Week 18 Algebra, Vectors, and Matrices continued Reading Note 1

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Cornell Notes	**Topic:** **Algebra, Vectors, and Matrices continued**	Course: BSc Computer Science Class: Computational Mathematics[Reading] Date: July 28, 2020

Essential Question:

What are vectors and matrices?

Questions/Cues:

- What is a matrix?
- What are the augmented and coefficient matrices?
- What are elementary row operations?
- What is Row-Echelon and Reduced Row-Echelon Form?
- What is Gaussian Elimination with Back-Substitution?
- What is a system of linear equations with no solution?
- What is Gauss-Jordan Elimination?
- How do we represent matrices?
- What is Matrix addition?
- What is scalar multiplication?
- What are the properties of Matrix Addition and Scalar Multiplication?
- What is the zero matrix and the additive identity?
- What is matrix multiplication?
- What are properties of matrix multiplication?
- What is the definition of the identity matrix?
- What is the inverse of a matrix?
- What are the steps to finding an inverse matrix?
- What is formula for the inverse of a 2 x 2 matrix?
- What is a system of equation with a unique solution?
- What is the determinant of a 2 x 2 matrix?
- What are Cofactors and Minors?
- What is the determinant of a matrix greater than 2 x 2?

Notes

Definition of Matrix

If m and n are positive integers, then an $m \times n$ (read "m by n") matrix is a rectangular array

$$\begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{ccccc} \text{Column 1} & \text{Column 2} & \text{Column 3} & \ldots & \text{Column } n \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{Row 1} \\ \text{Row 2} \\ \text{Row 3} \\ \vdots \\ \text{Row } m \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \ldots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \ldots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \ldots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \ldots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

in which each **entry** a_{ij} of the matrix is a number. An $m \times n$ matrix has m rows and n columns.

A matrix derived from a system of linear equations (each written in standard form with the constant term on the right) is the **augmented matrix** of the system. Moreover, the matrix derived from the coefficients of the system (but not including the constant terms) is the **coefficient matrix** of the system.

$$\textit{System:} \begin{cases} x - 4y + 3z = 5 \\ -x + 3y - z = -3 \\ 2x \qquad - 4z = 6 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}\textit{Augmented} \\ \textit{matrix:}\end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 & \vdots & 5 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & \vdots & -3 \\ 2 & 0 & -4 & \vdots & 6 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c}\textit{Coefficient} \\ \textit{matrix:}\end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note the use of 0 for the coefficient of the missing y-variable in the third equation, and also note the fourth column of constant terms in the augmented matrix.

When forming either the coefficient matrix or the augmented matrix of a system, you should begin by vertically aligning the variables in the equations and using zeros for the coefficients of the missing variables.

The entry in the ith row and jth column of a matrix is denoted by the *double subscript* notation a_{ij}. For example, a_{23} refers to the entry in the second row, third column. A matrix having m rows and n columns is said to be of **dimension** $m \times n$. If $m = n$, then the matrix is **square** of dimension $m \times m$ (or $n \times n$). For a square matrix, the entries $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \ldots$ are the **main diagonal** entries. A matrix with only one row is called a **row matrix,** and a matrix with only one column is called a **column matrix.**

EXAMPLE 1 Dimensions of Matrices

Determine the dimension of each matrix.

a. $[2]$ **b.** $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ **c.** $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ **d.** $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 \\ -7 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution

a. This matrix has *one* row and *one* column. The dimension of the matrix is 1×1.

b. This matrix has *one* row and *four* columns. The dimension of the matrix is 1×4.

c. This matrix has *two* rows and *two* columns. The dimension of the matrix is 2×2.

d. This matrix has *three* rows and *two* columns. The dimension of the matrix is 3×2.

EXAMPLE 2 Writing an Augmented Matrix

Write the augmented matrix for the system of linear equations.

$$\begin{cases} x + 3y - w = 9 \\ -y + 4z + 2w = -2 \\ x - 5z - 6w = 0 \\ 2x + 4y - 3z = 4 \end{cases}$$

What is the dimension of the augmented matrix?

Solution

Begin by rewriting the linear system and aligning the variables.

$$\begin{cases} x + 3y - w = 9 \\ -y + 4z + 2w = -2 \\ x - 5z - 6w = 0 \\ 2x + 4y - 3z = 4 \end{cases}$$

Next, use the coefficients and constant terms as the matrix entries. Include zeros for the coefficients of the missing variables.

$$\begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ R_2 \\ R_3 \\ R_4 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{cccc:c} 1 & 3 & 0 & -1 & 9 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -5 & -6 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 0 & 4 \end{array}\right]$$

The augmented matrix has four rows and five columns, so it is a 4×5 matrix. The notation R_n is used to designate each row in the matrix. For example, Row 1 is represented by R_1.

Elementary Row Operations

In Section 7.3, you studied three operations that can be used on a system of linear equations to produce an equivalent system.

1. Interchange two equations.
2. Multiply an equation by a nonzero constant.
3. Add a multiple of an equation to another equation.

In matrix terminology, these three operations correspond to **elementary row operations.** An elementary row operation on an augmented matrix of a given system of linear equations produces a new augmented matrix corresponding to a new (but equivalent) system of linear equations. Two matrices are **row-equivalent** when one can be obtained from the other by a sequence of elementary row operations.

Elementary Row Operations

Operation	Notation
1. Interchange two rows.	$R_a \leftrightarrow R_b$
2. Multiply a row by a nonzero constant.	$cR_a \quad (c \neq 0)$
3. Add a multiple of a row to another row.	$cR_a + R_b$

EXAMPLE 3 Elementary Row Operations

a. Interchange the first and second rows of the original matrix.

Original Matrix

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

New Row-Equivalent Matrix

$$\begin{array}{r} R_2 \\ R_1 \\ \end{array}\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & -3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

b. Multiply the first row of the original matrix by $\frac{1}{2}$.

