Chapter - 5.1

1) Concept of Matrix

Definition

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. An $m \times n$ (m-by-n) matrix has m rows and n columns.

$$A = \left(egin{array}{cccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \ dots & dots & dots \ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{array}
ight)$$
 elements of $A: a_{ij} \qquad A = (a_{ij})$

The set of all $m \times n$ matrices is denoted by $\mathcal{M}_{m \times n}$.

Definition

If n = m, then the matrix is a square matrix.

The main diagonal of a matrix is formed by the elements $(a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \dots)$.

The identity matrix of size n is the $n \times n$ matrix such that the elements on the main diagonal are equal to 1 and all other elements are zero. Notation: I_n .

a.

2) Matrix Operations:

1. Matrix addition

We can only add matrices of the same type.

If $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ are $m \times n$ matrices, then we calculate the sum entrywise: C = A + B, where $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$; i = 1, ..., m, j = 1, ..., n.

2. Scalar multiplication

We do the scalar multiplication entrywise. That is, let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathcal{M}_{m \times n}$, $\lambda A = (\lambda a_{ij}) \in \mathcal{M}_{m \times n}$.

3. Matrix multiplication

Let $A=(a_{ij})$ be an $m\times k$ and $B=(b_{ij})$ be a $k\times n$ matrix. Then the product of A and B is the $m\times n$ matrix $C=(c_{ij})$, such that

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{1}^{k} a_{ir} b_{rj}$$

a.

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Theorem – properties of matrix multiplication

If A is an m \times n matrix, then I_m \cdot A = A and A \cdot I_n = A.

If A, B, C are such matrices that AB and BC exist, then (AB)C = A(BC). The matrix multiplication is associative.

If A and B are of the same size and AC exists, then BC exists as well and (A + B)C = AC + BC.

Matrix multiplication is not commutative, that is, in general AB \neq BA.

Definition

Let A be an m \times n matrix. The n \times m matrix denoted by A^T is called the transpose of A.

Proposition – properties of transposition

(A^T)^T = A

Transposition and matrix multiplication: (AB)^T = B^T \cdot A^T.
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A is skew-symmetric if $A^T = -A$.

Let A be a square matrix of order n. A is symmetric if $A^T = A$,

3) Determinant

c.

b.

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Definition

Let A=(a_{ij}) be a square matrix. Let us choose n elements of A such that we choose exactly one element from each row and each column. The chosen elements: a_{1\sigma(1)}, a_{2\sigma(2)}, \ldots, a_{n\sigma(n)}.

The determinant of A is \det(A) = |A| = \sum_{\sigma} (-1)^{l(\sigma)} a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \ldots a_{n\sigma(n)}.

There are n! terms in the sum above. Other notation: \varepsilon(\sigma) = (-1)^{l(\sigma)}.

Example: n = 2: \det(A) = |A| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}.
n = 3: \det(A) = \ldots.

Theorem

If A and B are square matrices of the same size, then \det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B).
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- b. The **determinant** is a <u>scalar value</u> that can be computed from the elements of a <u>square matrix</u> and encodes certain properties of the <u>linear</u> <u>transformation</u> described by the matrix.
- c. The determinant of a matrix A is denoted det(A), det A, or |A|.

Determinant of matrices of special form

Proposition

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the determinant of the identity matrix is 1.

$$\det(I_n)=1$$

Proposition

Let A be an upper triangular matrix, that is, a square matrix with zeros underneath its main diagonal:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the determinant of \boldsymbol{A} is the product of the elements in the main diagonal.

d.

Proposition – properties of the determinant

 $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$

If A has a column full of zeros, then det(A) = 0.

If we interchange 2 columns of A, then the sign of the determinant changes.

If one column of A is a scalar multiple of another column, then det(A) = 0.

If we multiply a column of A by a real number λ , then the obtained matrix has determinant $\lambda \cdot \det(A)$.

The determinant doesn't change if we add a scalar multiple of a column to another column.

If a column of A is the linear combination of the other columns, then det(A) = 0.

The properties above are true if we consider rows instead of columns.

Corollary

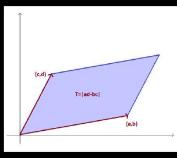
If $det(A) \neq 0$, then the columns (or rows) of A are linearly independent vectors. Then is A is of size $n \times n$: its columns form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

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Geometric meaning of the determinant

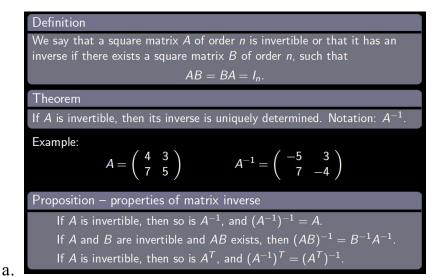
2-by-2 determinants: it's absolute value is the area of the parallelogram determined by the rows of the determinant, as vectors

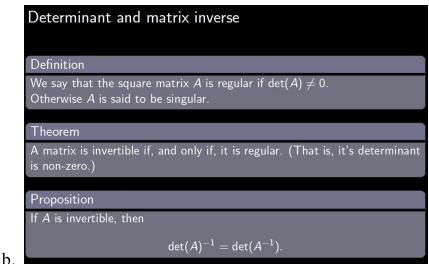
$$|A| = \left| \begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array} \right| = ad - bc$$



3-by-3 determinants: it's absolute value is the volume of the parallelepiped determined by the rows of the determinant, as vectors

- a. The **rank** of a matrix is defined as (a) the maximum number of <u>linearly</u> independent *column* vectors in the matrix or (b) the maximum number of linearly independent *row* vectors in the matrix. Both definitions are equivalent.
- b. For an $r \times c$ matrix,
 - i. If r is less than c, then the maximum rank of the matrix is r.
 - ii. If r is greater than c, then the maximum rank of the matrix is c.
- c. The rank of a matrix would be zero only if the matrix had no elements. If a matrix had even one element, its minimum rank would be one.
- d. Linearly independent also check if any linear multiplication of a row plus any linear multiplication of other row is not equal to any row. If it is equal that row is linearly dependent.
- e. The above rule also applies to columns.
- 5) Matrix Classes
- 6) Inverse Matrix:

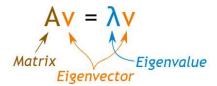




- 7) Linear Transformations:
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8) Eigenvectors and eigenvalues:

For a square matrix **A**, an Eigenvector and Eigenvalue make this equation true:



a.

How do we find these eigen things?

We start by finding the **eigenvalue**: we know this equation must be true:

$$Av = \lambda v$$

Now let us put in an identity matrix so we are dealing with matrix-vs-matrix:

$$Av = \lambda Iv$$

Bring all to left hand side:

$$Av - \lambda Iv = 0$$

If \mathbf{v} is non-zero then we can solve for λ using just the <u>determinant</u>:

b. $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

c. Now, we know eigenvalue, we find eigenvector with this equation: $Av = \lambda v$.

Put in the values we know:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 6 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

After multiplying we get these two equations:

$$-6x + 3y = 6x$$
$$4x + 5y = 6y$$

Bringing all to left hand side:

$$-12x + 3y = 0$$
$$4x - 1y = 0$$

d.

e. For $A \in R$ n×n the value $\lambda \in C$ is an eigenvalue and the vector $v \neq 0$ is the eigenvector belonging to λ if:

i.
$$Av = \lambda v$$

- f. After rearrangement: $(A \lambda I)v = 0$.
- g. I is identity matrix
- h. When λ is given, it is a homogeneous system of linear equations for the vector v.
- i. There are non-trivial solutions only for those λ values for which eigenvector (v) = 0.