$a_{1n}$
Row 2	$a_{21}$	$a_{22}$	...	$a_{2n}$
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
Row $m$	$a_{m1}$	$a_{m2}$	...	$a_{mn}$

- Notes:** Every system of linear equations has either:
  - (1) Every entry  $a_{ij}$  in a matrix is a number.
  - (2) A matrix with  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns is said to be of **size**  $m \times n$ .
  - (3) If  $m = n$ , then the matrix is called **square** of order  $n$ .
  - (4) For a square matrix,  $a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$  are called the **main diagonal entries**.

$$[2] \quad \text{Size } 1 \times 1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Size } 2 \times 2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Size } 1 \times 4$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e & \pi \\ 2 & \sqrt{2} \\ -7 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Size } 3 \times 2$$

- **Note:** One common use of matrices is to **represent** systems of linear equations. For A system of  $m$  equations in  $n$  variables:

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

Matrix form:  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

**Coefficient matrix**

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array} \right] = [A|\mathbf{b}]$$

**Augmented matrix**

- Elementary row operation:

(1) Interchange two rows.

$$r_{ij}: R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$$

(2) Multiply a row by a nonzero constant.

$$r_i^{(k)}: (k)R_i \rightarrow R_i$$

(3) Add a multiple of a row to another row.

$$r_{ij}^{(k)}: (k)R_i + R_j \rightarrow R_j$$

- Two matrices are said to be **row equivalent** if one can be obtained from the other by a **finite sequence** of **elementary row operations**.

- Example 6: (Elementary row operation)**

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

$\xrightarrow{r_{12}}$

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & 6 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_1^{(\frac{1}{2})}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{13}^{(-2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & -3 & 13 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Example 7: Using elementary row operations to solve a system

Linear System

$$\begin{aligned} x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ -x + 3y &= -4 \\ 2x - 5y + 5z &= 17 \end{aligned}$$

Augmented Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 & -4 \\ 2 & -5 & 5 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Elementary  
Row Operation



$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ y + 3z &= 5 \\ 2x - 5y + 5z &= 17\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 5 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$r_{12}^{(1)}: (1)R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow R_2$$

$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ y + 3z &= 5 \\ -y - z &= -1\end{aligned}$$

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

$$r_{13}^{(-2)}: (-2)R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow R_3$$

$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ y + 3z &= 5 \\ 2z &= 4\end{aligned}$$

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

$$r_{23}^{(1)}: (1)R_2 + R_3 \rightarrow R_3$$

$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y + 3z &= 9 \\ y + 3z &= 5 \\ z &= 2\end{aligned}$$

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

$$r_3^{(\frac{1}{2})}: (\frac{1}{2})R_3 \rightarrow R_3$$



Use back-substitution to find the solution, as in **Example 2**. The solution is  $x = 1, y = -1, z = 2$ .

- Row-echelon form: (1, 2, 3)
- Reduced row-echelon form: (1, 2, 3, 4)
  - (1) All row consisting entirely of **zeros** occur at the **bottom** of the matrix.
  - (2) For each row that does not consist entirely of zeros, the **first nonzero** entry is 1 (called a **leading 1**).
  - (3) For two **successive** (nonzero) rows, the leading 1 in the **higher** row is **farther** to the left than the leading 1 in the **lower** row.
  - (4) Every column that has a leading 1 has **zeros** in every position **above** and **below** its leading 1.

- **Notes:**

(1) Each column of the coefficient matrix corresponds to a **variable** in the system of equations, we call each variable associated to a leading 1 in the RREF a **leading variable**.

(2) A variable (if any) that is not a leading variable is called a **free variable**.

- **Example 8: leading and free variables**

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - 2x_2 - x_3 + 3x_4 = 1 \\ 2x_2 - 4x_3 + x_4 = 5 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + 2x_3 - 3x_4 = 4 \end{array} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$x_1, x_3$  are leading variables and  $x_2, x_4$  are free variables.