Original Matrix

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

New Row-Equivalent Matrix

$$\begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{2}R_1 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

c. Add -2 times the first row of the original matrix to the third row.

Original Matrix

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

New Row-Equivalent Matrix

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ -2R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow \end{array}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & -3 & 13 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that the elementary row operation is written beside the row that is *changed*.

EXAMPLE 4 **Comparing Linear Systems and Matrix Operations**

Linear System	Associated Augmented Matrix
$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ -x + 3y = -4 \\ 2x - 5y + 5z = 17 \end{cases}$	$\left[\begin{array}{rrr\vdots r} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 & -4 \\ 2 & -5 & 5 & 17 \end{array}\right]$
Add the first equation to the second equation.	Add the first row to the second row: $R_1 + R_2$.
$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \\ 2x - 5y + 5z = 17 \end{cases}$	$\begin{array}{r} \\ R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrr\vdots r} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 5 & 17 \end{array}\right]$
Add -2 times the first equation to the third equation.	Add -2 times the first row to the third row: $-2R_1 + R_3$.
$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \\ -y - z = -1 \end{cases}$	$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ -2R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrr\vdots r} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -1 \end{array}\right]$
Add the second equation to the third equation.	Add the second row to the third row: $R_2 + R_3$.
$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \\ 2z = 4 \end{cases}$	$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ R_2 + R_3 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrr\vdots r} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{array}\right]$
Multiply the third equation by $\frac{1}{2}$.	Multiply the third row by $\frac{1}{2}$: $\frac{1}{2}R_3$.
$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ y + 3z = 5 \\ z = 2 \end{cases}$	$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ \frac{1}{2}R_3 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrr\vdots r} 1 & -2 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array}\right]$

At this point, use back-substitution to find x and y.

$$y + 3(2) = 5 \qquad \text{Substitute 2 for } z.$$

$$y = -1 \qquad \text{Solve for } y.$$

$$x - 2(-1) + 3(2) = 9 \qquad \text{Substitute } -1 \text{ for } y \text{ and 2 for } z.$$

$$x = 1 \qquad \text{Solve for } x.$$

The solution is $(1, -1, 2)$.

The last matrix in Example 4 is in *row-echelon form.* The term *echelon* refers to the stair-step pattern formed by the nonzero entries of the matrix. The row-echelon form and *reduced row-echelon form* of matrices are described below.

Row-Echelon Form and Reduced Row-Echelon Form

A matrix in **row-echelon form** has the following properties.

1. Any rows 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.

A matrix in *row-echelon form* is in **reduced row-echelon form** when every column that has a leading 1 has zeros in every position above and below its leading 1.

It is worth noting that the row-echelon form of a matrix is not unique. That is, two different sequences of elementary row operations may yield different row-echelon forms. The *reduced* row-echelon form of a matrix, however, is unique.

EXAMPLE 5 Row-Echelon Form

Determine whether each matrix is in row-echelon form. If it is, determine whether it is in reduced row-echelon form.

a. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ **b.** $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

c. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ **d.** $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

e. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ **f.** $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution The matrices in (a), (c), (d), and (f) are in row-echelon form. The matrices in (d) and (f) are in *reduced* row-echelon form because every column that has a leading 1 has zeros in every position above and below its leading 1. The matrix in (b) is not in row-echelon form because a row of all zeros occurs above a row that is not all zeros. The matrix in (e) is not in row-echelon form because the first nonzero entry in Row 2 is not a leading 1.

Every matrix is row-equivalent to a matrix in row-echelon form. For instance, in Example 5, you can change the matrix in part (e) to row-echelon form by multiplying its second row by $\frac{1}{2}$.

Gaussian elimination with back-substitution works well for solving systems of linear equations by hand or with a computer. For this algorithm, the order in which the elementary row operations are performed is important. You should operate from left to right by columns, using elementary row operations to obtain zeros in all entries directly below the leading 1's.

Gaussian Elimination with Back-Substitution

1. Write the augmented matrix of the system of linear equations.
2. Use elementary row operations to rewrite the augmented matrix in row-echelon form.
3. Write the system of linear equations corresponding to the matrix in row-echelon form and use back-substitution to find the solution.

EXAMPLE 6 Gaussian Elimination with Back-Substitution

Solve the system

$$\begin{cases} y + z - 2w = -3 \\ x + 2y - z = 2 \\ 2x + 4y + z - 3w = -2 \\ x - 4y - 7z - w = -19 \end{cases}.$$

Solution

$$\left[\begin{array}{rrrrcr} 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & \vdots & -3 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & -3 & \vdots & -2 \\ 1 & -4 & -7 & -1 & \vdots & -19 \end{array}\right]$$

Write augmented matrix.

$$\begin{array}{r} R_2 \\ R_1 \\ \\ \\ \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrrrcr} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & \vdots & -3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & -3 & \vdots & -2 \\ 1 & -4 & -7 & -1 & \vdots & -19 \end{array}\right]$$

Interchange R_1 and R_2 so first column has leading 1 in upper left corner.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ -2R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow \\ -R_1 + R_4 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrrrcr} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & \vdots & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 & \vdots & -6 \\ 0 & -6 & -6 & -1 & \vdots & -21 \end{array}\right]$$

Perform operations on R_3 and R_4 so first column has zeros below its leading 1.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ \\ 6R_2 + R_4 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrrrcr} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & \vdots & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -3 & \vdots & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -13 & \vdots & -39 \end{array}\right]$$

Perform operations on R_4 so second column has zeros below its leading 1.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ \frac{1}{3}R_3 \rightarrow \\ -\frac{1}{13}R_4 \rightarrow \end{array}\left[\begin{array}{rrrrcr} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & \vdots & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & 3 \end{array}\right]$$

Perform operations on R_3 and R_4 so third and fourth columns have leading 1's.

