$$
\begin{aligned}
x + y + 2z &= 9 \\
y - \tfrac{7}{2}z &= -\tfrac{17}{2} \\
-\tfrac{1}{2}z &= -\tfrac{3}{2}
\end{aligned}
\qquad
\begin{bmatrix}
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\
0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2}
\end{bmatrix}
$$

Multiply the third equation by -2 to obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
x + y + 2z &= 9 \\
y - \tfrac{7}{2}z &= -\tfrac{17}{2} \\
z &= 3
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiply the third row by -2 to obtain

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\
0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 3
\end{bmatrix}
$$

Add -1 times the second equation to the first to obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \qquad + \tfrac{11}{2}z &= \tfrac{35}{2} \\
y - \tfrac{7}{2}z &= -\tfrac{17}{2} \\
z &= 3
\end{aligned}
$$

Add -1 times the second row to the first to obtain

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & \frac{11}{2} & \frac{35}{2} \\
0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 3
\end{bmatrix}
$$

The solution in this example can also be expressed as the ordered triple $(1, 2, 3)$ with the understanding that the numbers in the triple are in the same order as the variables in the system, namely, x, y, z.

Add $-\frac{11}{2}$ times the third equation to the first and $\frac{7}{2}$ times the third equation to the second to obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \qquad &= 1 \\
y \qquad &= 2 \\
z &= 3
\end{aligned}
$$

Add $-\frac{11}{2}$ times the third row to the first and $\frac{7}{2}$ times the third row to the second to obtain

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

The solution $x = 1$, $y = 2$, $z = 3$ is now evident. ◀

Exercise Set 1.1

1. In each part, determine whether the equation is linear in x_1, x_2, and x_3.

   (a) $x_1 + 5x_2 - \sqrt{2}\,x_3 = 1$
   (b) $x_1 + 3x_2 + x_1x_3 = 2$
   (c) $x_1 = -7x_2 + 3x_3$
   (d) $x_1^{-2} + x_2 + 8x_3 = 5$
   (e) $x_1^{3/5} - 2x_2 + x_3 = 4$
   (f) $\pi x_1 - \sqrt{2}\,x_2 = 7^{1/3}$

2. In each part, determine whether the equation is linear in x and y.

   (a) $2^{1/3}x + \sqrt{3}y = 1$
   (b) $2x^{1/3} + 3\sqrt{y} = 1$
   (c) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{7}\right)x - 4y = \log 3$
   (d) $\frac{\pi}{7}\cos x - 4y = 0$
   (e) $xy = 1$
   (f) $y + 7 = x$

3. Using the notation of Formula (7), write down a general linear system of

(a) two equations in two unknowns.

(b) three equations in three unknowns.

(c) two equations in four unknowns.

4. Write down the augmented matrix for each of the linear systems in Exercise 3.

In each part of Exercises 5–6, find a linear system in the unknowns $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots$, that corresponds to the given augmented matrix.

5. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -2 & 5 \\ 7 & 1 & 4 & -3 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

6. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 & -3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 1 & -4 & 3 \\ -4 & 0 & 4 & 1 & -3 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 & -2 & -9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

In each part of Exercises 7–8, find the augmented matrix for the linear system.

7. (a) $\begin{aligned} -2x_1 &= 6 \\ 3x_1 &= 8 \\ 9x_1 &= -3 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} 6x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 &= 4 \\ 5x_2 - x_3 &= 1 \end{aligned}$

(c) $\begin{aligned} 2x_2 \qquad - 3x_4 + x_5 &= 0 \\ -3x_1 - x_2 + x_3 \qquad\qquad &= -1 \\ 6x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 - 3x_5 &= 6 \end{aligned}$

8. (a) $\begin{aligned} 3x_1 - 2x_2 &= -1 \\ 4x_1 + 5x_2 &= 3 \\ 7x_1 + 3x_2 &= 2 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} 2x_1 \qquad + 2x_3 &= 1 \\ 3x_1 - x_2 + 4x_3 &= 7 \\ 6x_1 + x_2 - x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