- Example 9: (Row-echelon form or reduced row-echelon form)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{row-echelon form}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{reduced row-echelon form}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{row-echelon form}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{reduced row-echelon form}$$

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

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

- **Gaussian elimination with Back-substitution:** The procedure for reducing a matrix to a **row-echelon form**, and use back-substitution to find the solution.
- **Gauss-Jordan elimination:** The procedure for reducing a matrix to a **reduced row-echelon form**.
- **Notes:**
  - (1) Every matrix has an unique reduced row echelon form.
  - (2) A row-echelon form of a given matrix is not unique.
- **Example 10: Solve a system by Gauss-Jordan elimination method (one solution)**

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x - 2y + 3z & = & 9 \\ -x + 3y & = & -4 \\ 2x - 5y + 5z & = & 17 \end{array}$$

augmented matrix

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 & -4 \\ 2 & -5 & 5 & 17 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{12}^{(1)}, r_{13}^{(-2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{23}^{(1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \\
 & \xrightarrow{r_3^{(\frac{1}{2})}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{31}^{(-3)}, r_{32}^{(-3)}, r_{21}^{(2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} x = 1 \\ y = -1 \\ z = 2 \end{array}
 \end{aligned}$$

row-echelon form reduced row-echelon form

- Example 11: Solve a system by G.-J. elimination method (infinitely many solutions)

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 2x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 & = & 0 \\
 3x_1 + 5x_2 & = & 1
 \end{array}$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_1^{(\frac{1}{2})}, r_{12}^{(-3)}, r_2^{(-1)}, r_{21}^{(-2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

augmented matrix

reduced row-echelon form

$$\begin{aligned} \longrightarrow \quad x_1 + 5x_3 &= 2 && \text{leading variables: } x_1, x_2 \\ x_2 - 3x_3 &= -1 && \text{free variable: } x_3 \end{aligned}$$

$$x_1 = 2 - 5x_3 \quad x_3 = t, \text{ then the solutions are: } \{(2 - 5t, -1 + 3t, t) | t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$x_2 = -1 + 3x_3 \quad \text{So the system has infinitely many solutions.}$$

- Example 12: Solve a system by Gauss elimination method (no solution)

$$x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 4$$

$$x_1 + x_3 = 6$$

$$2x_1 - 3x_2 + 5x_3 = 4$$

$$3x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 = 1$$

augmented matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & -3 & 5 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{12}^{(-1)}, r_{13}^{(-2)}, r_{14}^{(-3)}, r_{23}^{(1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 5 & -7 & -11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 &= 4 \\ & x_2 - x_3 = 2 \\ & 0 = -2 \\ & 5x_2 - 7x_3 = -11 \end{aligned}$$

Because the third equation is not possible, the system has no solution.

## Homogeneous systems of linear equations

- A system of linear equations is said to be homogeneous if all the constant terms are zero.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 a_{11}x_1 & + & a_{12}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{1n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 a_{21}x_1 & + & a_{22}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{2n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 \vdots & & & & & & & & \\
 a_{m1}x_1 & + & a_{m2}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{mn}x_n & = & 0
 \end{array}$$

- **Trivial solution:**  $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n = 0$
- **Nontrivial solution:** other solutions

- **Theorem 1: (The Number of Solutions of a Homogeneous System)**

Every homogeneous system of linear equations is **consistent**. Moreover, if the system has **fewer equations** than **variables**, then it must have **infinitely** many solutions.