The matrix is now in row-echelon form, and the corresponding system is

$$\begin{cases} x + 2y - z = 2 \\ y + z - 2w = -3 \\ z - w = -2 \\ w = 3 \end{cases}.$$

Using back-substitution, the solution is $(-1, 2, 1, 3)$.

When solving a system of linear equations, remember that it is possible for the system to have no solution. If, in the elimination process, you obtain a row of all zeros except for the last entry, then the system has no solution, or is *inconsistent*.

EXAMPLE 7 A System with No Solution

Solve the system $\begin{cases} x - y + 2z = 4 \\ x + z = 6 \\ 2x - 3y + 5z = 4 \\ 3x + 2y - z = 1 \end{cases}$

Solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & \vdots & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & 6 \\ 2 & -3 & 5 & \vdots & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 & \vdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$ Write augmented matrix.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ -R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ -2R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow \\ -3R_1 + R_4 \rightarrow \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & \vdots & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \vdots & -4 \\ 0 & 5 & -7 & \vdots & -11 \end{bmatrix}$$ Perform row operations.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ R_2 + R_3 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 & \vdots & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \vdots & -2 \\ 0 & 5 & -7 & \vdots & -11 \end{bmatrix}$$ Perform row operations.

Note that the third row of this matrix consists entirely of zeros except for the last entry. This means that the original system of linear equations is inconsistent. You can see why this is true by converting back to a system of linear equations.

$$\begin{cases} x - y + 2z = 4 \\ y - z = 2 \\ 0 = -2 \\ 5y - 7z = -11 \end{cases}$$

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

Gauss-Jordan Elimination

With Gaussian elimination, elementary row operations are applied to a matrix to obtain a (row-equivalent) row-echelon form of the matrix. A second method of elimination, called **Gauss-Jordan elimination,** after Carl Friedrich Gauss and Wilhelm Jordan (1842–1899), continues the reduction process until the *reduced* row-echelon form is obtained. This procedure is demonstrated in Example 8.

EXAMPLE 8 Gauss-Jordan Elimination

See LarsonPrecalculus.com for an interactive version of this type of example.

Use Gauss-Jordan elimination to solve the system $\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 9 \\ -x + 3y = -4. \\ 2x - 5y + 5z = 17 \end{cases}$

Solution In Example 4, Gaussian elimination was used to obtain the row-echelon form of the linear system above.

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

Now, rather than using back-substitution, apply elementary row operations until you obtain zeros above each of the leading 1's.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2R_2 + R_1 \rightarrow \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 9 & \vdots & 19 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & \vdots & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Perform operations on R_1 so second column has a zero above its leading 1.

$$\begin{array}{r} -9R_3 + R_1 \rightarrow \\ -3R_3 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \vdots & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \vdots & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \vdots & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Perform operations on R_1 and R_2 so third column has zeros above its leading 1.

The matrix is now in reduced row-echelon form. Converting back to a system of linear equations, you have

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = -1. \\ z = 2 \end{cases}$$

So, the solution is $(1, -1, 2)$.

The elimination procedures described in this section sometimes result in fractional coefficients. For example, consider the system

$$\begin{cases} 2x - 5y + 5z = 17 \\ 3x - 2y + 3z = 11. \\ -3x + 3y = -6 \end{cases}$$

Multiplying the first row by $\frac{1}{2}$ to produce a leading 1 results in fractional coefficients. You can sometimes avoid fractions by judiciously choosing the order in which you apply elementary row operations.

EXAMPLE 9 **A System with an Infinite Number of Solutions**

Solve the system $\begin{cases} 2x + 4y - 2z = 0 \\ 3x + 5y \qquad = 1 \end{cases}$.

Solution

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

$$\tfrac{1}{2}R_1 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & \vdots & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & \vdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-3R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & \vdots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & \vdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-R_2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & \vdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & \vdots & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-2R_2 + R_1 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 & \vdots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & \vdots & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The corresponding system of equations is

$$\begin{cases} x + 5z = 2 \\ y - 3z = -1 \end{cases}.$$

Solving for x and y in terms of z, you have

$$x = -5z + 2 \quad \text{and} \quad y = 3z - 1.$$

To write a solution of the system that does not use any of the three variables of the system, let a represent any real number and let $z = a$. Substitute a for z in the equations for x and y.

$$x = -5z + 2 = -5a + 2 \quad \text{and} \quad y = 3z - 1 = 3a - 1$$

So, the solution set can be written as an ordered triple of the form

$$(-5a + 2, 3a - 1, a)$$

where a is any real number. Remember that a solution set of this form represents an infinite number of solutions. Substitute values for a to obtain a few solutions. Then check each solution in the original system of equations.

Representation of Matrices

1. A matrix can be denoted by an uppercase letter such as A, B, or C.
2. A matrix can be denoted by a representative element enclosed in brackets, such as $[a_{ij}]$, $[b_{ij}]$, or $[c_{ij}]$.
3. A matrix can be denoted by a rectangular array of numbers such as

$$A = [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Two matrices $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are **equal** when they have the same dimension ($m \times n$) and $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$ for $1 \le i \le m$ and $1 \le j \le n$. In other words, two matrices are equal when their corresponding entries are equal.

EXAMPLE 1 Equality of Matrices

Solve for a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{21}, and a_{22} in the matrix equation $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution Two matrices are equal when their corresponding entries are equal, so $a_{11} = 2$, $a_{12} = -1$, $a_{21} = -3$, and $a_{22} = 0$.

Be sure you see that for two matrices to be equal, they must have the same dimension *and* their corresponding entries must be equal. For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ \sqrt{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{but} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Definition of Matrix Addition

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are matrices of dimension $m \times n$, then their sum is the $m \times n$ matrix

$$A + B = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}].$$

The sum of two matrices of different dimensions is undefined.

EXAMPLE 2 Addition of Matrices

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

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

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

d. The sum of

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

is undefined because A is of dimension 3×3 and B is of dimension 3×2.

