1

# 0.1 Defining Matrices

Let n, m be two integers  $\geq 1$ . A **matrix** is an array of numbers with m rows and n columns (called a  $m \times n$  matrix).

We call  $a_{ij}$  the **ij-entry** which is the entry in the *i*th row and the *j*th column. We write a matrix often as  $A = (a_{ij})$  and define  $a_{ij}$ .

Each column of an  $m \times n$  matrix is a **column vector**. Each row of an  $m \times n$  matrix is a **row vector**.

Example (Identity Matrix):

The Kronecker delta is defined as follows:

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Then we define the **identity matrix** as:

$$I_n = (\delta_{ij}) = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

If we have a matrix,  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , the second column vector of A is  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and the second row vector of A is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

We can describe matrices using their column or row vectors. For example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r} \\ \vec{s} \\ \vec{t} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\vec{r} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{s} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{t} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Or:

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

where

$$\vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \ \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

### 0.1.1 Matrix Operations

We treat matrices the same way as numbers. Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix and B be an  $p \times q$  matrix.

- We can add A and B. If m = p and n = q, then  $A + B = (a_{ij} + b_{ij})$
- We can multiply by a scalar c:  $c \cdot A = (c \cdot a_{ij})$
- We can multiply A and B. If n = p, then  $A \cdot B = (c_{ij})$  where  $c_{ij} = \vec{r_i}(A) \cdot \vec{c_i}(B)$ . Caution: In general,  $A \cdot B \neq B \cdot A$ .
- We also define the transpose of a matrix. The transpose of A is  $A^t = (d_{ij})$  where  $d_{ij} = a_{ji}$ . When we take a transpose, we switch the columns into rows and vice versa.

Certain special matrices can be described with other terminology. Suppose we have a matrix,  $A = (a_{ij}), i = 1, ..., m$  and j = 1, ..., n.

- If m = n, then A is a square matrix.
- If  $A^t = A$ , then A is a **symmetric matrix**. Note: this means A must also be square.
- If  $A^t = -A$ , then A is said to be **skew-symmetric**.
- If for all i, j such that  $i \neq j$ ,  $a_{ij} = 0$ , then A is called **diagonal**.

#### **Determinants**

The determinant is a property of a square matrix, A.

#### Geomtric Def'n.

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{c_1}, & \vec{c_2}, & \dots, & \vec{c_n} \end{bmatrix}$  (vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Let  $\Pi =$  parallelotope defined by basing them all at the same point. Then  $V^{\sigma}(\Pi) = \det \begin{bmatrix} \vec{c_1}, & \vec{c_2}, & \dots, & \vec{c_n} \end{bmatrix}$  (signed n volume).

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{c_1} & \vec{c_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\det A = -1$$

### Algebraic Def'n.

Let  $A = (a_{ij})$ ,  $n \times n$ . Let  $A_{ij} =$  submatrix obtained from A by eliminating row i and column j,  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix.

The minor of A is  $M_{ij} = \det A_{ij}$ . The cofactor of A is  $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}$ .

Then  $\det A = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij}$  (for any  $i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ ). We call this the cofactor expansion along the *i*th row.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 & 12 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the determinant.

Use row 3.

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{3} a_{3j} C_{3j} = a_{31} C_{31} + a_{32} C_{32} + a_{33} C_{33}$$

$$C_{31} = (-1)^{3+1} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 12 \\ 5 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = -36$$

$$C_{32} = (-1)^{3+2} \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 12 \\ 2 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = -32$$

$$C_{33} = (-1)^{3+3} \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 29$$

$$\det A = 1(-36) + 5(-32) + 2(29) = \boxed{-138}$$

#### Properties of Determinants

1.  $\det A = \det A^t$ 

(Therefore, we can also use the cofactor expansion along any column as well.)