- Example 13: Solve the following homogeneous system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

augmented matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_2^{(-2)}, r_2^{(-\frac{1}{3})}, r_{21}^{(-1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_3 &= 0 \\ x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

reduced row-echelon form

leading variables:  $x_1, x_2$

letting  $x_3 = t$ , then the solutions are:

free variable:  $x_3$

$$\{(-2t, -t, t) | t \in R\}$$

when  $t = 0$ ,  $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$  (trivial solution)

### 3. Matrices and Matrix Operations

$$A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in M_{m \times n}(R \text{ or } C)$$

Matrix of size  $m \times n$

$$r_i = [a_{i1} \quad a_{i2} \quad \cdots \quad a_{in}] \quad c_j = \begin{bmatrix} c_{1j} \\ c_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ c_{mj} \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_n) = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

row matrix

column matrix

Diagonal matrix

- If  $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ , then  $Tr(A) = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$  **Trace of a Matrix**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & i \\ 3 & 2i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i & -i & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2}i \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1 \\ i & 1-i \end{bmatrix}$$

**Complex matrices**

- **Equal matrix:** If  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ ,  $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ , then

$A = B$  if and only if  $a_{ij} = b_{ij} \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

If  $A = B$  Then  $a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4$

- **Matrix addition:**

If  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ ,  $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ , then  $A + B = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [b_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1+1 & 2+3 \\ 0-1 & 1+2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-1 \\ -3+3 \\ -2+2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Scalar multiplication:** If  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ ,  $c$ : scalar, then  $cA = [ca_{ij}]_{m \times n}$
- **Matrix subtraction:**  $A - B = A + (-1)B$
- **Example 14: (Scalar multiplication and matrix subtraction)**

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

Find (a)  $3A$ , (b)  $-B$ , (c)  $3A - B$




$$(a) \quad 3A = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ -3 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3(1) & 3(2) & 3(4) \\ 3(-3) & 3(0) & 3(-1) \\ 3(2) & 3(1) & 3(2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & 12 \\ -9 & 0 & -3 \\ 6 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) \quad -B = (-1) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \quad 3A - B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & 12 \\ -9 & 0 & -3 \\ 6 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 12 \\ -10 & 4 & -6 \\ 7 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Matrix multiplication:** If  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ ,  $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$ , then  $AB = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} [b_{ij}]_{n \times p} = [c_{ij}]_{m \times p}$

where  $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj} = a_{i1} b_{1j} + a_{i2} b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in} b_{nj}$

  
Size of  $AB$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & \dots & b_{2j} & \dots & b_{2p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & \dots & b_{nj} & \dots & b_{np} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & \dots & c_{1j} & \dots & c_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{i1} & \dots & c_{ij} & \dots & c_{ip} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & \dots & c_{mj} & \dots & c_{mp} \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Notes:** (1)  $A + B = B + A$ , (2)  $AB \neq BA$
- **Example 15: (Find  $AB$ )**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 4 & -2 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (-1)(-3) + (3)(-4) & (-1)(2) + (3)(1) \\ (4)(-3) + (-2)(-4) & (4)(2) + (-2)(1) \\ (5)(-3) + (0)(-4) & (5)(2) + (0)(1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 & 1 \\ -4 & 6 \\ -15 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Properties of Matrix Operations

- **Zero matrix:**  $O_{m \times n}$
- **Identity matrix of order  $n$ :**  $I_n$
- Properties of matrix addition and scalar multiplication: If  $A, B, C \in M_{m \times n}$ , then
 

<p>(1) <math>A + B = B + A</math></p> <p>(2) <math>A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C</math></p> <p>(3) <math>(cd)A = c(dA)</math></p>	<p>(4) <math>1A = A</math></p> <p>(5) <math>c(A + B) = cA + cB</math></p> <p>(6) <math>(c + d)A = cA + dA</math></p>
---	--
- Properties of zero matrices: If  $A \in M_{m \times n}$ ,  $c$  scalar, then
 

(1) $A + O_{m \times n} = A$	(2) $A + (-A) = O_{m \times n}$	(3) $cA = O_{m \times n} \Rightarrow c = 0$ or $A = O_{m \times n}$
------------------------------	---------------------------------	---
- **Notes:**
  - (1)  $O_{m \times n}$ : **the additive identity** for the set of all  $m \times n$  matrices.
  - (2)  $-A$ : **the additive inverse** of  $A$ .