In operations with matrices, numbers are usually referred to as **scalars.** In this text, scalars will always be real numbers. To multiply a matrix A by a scalar c, multiply each entry in A by c.

Definition of Scalar Multiplication

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is an $m \times n$ matrix and c is a scalar, then the **scalar multiple** of A by c is the $m \times n$ matrix

$$cA = [ca_{ij}].$$

The symbol $-A$ represents the **negation** of A, which is the scalar product $(-1)A$. Moreover, if A and B are of the same dimension, then $A - B$ represents the sum of A and $(-1)B$. That is,

$$A - B = A + (-1)B. \qquad \text{Subtraction of matrices}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Operations with Matrices

For the matrices below, find (a) $3A$, (b) $-B$, and (c) $3A - B$.

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

Solution

a. $$3A = 3\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 4 \\ -3 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Scalar multiplication}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3(2) & 3(2) & 3(4) \\ 3(-3) & 3(0) & 3(-1) \\ 3(2) & 3(1) & 3(2) \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Multiply each entry by 3.}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 & 12 \\ -9 & 0 & -3 \\ 6 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Simplify.}$$

b. $$-B = (-1)\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Definition of negation}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Multiply each entry by } -1.$$

c. $$3A - B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 & 12 \\ -9 & 0 & -3 \\ 6 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad 3A - B = 3A + (-1)B$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 & 12 \\ -10 & 4 & -6 \\ 7 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Add corresponding entries.}$$

It is often convenient to rewrite the scalar multiple cA by factoring c out of every entry in the matrix. The example below shows factoring the scalar $\frac{1}{2}$ out of a matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{5}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(1) & \frac{1}{2}(-3) \\ \frac{1}{2}(5) & \frac{1}{2}(1) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The properties of matrix addition and scalar multiplication are similar to those of addition and multiplication of real numbers.

Properties of Matrix Addition and Scalar Multiplication

Let A, B, and C be $m \times n$ matrices and let c and d be scalars.

1. $A + B = B + A$ — Commutative Property of Matrix Addition
2. $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$ — Associative Property of Matrix Addition
3. $(cd)A = c(dA)$ — Associative Property of Scalar Multiplication
4. $1A = A$ — Scalar Identity Property
5. $c(A + B) = cA + cB$ — Distributive Property
6. $(c + d)A = cA + dA$ — Distributive Property

Note that the Associative Property of Matrix Addition allows you to write expressions such as $A + B + C$ without ambiguity because the same sum occurs no matter how the matrices are grouped. This same reasoning applies to sums of four or more matrices.

EXAMPLE 4 Addition of More than Two Matrices

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

Add corresponding entries.

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluating an Expression

$$\begin{aligned} 3\left(\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\right) &= 3\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + 3\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 0 \\ 12 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 12 & -6 \\ 9 & 21 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -6 \\ 21 & 24 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

In Example 5, you could add the two matrices first and then multiply the resulting matrix by 3. The result would be the same.

One important property of addition of real numbers is that the number 0 is the additive identity. That is, $c + 0 = c$ for any real number c. For matrices, a similar property holds. That is, if A is an $m \times n$ matrix and O is the $m \times n$ **zero matrix** consisting entirely of zeros, then

$$A + O = A.$$

In other words, O is the **additive identity** for the set of all $m \times n$ matrices. For example, the matrices below are the additive identities for the sets of all 2×3 and 2×2 matrices.

$$O = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 3 \text{ zero matrix}} \quad \text{and} \quad O = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{2 \times 2 \text{ zero matrix}}$$

The algebra of real numbers and the algebra of matrices have many similarities. For example, compare the solutions below.

Real Numbers (Solve for x.)	**$m \times n$ Matrices (Solve for X.)**
$x + a = b$	$X + A = B$
$x + a + (-a) = b + (-a)$	$X + A + (-A) = B + (-A)$
$x + 0 = b - a$	$X + O = B - A$
$x = b - a$	$X = B - A$

EXAMPLE 6 Solving a Matrix Equation

Solve for X in the equation $3X + A = B$, where

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

Solution Begin by solving the matrix equation for X.

$$3X + A = B$$
$$3X = B - A$$
$$X = \tfrac{1}{3}(B - A)$$

Now, substituting the matrices A and B, you have

$$X = \frac{1}{3}\left(\begin{bmatrix} -3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\right) \qquad \text{Substitute the matrices.}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 6 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Subtract matrix } A \text{ from matrix } B.$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{4}{3} & 2 \\ \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Multiply the resulting matrix by } \tfrac{1}{3}.$$

Matrix Multiplication

Another basic matrix operation is **matrix multiplication.** At first glance, the definition may seem unusual. You will see later, however, that this definition of the product of two matrices has many practical applications.

> **Definition of Matrix Multiplication**
>
> If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is an $m \times n$ matrix and $B = [b_{ij}]$ is an $n \times p$ matrix, then the product AB is an $m \times p$ matrix given by $AB = [c_{ij}]$, where
> $c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + a_{i3}b_{3j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj}$.

$$\underbrace{\underset{m \times n}{A} \times \underbrace{\underset{n \times p}{B}}_{\text{Equal}}}_{\text{Dimension of } AB} = \underset{m \times p}{AB}$$

The definition of matrix multiplication uses a *row-by-column multiplication*, where the entry in the ith row and jth column of the product AB is obtained by multiplying the entries in the ith row of A by the corresponding entries in the jth column of B and then adding the results. So, for the product of two matrices to be defined, the number of columns of the first matrix must equal the number of rows of the second matrix. That is, the middle two indices must be the same. The outside two indices give the dimension of the product, as shown at the left. The general pattern for matrix multiplication is shown below.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & a_{i3} & \cdots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1j} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2j} & \cdots & b_{2p} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & \cdots & b_{3j} & \cdots & b_{3p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & b_{nj} & \cdots & b_{np} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \cdots & c_{1j} & \cdots & c_{1p} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \cdots & c_{2j} & \cdots & c_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{i1} & c_{i2} & \cdots & c_{ij} & \cdots & c_{ip} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & \cdots & c_{mj} & \cdots & c_{mp} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + a_{i3}b_{3j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj} = c_{ij}$$

EXAMPLE 7 Finding the Product of Two Matrices

Find the product AB, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 4 & -2 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution To find the entries of the product, multiply each row of A by each column of B.