(c) $\begin{aligned} x_1 \qquad\qquad &= 1 \\ x_2 \qquad &= 2 \\ x_3 &= 3 \end{aligned}$

9. In each part, determine whether the given 3-tuple is a solution of the linear system

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

(a) $(3, 1, 1)$ (b) $(3, -1, 1)$ (c) $(13, 5, 2)$

(d) $(\frac{13}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, 2)$ (e) $(17, 7, 5)$

10. In each part, determine whether the given 3-tuple is a solution of the linear system

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

(a) $(\frac{5}{7}, \frac{8}{7}, 1)$ (b) $(\frac{5}{7}, \frac{8}{7}, 0)$ (c) $(5, 8, 1)$

(d) $(\frac{5}{7}, \frac{10}{7}, \frac{2}{7})$ (e) $(\frac{5}{7}, \frac{22}{7}, 2)$

11. In each part, solve the linear system, if possible, and use the result to determine whether the lines represented by the equations in the system have zero, one, or infinitely many points of intersection. If there is a single point of intersection, give its coordinates, and if there are infinitely many, find parametric equations for them.

(a) $\begin{aligned} 3x - 2y &= 4 \\ 6x - 4y &= 9 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} 2x - 4y &= 1 \\ 4x - 8y &= 2 \end{aligned}$ (c) $\begin{aligned} x - 2y &= 0 \\ x - 4y &= 8 \end{aligned}$

12. Under what conditions on a and b will the following linear system have no solutions, one solution, infinitely many solutions?

$$\begin{aligned} 2x - 3y &= a \\ 4x - 6y &= b \end{aligned}$$

In each part of Exercises 13–14, use parametric equations to describe the solution set of the linear equation.

13. (a) $7x - 5y = 3$

(b) $3x_1 - 5x_2 + 4x_3 = 7$

(c) $-8x_1 + 2x_2 - 5x_3 + 6x_4 = 1$

(d) $3v - 8w + 2x - y + 4z = 0$

14. (a) $x + 10y = 2$

(b) $x_1 + 3x_2 - 12x_3 = 3$

(c) $4x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + x_4 = 20$

(d) $v + w + x - 5y + 7z = 0$

In Exercises 15–16, each linear system has infinitely many solutions. Use parametric equations to describe its solution set.

15. (a) $\begin{aligned} 2x - 3y &= 1 \\ 6x - 9y &= 3 \end{aligned}$

(b) $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 &= -4 \\ 3x_1 + 9x_2 - 3x_3 &= -12 \\ -x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 &= 4 \end{aligned}$

16. (a) $\begin{aligned} 6x_1 + 2x_2 &= -8 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 &= -4 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} 2x - y + 2z &= -4 \\ 6x - 3y + 6z &= -12 \\ -4x + 2y - 4z &= 8 \end{aligned}$

In Exercises 17–18, find a single elementary row operation that will create a 1 in the upper left corner of the given augmented matrix and will not create any fractions in its first row.

17. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & -3 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -5 & 0 \\ 2 & -9 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & -3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

18. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -6 & 8 \\ 7 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ -5 & 4 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -4 & -2 \\ 3 & -1 & 8 \\ -6 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

which the solution of the system

Solving Systems

When considering methods for solving systems of linear equations, it is important to distinguish between large systems that must be solved by computer and small systems that can be solved by hand. For example, there are many applications that lead to linear systems in thousands or even millions of unknowns. Large systems require special techniques to deal with issues of memory size, roundoff errors, solution time, and so forth. Such techniques are studied in the field of ***numerical analysis*** and will only be touched on in this text. However, almost all of the methods that are used for large systems are based on the ideas that we will develop in this section.