- Properties of matrix multiplication:

(1)  $A(BC) = (AB)C$

(2)  $A(B + C) = AB + AC$

(3)  $(A + B)C = AC + BC$

(4)  $c(AB) = (cA)B = A(cB)$

- Properties of identity matrix: If  $A \in M_{m \times n}$ , then

(1)  $AI_n = A$

(2)  $I_m A = A$

- Transpose of a matrix:

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in M_{m \times n} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in M_{n \times m}$



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Properties of transposes:

$$(1) (A^T)^T = A$$

$$(2) (A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$(3) (cA)^T = c(A)^T$$

$$(4) (AB)^T = B^T + A^T$$

- A square matrix  $A$  is **symmetric** if  $A^T = A$

- A square matrix  $A$  is **skew-symmetric** if  $A^T = -A$

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ a & 4 & 5 \\ b & c & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  is symmetric, find  $a, b, c$ ?  
 $A = A^T \Rightarrow a = 2, b = 3, c = 5$

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ a & 0 & 3 \\ b & c & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is a skew-symmetric, find  $a, b, c$ ?  
 $A = -A^T \Rightarrow a = -1, b = -2, c = -3$

■ **Notes:**

(1)  $AA^T$  is symmetric.

(2) Every square matrix  $A \in M_n(R)$  can be expressed as the sum of a symmetric matrix  $B$  and a skew-symmetric matrix  $C$ .

$$B = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T), \quad C = \frac{1}{2}(A - A^T)$$

- Noncommutativity of Matrix Multiplication

$AB \neq BA$  Three situations:  
 $m \times n \quad n \times p$

(1) If  $m \neq p$ , then  $AB$  is defined,  $BA$  is undefined

(2) If  $m = p$ ,  $m \neq n$ , then  $AB \in M_{m \times m}$ ,  $BA \in M_{n \times n}$  (Sizes are not the same)

(3) If  $m = p = n$ , then  $AB \in M_{m \times m}$ ,  $BA \in M_{m \times m}$  (Sizes are the same,  $AB \neq BA$ )

- Example 16: ( $AB$  and  $BA$  are not equal)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 4 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 7 \\ 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB \neq BA$$

- Cancellation Law

$$AC=BC, C \neq O$$

(1) If  $C$  is invertible, then  $A = B$  (Cancellation is valid)

(2) If  $C$  is not invertible, then  $A \neq B$  (Cancellation is not valid)

- **Example 17: (An example in which cancellation is not valid)**

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

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad BC = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So  $AC = BC$  but  $A \neq B$

## 4. The Inverse of a Matrix

Consider  $A \in M_n$ . If there exists a matrix  $B \in M_n$  such that  $AB = BA = I_n$ , then

(1)  $A$  is **invertible** (or **nonsingular**)      (2)  $B$  is the **inverse** of  $A$

- **Note:** A matrix that does not have an inverse is called **noninvertible** (or **singular**).

- **Notes:**

(1) The inverse of a matrix is unique.

(2) The inverse of  $A$  is denoted by  $A^{-1}$ ,      (3)  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ .

- Find the inverse of a matrix by Gauss-Jordan Elimination:

$$\left[ A \mid I \right] \longrightarrow \left[ I \mid A^{-1} \right] \quad \text{Gauss-Jordan Elimination}$$

- **Note:** If  $A$  can't be row reduced to  $I$ , then  $A$  is singular.