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (-1)(-3) + 3(-4) & (-1)(2) + 3(1) \\ 4(-3) + (-2)(-4) & 4(2) + (-2)(1) \\ 5(-3) + 0(-4) & 5(2) + 0(1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -9 & 1 \\ -4 & 6 \\ -15 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE 8 Finding the Product of Two Matrices

Find the product AB, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution Note that the dimension of A is 2×3 and the dimension of B is 3×2. So, the product AB has dimension 2×2.

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

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 7 \\ -3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE 9 Matrix Multiplication

See LarsonPrecalculus.com for an interactive version of this type of example.

a. $\underset{2\times 2}{\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}}\underset{2\times 2}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{2\times 2}{\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}}$

b. $\underset{3\times 3}{\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}}\underset{3\times 1}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{3\times 1}{\begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -5 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix}}$

c. $\underset{1\times 3}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}}\underset{3\times 1}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{1\times 1}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}}$

REMARK In Examples 9(c) and 9(d), note that the two products are different. Even when both AB and BA are defined, matrix multiplication is not, in general, commutative. That is, for most matrices, $AB \neq BA$. This is one way in which the algebra of real numbers and the algebra of matrices differ.

d. $\underset{3\times 1}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}\underset{1\times 3}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{3\times 3}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & -6 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}}$

e. The product $\underset{3\times 2}{\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}\underset{3\times 4}{\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}$ is not defined.

EXAMPLE 10 Squaring a Matrix

Find A^2, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. (*Note:* $A^2 = AA$.)

Solution

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 \\ -5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Matrix Multiplication

Let A, B, and C be matrices and let c be a scalar.

1. $A(BC) = (AB)C$ — Associative Property of Matrix Multiplication
2. $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ — Left Distributive Property
3. $(A + B)C = AC + BC$ — Right Distributive Property
4. $c(AB) = (cA)B = A(cB)$ — Associative Property of Scalar Multiplication

Definition of the Identity Matrix

The $n \times n$ matrix that consists of 1's on its main diagonal and 0's elsewhere is called the **identity matrix of dimension $n \times n$** and is denoted by

$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \qquad \text{Identity matrix}$$

Note that an identity matrix must be *square*. When the dimension is understood to be $n \times n$, you can denote I_n simply by I.

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the identity matrix has the property that $AI_n = A$ and $I_nA = A$. For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad AI = A$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}. \qquad IA = A$$

Using Matrices to Transform Vectors

In Section 6.3, you performed vector operations with vectors written in component form and with vectors written as linear combinations of the standard unit vectors **i** and **j**. Another way to perform vector operations is with the vectors written as column matrices.

EXAMPLE 11 **Vector Operations**

Let $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, 4\rangle$ and $\mathbf{w} = \langle 6, 2\rangle$. Use matrices to find each vector.

a. $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ b. $\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{v}$

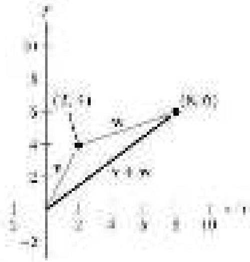

Figure 8.1

Solution Begin by writing **v** and **w** as column matrices.

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

a. $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \langle 8, 6\rangle$

Figure 8.1 shows a sketch of $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$.

b. $\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - 2\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix} = \langle 2, -6\rangle$

Figure 8.2 shows a sketch of $\mathbf{w} - 2\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} + (-2\mathbf{v})$.

One way to transform a vector **v** is to multiply **v** by a square **transformation matrix** A to produce another vector $A\mathbf{v}$. A column matrix with two rows can represent a vector **v**, so the transformation matrix must have two columns (and also two rows) for $A\mathbf{v}$ to be defined.

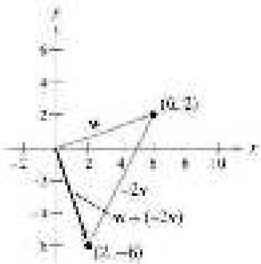

Figure 8.2

EXAMPLE 12 **Describing a Vector Transformation**

Find the product $A\mathbf{v}$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 3\rangle$, and describe the transformation.

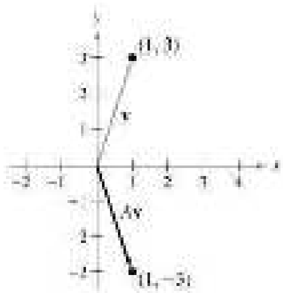

Figure 8.3

Solution First note that A has two columns and **v**, written as the column matrix $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, has two rows, so $A\mathbf{v}$ is defined.

$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \langle 1, -3\rangle$$

Figure 8.3 shows a sketch of the vectors **v** and $A\mathbf{v}$. The matrix A transforms **v** by reflecting **v** in the x-axis.

Applications

Matrix multiplication can be used to represent a system of linear equations. Note how the system below can be written as the matrix equation $AX = B$, where A is the *coefficient matrix* of the system and X and B are column matrices. The column matrix B is also called a *constant matrix*. Its entries are the constant terms in the system of equations.

System

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 = b_2 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 = b_3 \end{cases}$$

Matrix Equation $AX = B$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}}_{A} \times \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{X} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{B}$$

In Example 13, $[A \;\vdots\; B]$ represents the augmented matrix formed when you *adjoin* matrix B to matrix A. Also, $[I \;\vdots\; X]$ represents the reduced row-echelon form of the augmented matrix that yields the solution of the system.

