

Kuliah Aljabar Linear

Pertemuan 4 dan 5

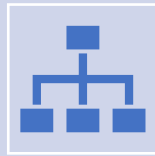
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Materi Pertemuan 1-7



Pertemuan 1:

Konsep matriks
Jenis-jenis matriks
Matriks identitas
Transpose matriks
Ordo matriks



Pertemuan 2 dan 3:

Penjumlahan matriks
Pengurangan matriks
Perkalian matriks
Perkalian matriks dengan scalar linear




Pertemuan 4 dan 5:

Determinan matriks
Inverse matriks
Sifat-sifat matriks



Pertemuan 6 dan 7

Sistem persamaan linear
Operasi baris elementer
Eliminasi Gauss-Jordann
Penerapan sistem persamaan linear



Inverses; Algebraic Properties of Matrices

- The following theorem lists the basic algebraic properties of the matrix operations

THEOREM 1.4.1 Properties of Matrix Arithmetic

Assuming that the sizes of the matrices are such that the indicated operations can be performed, the following rules of matrix arithmetic are valid.

- (a) $A + B = B + A$ [Commutative law for matrix addition]
- (b) $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$ [Associative law for matrix addition]
- (c) $A(BC) = (AB)C$ [Associative law for matrix multiplication]
- (d) $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ [Left distributive law]
- (e) $(B + C)A = BA + CA$ [Right distributive law]
- (f) $A(B - C) = AB - AC$
- (g) $(B - C)A = BA - CA$
- (h) $a(B + C) = aB + aC$
- (i) $a(B - C) = aB - aC$
- (j) $(a + b)C = aC + bC$
- (k) $(a - b)C = aC - bC$
- (l) $a(bC) = (ab)C$
- (m) $a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)$

EXAMPLE Associativity of Matrix Multiplication

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

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 \\ 20 & 13 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$BC = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)C = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 \\ 20 & 13 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 15 \\ 46 & 39 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(BC) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 15 \\ 46 & 39 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

EXAMPLE Order Matters in Matrix Multiplication

Consider the matrices

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

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 11 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB \neq BA$$



Zero Matrices

- A matrix whose entries are **all zero** is called a zero matrix.19

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad [0]$$

It should be evident that if A and O are matrices with the same size, then

THEOREM 1.4.2 Properties of Zero Matrices

If c is a scalar, and if the sizes of the matrices are such that the operations can be performed, then:

- (a) $A + O = O + A = A$
- (b) $A - O = A$
- (c) $A - A = A + (-A) = O$
- (d) $OA = O$
- (e) *If $cA = O$, then $c = 0$ or $A = O$.*



Identity Matrices

- A square **matrix with 1's on the main diagonal** and **zeros elsewhere** is called an identity matrix.

$$[1], \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

An identity matrix is denoted by **the letter I** .

If it is important to emphasize the size, we will write **I_n** for the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

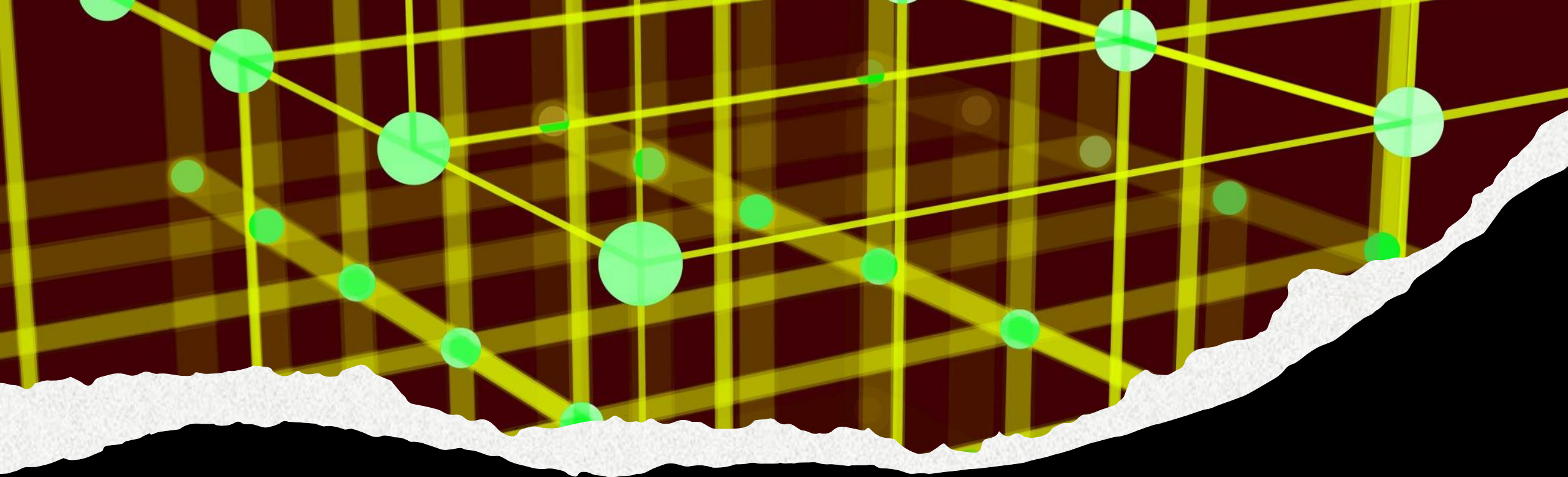
if A is any $m \times n$ matrix, then

$$AI_n = A \quad \text{and} \quad I_m A = A$$

EXAMPLE

$$AI_3 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} = A$$

$$I_2A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} = A$$



Inverse of a Matrix

In real arithmetic every nonzero number a has a reciprocal $a^{-1}(= 1/a)$ with the property. The number a^{-1} is sometimes called the *multiplicative inverse* of a .