Forms

In Example 6 of the last section, we solved a linear system in the unknowns x, y, and z by reducing the augmented matrix to the form

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

from which the solution $x = 1$, $y = 2$, $z = 3$ became evident. This is an example of a matrix that is in ***reduced row echelon form***. To be of this form, a matrix must have the following properties:

1. If a row does not consist entirely of zeros, then the first nonzero number in the row is a 1. We call this a ***leading 1***.
2. If there are any rows that consist entirely of zeros, then they are grouped together at the bottom of the matrix.
3. In any two successive rows that do not consist entirely of zeros, the leading 1 in the lower row occurs farther to the right than the leading 1 in the higher row.
4. Each column that contains a leading 1 has zeros everywhere else in that column.

He

A matrix that has the first three properties is said to be in ***row echelon form***. (Thus, a matrix in reduced row echelon form is of necessity in row echelon form, but not conversely.)

▶ EXAMPLE 1 Row Echelon and Reduced Row Echelon Form

The following matrices are in reduced row echelon form.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The following matrices are in row echelon form but not reduced row echelon form.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & -3 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The leading 1's occur in positions (row 1, column 1), (row 2, column 3), and (row 3, column 5). These are the pivot positions. The pivot columns are columns 1, 3, and 5. ◀

Roundoff Error and Instability There is often a gap between mathematical theory and its practical implementation—Gauss–Jordan elimination and Gaussian elimination being good examples. The problem is that computers generally approximate numbers, thereby introducing ***roundoff*** errors, so unless precautions are taken, successive calculations may degrade an answer to a degree that makes it useless. Algorithms (procedures) in which this happens are called ***unstable***. There are various techniques for minimizing roundoff error and instability. For example, it can be shown that for large linear systems Gauss–Jordan elimination involves roughly 50% more operations than Gaussian elimination, so most computer algorithms are based on the latter method. Some of these matters will be considered in Chapter 9.

Exercise Set 1.2

In Exercises 1–2, determine whether the matrix is in row echelon form, reduced row echelon form, both, or neither.

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

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ (e) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(f) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (g) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -7 & 5 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

2. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (e) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(f) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 7 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (g) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 3–4, suppose that the augmented matrix for a linear system has been reduced by row operations to the given row echelon form. Solve the system.

3. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 8 & -5 & 6 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & -9 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & -2 & 0 & -8 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 6 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

4. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -7 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 & 0 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 5–8, solve the linear system by Gaussian elimination.

5. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 &= 8 \\ -x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= 1 \\ 3x_1 - 7x_2 + 4x_3 &= 10 \end{aligned}$

6. $\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -2x_1 + 5x_2 + 2x_3 &= 1 \\ 8x_1 + x_2 + 4x_3 &= -1 \end{aligned}$

7. $\begin{aligned} x - y + 2z - w &= -1 \\ 2x + y - 2z - 2w &= -2 \\ -x + 2y - 4z + w &= 1 \\ 3x - 3w &= -3 \end{aligned}$

8. $\begin{aligned} -2b + 3c &= 1 \\ 3a + 6b - 3c &= -2 \\ 6a + 6b + 3c &= 5 \end{aligned}$

In Exercises 9–12, solve the linear system by Gauss–Jordan elimination.

9. Exercise 5

10. Exercise 6

11. Exercise 7

12. Exercise 8

In Exercises 13–14, determine whether the homogeneous system has nontrivial solutions by inspection (without pencil and paper).

13. $\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - 3x_2 + 4x_3 - x_4 &= 0 \\ 7x_1 + x_2 - 8x_3 + 9x_4 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 + 8x_2 + x_3 - x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

14. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 &= 0 \\ x_2 - 8x_3 &= 0 \\ 4x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

In Exercises 15–22, solve the given linear system by any method.