- Example 18: (Find the inverse of the following matrix)

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

$$[A \ : \ I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & \vdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -6 & 2 & 3 & \vdots & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{r_{12}^{(-1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -6 & 2 & 3 & \vdots & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{13}^{(6)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 3 & \vdots & 6 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{r_{23}^{(4)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & \vdots & 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_3^{(-1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & -2 & -4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{r_{32}^{(1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \vdots & -3 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & -2 & -4 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{21}^{(1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \vdots & -2 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \vdots & -3 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & -2 & -4 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \left[ I \ : \ A^{-1} \right]$$

So the matrix  $A$  is invertible, and its inverse is  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -3 & -1 \\ -3 & -3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

■ Power of a square matrix:

(1)  $A^0 = I$

(2)  $A^k = \underbrace{AA \cdots A}_{k \text{ factors}} \quad (k > 0)$

(3)  $A^r \cdot A^s = A^{r+s} \quad r, s: \text{integers}$

(4)  $(A^r)^s = A^{rs}$

(5)  $D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & d_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow D^k = \begin{bmatrix} d_1^k & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2^k & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & d_n^k \end{bmatrix}$

- **Theorem 2: (Properties of inverse matrices)**

If  $A$  is an invertible matrix,  $k$  is a positive integer, and  $c$  is a scalar  $\neq 0$ , then

(1)  $A^{-1}$  is invertible and  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

(2)  $A^k$  is invertible and  $(A^k)^{-1} = \underbrace{A^{-1}A^{-1}\cdots A^{-1}}_{k \text{ factors}} = (A^{-1})^k = A^{-k}$

(3)  $cA$  is invertible and  $(cA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}A^{-1}$ ,  $c \neq 0$

(4)  $A^T$  is invertible and  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

- **Theorem 3: (The inverse of a product)**

If  $A, B \in M_n$  are invertible matrices, then  $AB$  is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$



- **Note:**  $(A_1 A_2 A_3 \cdots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1} \cdots A_3^{-1} A_2^{-1} A_1^{-1}$

- **Theorem 4: (Cancellation properties)**

If  $C$  is an invertible matrix, then the following properties hold:

(1) If  $AC = BC$ , then  $A = B$  (Right cancellation property)

(2) If  $CA = CB$ , then  $A = B$  (Left cancellation property)

- **Note:** If  $C$  is not invertible, then cancellation is not valid.

- **Theorem 5: (Systems of equations with unique solutions)**

If  $A$  is an invertible matrix, then the system of linear equations  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution given by  $x = A^{-1}b$

- Example 19: Use an inverse matrix to solve each system

$$(a) \begin{cases} 2x + 3y + z = -1 \\ 3x + 3y + z = 1 \\ 2x + 4y + z = -2 \end{cases}$$

$$(b) \begin{cases} 2x + 3y + z = 0 \\ 3x + 3y + z = 0 \\ 2x + 4y + z = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Gauss-Jordan Elimination}} A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(a) \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## 5. Elementary Matrices

- An  $n \times n$  matrix is called an **elementary matrix** if it can be obtained from the identity matrix  $I_n$  by a **single elementary operation**.

- Three elementary matrices:

$$(1) R_{ij} = r_{ij}(I)$$

Interchange two rows

$$(2) R_i^{(k)} = r_i^{(k)}(I) \quad (k \neq 0)$$

Multiply a row by a nonzero constant

$$(3) R_{ij}^{(k)} = r_{ij}^{(k)}(I)$$

Add a multiple of a row to another row

- Note:** Only do a **single** elementary row operation.
- Example 20:** (Elementary matrices and non elementary matrices)

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} r_2^{(2)}(I_2)$$

$$(b) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} r_{12}^{(2)}(I_2)$$

$$(d) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} r_{23}(I_3)$$

$$(e) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(f) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Theorem 6: (Representing elementary row operations)**

Let  $E$  be the **elementary matrix** obtained by performing an elementary row operation on  $I_m$ . If that **same** elementary row operation is performed on an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ , then the resulting matrix is given by  $EA$ . ( $r(I) = E$ ,  $r(A) = EA$ )

- Example 21: (Elementary matrices and elementary row operation)**

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} (r_{12}(A) = R_{12}A)$$

$$(b) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 6 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (r_2^{(\frac{1}{2})}(A) = R_2^{(\frac{1}{2})}A)$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad (r_{12}^{(2)}(A) = R_{12}^{(2)}A)$$

- **Example 22: (Using elementary matrices)**

Find a sequence of elementary matrices that can be used to write the matrix  $A$  in row-echelon form.