EXAMPLE 13 Solving a System of Linear Equations

For the system of linear equations, (a) write the system as a matrix equation, $AX = B$, and (b) use Gauss-Jordan elimination on $[A \;\vdots\; B]$ to solve for the matrix X.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = -4 \\ x_2 + 2x_3 = 4 \\ 2x_1 + 3x_2 - 2x_3 = 2 \end{cases}$$

Solution

a. In matrix form, $AX = B$, the system is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

b. Form the augmented matrix by adjoining matrix B to matrix A.

$$[A \;\vdots\; B] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc:c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 & 2 \end{array}\right]$$

Using Gauss-Jordan elimination, rewrite this matrix as

$$[I \;\vdots\; X] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc:c} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array}\right].$$

So, the solution of the matrix equation is

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

EXAMPLE 14 Softball Team Expenses

Two softball teams submit equipment lists to their sponsors.

Equipment	Women's Team	Men's Team
Bats	12	15
Balls	45	38
Gloves	15	17

Each bat costs $80, each ball costs $4, and each glove costs $90. Use matrices to find the total cost of equipment for each team.

Solution Write the equipment lists E and the costs per item C in matrix form as

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 15 \\ 45 & 38 \\ 15 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 80 & 4 & 90 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The total cost of equipment for each team is the product

$$\begin{aligned} CE &= \begin{bmatrix} 80 & 4 & 90 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 15 \\ 45 & 38 \\ 15 & 17 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 80(12) + 4(45) + 90(15) & 80(15) + 4(38) + 90(17) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2490 & 2882 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

So, the total cost of equipment for the women's team is $2490, and the total cost of equipment for the men's team is $2882.

REMARK Notice in Example 14 that it is not possible to find the total cost using the product EC because EC is not defined. That is, the number of columns of E (2 columns) does not equal the number of rows of C (1 row).

Definition of the Inverse of a Square Matrix

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and let I_n be the $n \times n$ identity matrix. If there exists a matrix A^{-1} such that

$$AA^{-1} = I_n = A^{-1}A$$

then A^{-1} is the **inverse** of A. The symbol A^{-1} is read as "A inverse."

EXAMPLE 1 **The Inverse of a Matrix**

Show that $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution To show that B is the inverse of A, show that $AB = I = BA$.

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

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

So, B is the inverse of A because $AB = I = BA$. This is an example of a square matrix that has an inverse. Note that not all square matrices have inverses.

Recall that it is not always true that $AB = BA$, even when both products are defined. However, if A and B are both square matrices and $AB = I_n$, then it can be shown that $BA = I_n$. So, in Example 1, you need only to check that $AB = I_2$.

Finding Inverse Matrices

If a matrix A has an inverse, then A is **invertible** (or **nonsingular**); otherwise, A is **singular.** A nonsquare matrix cannot have an inverse. To see this, note that when A is of dimension $m \times n$ and B is of dimension $n \times m$ (where $m \neq n$), the products AB and BA are of different dimensions and so cannot be equal to each other. Not all square matrices have inverses (see the matrix at the bottom of page 571). When a matrix does have an inverse, however, that inverse is unique. Example 2 shows how to use a system of equations to find the inverse of a matrix.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding the Inverse of a Matrix

Find the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution To find the inverse of A, solve the matrix equation $AX = I$ for X.

$$\overset{A}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}} \overset{X}{\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}} \overset{=}{=} \overset{I}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}} \qquad \text{Write matrix equation.}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} + 4x_{21} & x_{12} + 4x_{22} \\ -x_{11} - 3x_{21} & -x_{12} - 3x_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Multiply.}$$

Equating corresponding entries, you obtain two systems of linear equations.

$$\begin{cases} x_{11} + 4x_{21} = 1 \\ -x_{11} - 3x_{21} = 0 \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} x_{12} + 4x_{22} = 0 \\ -x_{12} - 3x_{22} = 1 \end{cases}$$

Solve the first system using elementary row operations to determine that

$$x_{11} = -3 \quad \text{and} \quad x_{21} = 1.$$

Solve the second system to determine that

$$x_{12} = -4 \quad \text{and} \quad x_{22} = 1.$$

So, the inverse of A is

$$\begin{aligned} X &= A^{-1} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Use matrix multiplication to check this result in two ways.

Check

$$\begin{aligned} AA^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1}A &= \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

In Example 2, note that the two systems of linear equations have the *same coefficient matrix A*. Rather than solve the two systems represented by

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

and

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

separately, you can solve them *simultaneously* by *adjoining* the identity matrix to the coefficient matrix to obtain

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{ccccc} \quad A \quad & & & \quad\quad I \quad & \end{array} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & \vdots & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & \vdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}.$$

This "doubly augmented" matrix can be represented as

$[A \;\vdots\; I]$.

By applying Gauss-Jordan elimination to this matrix, you can solve *both* systems with a single elimination process.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ \\ R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ -4R_2 + R_1 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & \vdots & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & \vdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & \vdots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \vdots & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \vdots & -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & \vdots & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

So, from the "doubly augmented" matrix $[A \;\vdots\; I]$, you obtain the matrix $[I \;\vdots\; A^{-1}]$.

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cc} \quad A \quad\quad & \quad\quad I \end{array} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & \vdots & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & \vdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \Longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cc} \quad I \quad\quad & \quad\quad A^{-1} \end{array} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \vdots & -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & \vdots & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

This procedure (or algorithm) works for any square matrix that has an inverse.

Finding an Inverse Matrix

Let A be a square matrix of dimension $n \times n$.

1. Write the $n \times 2n$ matrix that consists of the given matrix A on the left and the $n \times n$ identity matrix I on the right to obtain

   $[A \;\vdots\; I]$.

2. If possible, row reduce A to I using elementary row operations on the *entire* matrix

   $[A \;\vdots\; I]$.

   The result will be the matrix

   $[I \;\vdots\; A^{-1}]$.

   If this is not possible, then A is not invertible.