$$a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$$

DEFINITION 1 If A is a square matrix, and if a matrix B of the same size can be found such that $AB = BA = I$, then A is said to be *invertible* (or *nonsingular*) and B is called an *inverse* of A . If no such matrix B can be found, then A is said to be *singular*.

EXAMPLE An Invertible Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

Thus, A and B are invertible and each is an inverse of the other

Properties of Inverses

If B and C are both inverses of the matrix A , then $B = C$.

Proof

Since B is an inverse of A , we have $BA = I$. Multiplying both sides on the right by C gives $(BA)C = IC = C$. But it is also true that $(BA)C = B(AC) = BI = B$, so $C = B$.

If A is invertible, then its inverse will be denoted by the symbol A^{-1} . Thus,

$$AA^{-1} = I \quad \text{and} \quad A^{-1}A = I$$

The quantity $ad - bc$ in Theorem 1.4.5 is called the **determinant** of the 2×2 matrix A and is denoted by

$$\det(A) = ad - bc$$

or alternatively by

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$


THEOREM 1.4.5 *The matrix*

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

is invertible if and only if $ad - bc \neq 0$, in which case the inverse is given by the formula

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

EXAMPLE Calculating the Inverse of a 2×2 Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \det(A) = (6)(2) - (1)(5) = 7.$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{7} & -\frac{1}{7} \\ -\frac{5}{7} & \frac{6}{7} \end{bmatrix}$$

confirm that $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$

EXAMPLE Solution of a Linear System by Matrix Inversion

$$u = ax + by$$

$$v = cx + dy$$

let us replace the two equations by the single matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{bmatrix}$$

which we can rewrite as

$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

If we assume that the 2×2 matrix is invertible (i.e., $ad - bc \neq 0$), then we can multiply through on the left by the inverse and rewrite the equation as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

which simplifies to

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

from which we obtain

$$x = \frac{du - bv}{ad - bc}, \quad y = \frac{av - cu}{ad - bc}$$

THEOREM 1.4.6 *If A and B are invertible matrices with the same size, then AB is invertible and*

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

EXAMPLE The Inverse of a Product

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \quad (AB)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -\frac{9}{2} & \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad B^{-1}A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -\frac{9}{2} & \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Thus, } (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$



Powers of a Matrix



If A is a *square* matrix, then we define the nonnegative integer powers of A to be

$$A^0 = I \quad \text{and} \quad A^n = AA \cdots A \quad [n \text{ factors}]$$

and if A is invertible, then we define the negative integer powers of A to be

$$A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n = A^{-1}A^{-1} \cdots A^{-1} \quad [n \text{ factors}]$$

Because these definitions parallel those for real numbers, the usual laws of nonnegative exponents hold; for example,

$$A^r A^s = A^{r+s} \quad \text{and} \quad (A^r)^s = A^{rs}$$

THEOREM 1.4.7 *If A is invertible and n is a nonnegative integer, then:*

- (a) A^{-1} is invertible and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.*
- (b) A^n is invertible and $(A^n)^{-1} = A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n$.*
- (c) kA is invertible for any nonzero scalar k , and $(kA)^{-1} = k^{-1}A^{-1}$.*

EXAMPLE Properties of Exponents

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

$$A^{-3} = (A^{-1})^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 41 & -30 \\ -15 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 30 \\ 15 & 41 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(A^3)^{-1} = \frac{1}{(11)(41) - (30)(15)} \begin{bmatrix} 41 & -30 \\ -15 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 41 & -30 \\ -15 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = (A^{-1})^3$$

EXAMPLE The Square of a Matrix Sum

In *real arithmetic*, where we have a commutative law for multiplication, we can write

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 = a^2 + ab + ab + b^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

However, in *matrix arithmetic*, where we have *no commutative law for multiplication*, the best we can do is to write

$$(A + B)^2 = A^2 + AB + BA + B^2$$



Properties of the Transpose

THEOREM 1.4.8 *If the sizes of the matrices are such that the stated operations can be performed, then:*

(a) $(A^T)^T = A$

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

(c) $(A - B)^T = A^T - B^T$

(d) $(kA)^T = kA^T$

(e) $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

- The following theorem establishes a relationship between the inverse of a matrix and the inverse of its transpose.

THEOREM 1.4.9 *If A is an invertible matrix, then A^T is also invertible and*

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

EXAMPLE Inverse of a Transpose

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

Since A is invertible, its determinant $ad - bc$ is nonzero. But the determinant of A^T is also $ad - bc$ (verify), so A^T is also invertible.



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



$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$