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



$$A_1 = r_{12}(A) = E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -6 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_1 = r_{12}(I_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_2 = r_{13}^{(-2)}(A_1) = E_2 A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 = r_{13}^{(-2)}(I_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_3 = r_3^{(\frac{1}{2})}(A_2) = E_3 A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 = r_3^{(\frac{1}{2})}(I_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = E_3 E_2 E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & -6 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -6 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

- **Definition:** A Matrix  $B$  is **row-equivalent** to  $A$  if there exists a finite number of elementary matrices such that:  $B = E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_1 A$ .
- **Theorem 7: (Elementary matrices are invertible)**  
If  $E$  is an elementary matrix, then  $E^{-1}$  exists and is an elementary matrix.
- **Notes:** (1)  $(R_{ij})^{-1} = R_{ij}$       (2)  $(R_i^{(k)})^{-1} = R_i^{(1/k)}$       (3)  $(R_{ij}^{(k)})^{-1} = R_{ij}^{(-k)}$

- Example 23: (Inverse of elementary matrices)

### Elementary Matrix

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = R_{12}$$

$$E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = R_{13}^{(-2)}$$

$$E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = R_3^{(\frac{1}{2})}$$

### Inverse Matrix

$$(R_{12})^{-1} = E_1^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = R_{12}$$

$$(R_{13}^{(-2)})^{-1} = E_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = R_{13}^{(2)}$$

$$(R_3^{(\frac{1}{2})})^{-1} = E_3^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = R_3^{(2)}$$



- Theorem 8: (A property of invertible matrices)**

A square matrix  $A$  is invertible if and only if it can be written as the product of elementary matrices.

- Example 24: Find a sequence of elementary matrices whose product is**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_1^{(-1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{12}^{(-3)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_2^{(1/2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{21}^{(-2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\text{Therefore } R_{21}^{(-2)} R_2^{(1/2)} R_{12}^{(-3)} R_1^{(-1)} A = I$$

$$\text{Thus } A = (R_1^{(-1)})^{-1} (R_{12}^{(-3)})^{-1} (R_2^{(1/2)})^{-1} (R_{21}^{(-2)})^{-1} = R_1^{(-1)} R_{12}^{(3)} R_2^{(2)} R_{21}^{(2)}$$

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

- **Note:** If  $A$  is invertible then

$$E_k \cdots E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I \quad A^{-1} = E_k \cdots E_3 E_2 E_1 \quad A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1}$$

- **Theorem 9: (Equivalent conditions)**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1)  $A$  is invertible.
- (2)  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution for every  $n \times 1$  column matrix  $b$ .
- (3)  $Ax = 0$  has only the trivial solution.
- (4)  $A$  is row-equivalent to  $I_n$ .
- (5)  $A$  can be written as the product of elementary matrices.

- ***LU*-factorization:**

If the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be written as the product of a lower triangular matrix  $L$  and an upper triangular matrix  $U$ , then  $A = LU$  is an *LU*-factorization of  $A$

- **Note:** If a square matrix  $A$  can be row reduced to an upper triangular matrix  $U$  using only the row operation of adding a multiple of one row to another row below it, then it is easy to find an *LU*-factorization of  $A$ .

$$E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = U \Rightarrow A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1} U = LU \quad (L = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1})$$

- **Example 25: (*LU*-factorization)**

$$(a) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -10 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{12}^{(-1)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = U = R_{12}^{(-1)} A \Rightarrow A = (R_{12}^{(-1)})^{-1} U = LU$$

$$\Rightarrow L = (R_{12}^{(-1)})^{-1} = R_{12}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -10 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{13}^{(-2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{r_{23}^{(4)}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{23}^{(4)} R_{13}^{(-2)} A = U \Rightarrow A = (R_{13}^{(-2)})^{-1} (R_{23}^{(4)})^{-1} U = LU$$

$$\Rightarrow L = (R_{13}^{(-2)})^{-1} (R_{23}^{(4)})^{-1} = R_{13}^{(2)} R_{23}^{(-4)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Solving  $Ax = b$  with an  $LU$ -factorization of  $A$

$Ax = b$  If  $A = LU$ , then  $LUx = b$  Let  $y = Ux$ , then  $Ly = b$ , two steps:

(1) Write  $y = Ux$ , and solve  $Ly = b$  for  $y$  using **forward** substitution.