3. Check your work by multiplying to see that

   $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$.

EXAMPLE 3 Finding the Inverse of a Matrix

Find the inverse of

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

Solution Begin by adjoining the identity matrix to A to form the matrix

$$[A \;\vdots\; I] = \left[\begin{array}{rrr|rrr} 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right].$$

Use elementary row operations to obtain the form $[I \;\vdots\; A^{-1}]$.

$$\begin{array}{r} \\ -R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ -6R_1 + R_3 \rightarrow \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{rrr|rrr} 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & -3 & -6 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$

$$\begin{array}{r} R_2 + R_1 \rightarrow \\ \\ -4R_2 + R_3 \rightarrow \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{rrr|rrr} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -4 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$

$$\begin{array}{r} R_3 + R_1 \rightarrow \\ R_3 + R_2 \rightarrow \\ \\ \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{rrr|rrr} 1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -3 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -4 & 1 \end{array}\right] = [I \;\vdots\; A^{-1}]$$

So, the matrix A is invertible and its inverse is

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

Check

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -3 & 1 \\ -3 & -3 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

The process shown in Example 3 applies to any $n \times n$ matrix A. When using this algorithm, if the matrix A does not reduce to the identity matrix, then A does not have an inverse. For example, the matrix below has no inverse.

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

To confirm that this matrix has no inverse, adjoin the identity matrix to A to form $[A \;\vdots\; I]$ and try to apply Gauss-Jordan elimination to the matrix. You will find that it is impossible to obtain the identity matrix I on the left. So, A is not invertible.

The Inverse of a 2 × 2 Matrix

Using Gauss-Jordan elimination to find the inverse of a matrix works well (even as a computer technique) for matrices of dimension 3×3 or greater. For 2×2 matrices, however, many people prefer to use a formula for the inverse rather than Gauss-Jordan elimination. This simple formula, which works *only* for 2×2 matrices, is explained as follows. A 2×2 matrix A given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertible if and only if

$$ad - bc \neq 0.$$

Moreover, if $ad - bc \neq 0$, then the inverse is given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}.$$ Formula for the inverse of a 2×2 matrix

The denominator

$$ad - bc$$

is the **determinant** of the 2×2 matrix A. You will study determinants in the next section.

EXAMPLE 4 Finding the Inverse of a 2 × 2 Matrix

See LarsonPrecalculus.com for an interactive version of this type of example.

If possible, find the inverse of each matrix.

a. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ **b.** $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution

a. The determinant of a matrix A is

$$ad - bc = 3(2) - (-1)(-2) = 4.$$

This quantity is not zero, so the matrix is invertible. The inverse is formed by interchanging the entries on the main diagonal, changing the signs of the other two entries, and multiplying by the scalar $\frac{1}{4}$.

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$ Formula for the inverse of a 2×2 matrix

$$= \frac{1}{4}\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$ Substitute for a, b, c, d, and the determinant.

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$ Multiply by the scalar $\frac{1}{4}$.

b. The determinant of matrix B is

$$ad - bc = 3(2) - (-1)(-6) = 0.$$

Because $ad - bc = 0$, B is not invertible.

Systems of Linear Equations

You know that a system of linear equations can have exactly one solution, infinitely many solutions, or no solution. If the coefficient matrix A of a *square* system (a system that has the same number of equations as variables) is invertible, then the system has a unique solution, which can be found using an inverse matrix as follows.

A System of Equations with a Unique Solution

If A is an invertible matrix, then the system of linear equations represented by $AX = B$ has a unique solution given by $X = A^{-1}B$.

EXAMPLE 5 Solving a System Using an Inverse Matrix

Use an inverse matrix to solve the system

$$\begin{cases} x + y + z = 10{,}000 \\ 0.06x + 0.075y + 0.095z = 730. \\ x - 2z = 0 \end{cases}$$

Solution Begin by writing the system in the matrix form $AX = B$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0.06 & 0.075 & 0.095 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10{,}000 \\ 730 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, use Gauss-Jordan elimination to find A^{-1}.

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & -200 & -2 \\ -21.5 & 300 & 3.5 \\ 7.5 & -100 & -1.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finally, multiply B by A^{-1} on the left to obtain the solution.

$$X = A^{-1}B = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & -200 & -2 \\ -21.5 & 300 & 3.5 \\ 7.5 & -100 & -1.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10{,}000 \\ 730 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4000 \\ 4000 \\ 2000 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution of the system is $x = 4000$, $y = 4000$, and $z = 2000$, or $(4000, 4000, 2000)$.

The Determinant of a 2 × 2 Matrix

Every *square* matrix can be associated with a real number called its **determinant.** Determinants have many uses, and several will be discussed in this section and the next section. Historically, the use of determinants arose from special number patterns that occur when systems of linear equations are solved. For example, the system

$$\begin{cases} a_1x + b_1y = c_1 \\ a_2x + b_2y = c_2 \end{cases}$$

has a solution

$$x = \frac{c_1b_2 - c_2b_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \frac{a_1c_2 - a_2c_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}$$

provided that $a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \neq 0$. Note that the denominators of the two fractions are the same. This denominator is called the *determinant* of the coefficient matrix of the system.

Coefficient Matrix	**Determinant**
$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}$	$\det(A) = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1$

The determinant of matrix A can also be denoted by vertical bars on both sides of the matrix, as shown in the definition below.

Definition of the Determinant of a 2 × 2 Matrix

The **determinant** of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is given by

$$\det(A) = |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1.$$

In this text, $\det(A)$ and $|A|$ are used interchangeably to represent the determinant of A. Although vertical bars are also used to denote the absolute value of a real number, the context will show which use is intended.

A convenient method for remembering the formula for the determinant of a 2×2 matrix is shown below.

$$\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1$$

Note that the determinant is the difference of the products of the two diagonals of the matrix.

In Example 1, you will see that the determinant of a matrix can be positive, zero, or negative.