- 2.  $\det A \neq 0 \iff A$  is invertible
- 3.  $\det AB = \det A \det B$

4. 
$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r_1} \\ \vec{r_i} + \vec{r_i}' \\ \vec{r_n} \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r_1} \\ \vec{r_i} \\ \vec{r_n} \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r_1} \\ \vec{r_i}' \\ \vec{r_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Moreover, suppose  $\overrightarrow{A1}.B$  is an ERO. Then,

- 5. If  $1.P_{ij}$ , then  $\det B = -\det A$ .
- 6. If  $1.M_i(k)$ , then  $\det B = k \cdot A$ .
- 7. If  $1.A_{ij}(k)$ , then  $\det B = \det A$ .

*Note.* By (3),  $\det(A^{-1}) = (\det A)^{-1}$ 

#### 0.1.2 Inverse Matricies

An  $n \times n$  matrix A may or may not have an **inverse**: A matrix B such that

$$AB = BA = \mathbf{I}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We write  $B = A^{-1}$ .

For a linear system,  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  with A,  $n \times n$ , if A is invertible:

$$\underbrace{A^{-1}A}_{I_n}\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$$

$$\therefore \text{ Sol'n. is } \vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$$

We can vary  $\vec{b}$  and the solutions are immediate.

For the 2 × 2 case,  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ 

A has an inverse  $\iff$   $|A| = ad - bc \neq 0$ .

Then

$$A^{-}1 = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Invertible?

$$18 - 35 = -17 \neq 0$$
  $\checkmark$ 

$$A^{-1} = \frac{-1}{17} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -5 \\ -7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Check

$$\frac{-1}{17} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -5 \\ -7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{-1}{17} \begin{bmatrix} -17 & 0 \\ 0 & -17 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Theorem 1.** A  $n \times n$  matrix A has an inverse  $\iff$  rkA = n. If A has an inverse, then  $A^{-1}$  is given by  $rref[A I_n] = [I_n A^{-1}]$ 

Example:

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

Is it invertible?

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{1.A_{12}(-2)} \begin{cases} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{3.A_{32}(-1)} \begin{cases} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{5.A_{21}(-2)} \begin{cases} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

### Properties of $A^{-1}$

- 1. If A is invertible, so is  $A^{-1}$ ,  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ .
- 2. If A, B are invertible,  $n \times n$ , then so is  $A \cdot B$  and  $(BA)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ . Witness  $A(B \cdot B^{-1})A^{-1} = AI_nA^{-1} = I_n$ .
- 3. If *A* is invertible, so is  $A^{t}$ ,  $(A^{t})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{t}$ .

**Theorem 2.** Suppose A is  $n \times n$ . Then the following are equivalent

- 1. A is invertible
- 2.  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution for all  $\vec{b}$
- 3. rk(A) = n
- 4.  $rref(A) = I_n$
- 5.  $det(A) \neq 0$

## Computing Inverses

Recall if  $A = a_{ij}$  is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix, then if A is invertible,

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

**Theorem 3.** If A is invertible then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A}(b_{ij})$$

where  $b_{ij} = the \ ji$ -th cofactor of  $A = (-1)^{i+j} det A_{ij}$ .

Example:

Is A invertible? If so, find  $A^{-1}$ .

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

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 - 1 + 1$$

Therefore, A is invertible.

Then 
$$\frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} \} (C_{ij})^t$$

$$C_{11} = (-1)^2 \cdot 2 = 2 \qquad C_{21} = -1 \quad C_{31} = 0$$

$$C_{12} = (-1)^3 \cdot 2 = -2 \quad C_{22} = 1 \quad C_{32} = -1$$

$$C_{13} = 3 \qquad C_{23} = 1 \qquad C_{33} = 1$$
Then  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

# 0.2 Matricies as Linear Transformations

Matricies can be used to model transformations of vectors from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . This is accomplished by having an  $m \times n$  matrix, A, written as:

$$A: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$$

Example ( $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ):

Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and  $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Thus,  $A : \mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and:

$$A\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Note.* We are getting a linear combination of the column vectors of A. In other words,  $A\vec{v} = x\vec{a} + y\vec{b}$ .