(2) Solve  $Ux = y$  for  $x$  using **backward** substitution.

- Example 26: (Solving a linear system using  $LU$ -factorization)

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 3x_2 &= -5 \\ x_2 + 3x_3 &= -1 \\ 2x_1 - 10x_2 + 2x_3 &= -20 \end{aligned}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -10 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

(1) Let  $y = Ux$ , and solve  $Ly = b$  for  $y$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ -1 \\ -20 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} y_1 &= -5 \\ y_2 &= -1 \\ y_3 &= -20 - 2y_1 + 4y_2 = -14 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Solve the following system  $Ux = y$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ -1 \\ -14 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} x_3 &= -1 \\ x_2 &= -1 - 3x_3 = -1 - (3)(-1) = 2 \\ x_1 &= -5 + 3x_2 = -5 + 3(2) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the solution is  $x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

## 6. Complex Matrices

- Conjugate of a matrix:**  $A \in M_{m \times n}(C) = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} \Rightarrow \bar{A} \in M_{m \times n}(C) = [\bar{a}_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1 \\ i & 1-i \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 1 \\ -i & 1+i \end{bmatrix}$$

- Properties of the conjugate of a matrix:**

$$(1) \overline{\bar{A}} = A \quad (2) \overline{A \pm B} = \bar{A} \pm \bar{B} \quad (3) \overline{AB} = \bar{A} \bar{B}$$

$$(4) \overline{cA} = \bar{c} \bar{A}, \quad c \in C \quad (5) (\bar{A})^T = \overline{A^T}$$

$$(6) \text{ If } A \text{ is invertible, then } (\bar{A})^{-1} = \overline{A^{-1}}$$

- Conjugate transpose of a matrix:**  $A \in M_{m \times n}(C) \Rightarrow A^* = \overline{A^T} \in M_{n \times m}(C)$



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & -i & 0 \\ 2 & 3-2i & i \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^* = \overline{A^T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 2 \\ i & 3+2i \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Properties of the conjugate transpose:**

(1)  $(A^*)^* = A$

(2)  $(A \pm B)^* = A^* \pm B^*$

(3)  $(AB)^* = B^*A^*$

(4)  $(cA)^* = \bar{c}A^*$ ,  $c \in C$

- A square matrix  $A \in M_n(C)$  is **Hermitian** if  $A^* = A$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2+i & 4 \\ 2-i & 3 & i \\ 4 & -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A^*$$



- A square matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  is **skew-Hermitian** if  $A^* = -A$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -i & 2+i \\ -2+i & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -A^*$$

- **Notes:**

(1) Diagonal entries of an Hermitian matrix are real.

(2) Diagonal entries of a Skew-Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary or zero.

(3) Every square matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  can be expressed as the sum of a Hermitian matrix  $B$  and a skew-Hermitian matrix  $C$ .

$$B = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^*), \quad C = \frac{1}{2}(A - A^*)$$

## Applications

- Systems of linear equations arise in a wide variety of applications.
  - **Fitting** a **polynomial** function to a **set of data points** in the plane.
  - **Networks** and **Kirchhoff's** Laws for electricity.
  - **Solving puzzles** (Sudoku puzzles).
- Matrices are used in **cryptography** to **encode** and **decode** information.
- Matrices are used in Finding the **least squares regression** line for a set of data.
- Matrix algebra is used to analyze an **economic system**.