EXAMPLE 1 The Determinant of a 2×2 Matrix

Find the determinant of each matrix.

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

b. $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

c. $C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Solution

a. $\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2(2) - 1(-3) = 4 + 3 = 7$

b. $\det(B) = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2(2) - 4(1) = 4 - 4 = 0$

c. $\det(C) = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 0(4) - 2\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 0 - 3 = -3$

The determinant of a matrix of dimension 1×1 is defined simply as the entry of the matrix. For example, if $A = [-2]$, then $\det(A) = -2$.

Minors and Cofactors

To define the determinant of a square matrix of dimension 3×3 or greater, it is helpful to introduce the concepts of **minors** and **cofactors**.

Sign Pattern for Cofactors

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

3×3 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

4×4 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - & + & \cdots \\ - & + & - & + & - & \cdots \\ + & - & + & - & + & \cdots \\ - & + & - & + & - & \cdots \\ + & - & + & - & + & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \end{bmatrix}$$

$n \times n$ matrix

Minors and Cofactors of a Square Matrix

If A is a square matrix, then the **minor** M_{ij} of the entry a_{ij} is the determinant of the matrix obtained by deleting the ith row and jth column of A. The **cofactor** C_{ij} of the entry a_{ij} is

$$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}.$$

In the sign pattern for cofactors at the left, notice that *odd* positions (where $i + j$ is odd) have negative signs and *even* positions (where $i + j$ is even) have positive signs.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding the Minors and Cofactors of a Matrix

Find all the minors and cofactors of

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

Solution To find the minor M_{11}, delete the first row and first column of A and find the determinant of the resulting matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cancel{2} & \cancel{1} \\ \cancel{3} & -1 & 2 \\ \cancel{4} & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -1(1) - 0(2) = -1$$

Similarly, to find M_{12}, delete the first row and second column.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cancel{0} & 2 & \cancel{1} \\ 3 & \cancel{-1} & 2 \\ 4 & \cancel{0} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 3(1) - 4(2) = -5$$

Continuing this pattern, you obtain the minors.

$$\begin{array}{lll} M_{11} = -1 & M_{12} = -5 & M_{13} = 4 \\ M_{21} = 2 & M_{22} = -4 & M_{23} = -8 \\ M_{31} = 5 & M_{32} = -3 & M_{33} = -6 \end{array}$$

Now, to find the cofactors, combine these minors with the checkerboard pattern of signs for a 3×3 matrix shown at the upper left.

$$\begin{array}{lll} C_{11} = -1 & C_{12} = 5 & C_{13} = 4 \\ C_{21} = -2 & C_{22} = -4 & C_{23} = 8 \\ C_{31} = 5 & C_{32} = 3 & C_{33} = -6 \end{array}$$

The Determinant of a Square Matrix

The definition below is *inductive* because it uses determinants of matrices of dimension $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ to define determinants of matrices of dimension $n \times n$.

Determinant of a Square Matrix

If A is a square matrix (of dimension 2×2 or greater), then the determinant of A is the sum of the entries in any row (or column) of A multiplied by their respective cofactors. For example, expanding along the first row yields

$$|A| = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + \cdot \cdot \cdot + a_{1n}C_{1n}.$$

Applying this definition to find a determinant is called **expanding by cofactors.**

Verify that for a 2×2 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

this definition of the determinant yields

$$|A| = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1$$

as previously defined.

EXAMPLE 3 **The Determinant of a 3 × 3 Matrix**

See LarsonPrecalculus.com for an interactive version of this type of example.

Find the determinant of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution Note that this is the same matrix used in Example 2. There you found that the cofactors of the entries in the first row are

$$C_{11} = -1, \quad C_{12} = 5, \quad \text{and} \quad C_{13} = 4.$$

Use the definition of the determinant of a square matrix to expand along the first row.

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13} && \text{First-row expansion} \\ &= 0(-1) + 2(5) + 1(4) \\ &= 14 \end{aligned}$$

In Example 3, it was efficient to expand by cofactors along the first row, but any row or column can be used. For example, expanding along the second row gives the same result.

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= a_{21}C_{21} + a_{22}C_{22} + a_{23}C_{23} && \text{Second-row expansion} \\ &= 3(-2) + (-1)(-4) + 2(8) \\ &= 14 \end{aligned}$$

When expanding by cofactors, you do not need to find cofactors of zero entries, because zero times its cofactor is zero. So, the row (or column) containing the most zeros is usually the best choice for expansion by cofactors. This is demonstrated in the next example.

EXAMPLE 4 The Determinant of a 4 × 4 Matrix

Find the determinant of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution Notice that three of the entries in the third column are zeros. So, to eliminate some of the work in the expansion, expand along the third column.

$$|A| = 3(C_{13}) + 0(C_{23}) + 0(C_{33}) + 0(C_{43})$$

The cofactors C_{23}, C_{33}, and C_{43} have zero coefficients, so the only cofactor you need to find is C_{13}. Start by deleting the first row and third column of A to form the determinant that gives the minor M_{13}.

$$C_{13} = (-1)^{1+3}\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \qquad \text{Delete 1st row and 3rd column.}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \qquad \text{Simplify.}$$

Now, expand by cofactors along the second row.

$$C_{13} = 0(-1)^3\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 2(-1)^4\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 3(-1)^5\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 0 + 2(1)(-8) + 3(-1)(-7)$$

$$= 5$$

So, $|A| = 3C_{13} = 3(5) = 15$.

Summary

In this week, we learned about what a matrix is, augmented/coefficient matrices, elementary row operations, Row-Echelon/Reduced Row-Echelon form, Gaussian Elimination with Back Substitution, Gauss-Jordan Elimination, matrix addition, scalar multiplication, matrix multiplication, the zero matrix and the additive identity, the identity matrix, the inverse of a matrix, the determinant of a 2 x 2 matrix, the determinant of a matrix greater than 2 x 2 and so much more.