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

16. $\begin{aligned} 2x - y - 3z &= 0 \\ -x + 2y - 3z &= 0 \\ x + y + 4z &= 0 \end{aligned}$

17. $\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 &= 0 \\ 5x_1 - x_2 + x_3 - x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

18. $\begin{aligned} v + 3w - 2x &= 0 \\ 2u + v - 4w + 3x &= 0 \\ 2u + 3v + 2w - x &= 0 \\ -4u - 3v + 5w - 4x &= 0 \end{aligned}$

19. $\begin{aligned} 2x + 2y + 4z &= 0 \\ w - y - 3z &= 0 \\ 2w + 3x + y + z &= 0 \\ -2w + x + 3y - 2z &= 0 \end{aligned}$

20. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 + x_4 &= 0 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -2x_2 - 2x_3 - x_4 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 + x_4 &= 0 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 - x_3 + x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

21. $\begin{aligned} 2I_1 - I_2 + 3I_3 + 4I_4 &= 9 \\ I_1 - 2I_3 + 7I_4 &= 11 \\ 3I_1 - 3I_2 + I_3 + 5I_4 &= 8 \\ 2I_1 + I_2 + 4I_3 + 4I_4 &= 10 \end{aligned}$

22. $\begin{aligned} Z_3 + Z_4 + Z_5 &= 0 \\ -Z_1 - Z_2 + 2Z_3 - 3Z_4 + Z_5 &= 0 \\ Z_1 + Z_2 - 2Z_3 - Z_5 &= 0 \\ 2Z_1 + 2Z_2 - Z_3 + Z_5 &= 0 \end{aligned}$

In each part of Exercises 23–24, the augmented matrix for a linear system is given in which the asterisk represents an unspecified real number. Determine whether the system is consistent, and if so whether the solution is unique. Answer "inconclusive" if there is not enough information to make a decision.

When non zero row

23. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * \end{bmatrix}$ Unique solution

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

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

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

24. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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

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

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

In Exercises 25–26, determine the values of a for which the system has no solutions, exactly one solution, or infinitely many solutions.

25. $\begin{aligned} x + 2y - 3z &= 4 \\ 3x - y + 5z &= 2 \\ 4x + y + (a^2 - 14)z &= a + 2 \end{aligned}$

DEFINITION 8 If A is a square matrix, then the ***trace of A***, denoted by $\text{tr}(A)$, is de[fined] to be the sum of the entries on the main diagonal of A. The trace of A is und[efined] if A is not a square matrix.

▶ **EXAMPLE 12 Trace**

The following are examples of matrices and their traces.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 7 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & -8 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 7 & -3 \\ 4 & -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{tr}(A) = a_{11} + a_{22} + a_{33} \qquad \text{tr}(B) = -1 + 5 + 7 + 0 = 11$$ ◀

In the exercises you will have some practice working with the transpose and t[race] operations.

Exercise Set 1.3

odd

In Exercises 1–2, suppose that A, B, C, D, and E are matrices with the following sizes:

A	B	C	D	E
(4×5)	(4×5)	(5×2)	(4×2)	(5×4)

In each part, determine whether the given matrix expression is defined. For those that are defined, give the size of the resulting matrix.

1. (a) BA (b) AB^T (c) $AC + D$
(d) $E(AC)$ (e) $A - 3E^T$ (f) $E(5B + A)$

2. (a) CD^T (b) DC (c) $BC - 3D$
(d) $D^T(BE)$ (e) $B^TD + ED$ (f) $BA^T + D$

In Exercises 3–6, use the following matrices to compute the indicated expression if it is defined.

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

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

3. (a) $D + E$ (b) $D - E$ (c) $5A$
(d) $-7C$ (e) $2B - C$ (f) $4E - 2D$
(g) $-3(D + 2E)$ (h) $A - A$ (i) $\text{tr}(D)$
(j) $\text{tr}(D - 3E)$ (k) $4\,\text{tr}(7B)$ (l) $\text{tr}(A)$

4. (a) $2A^T + C$ (b) $D^T - E^T$ (c) $(D - E)^T$
(d) $B^T + 5C^T$ (e) $\frac{1}{2}C^T - \frac{1}{4}A$ (f) $B - B^T$
(g) $2E^T - 3D^T$ (h) $(2E^T - 3D^T)^T$ (i) $(CD)E$
(j) $C(BA)$ (k) $\text{tr}(DE^T)$ (l) $\text{tr}(BC)$

5. (a) AB (b) BA (c) $(3E)D$
(d) $(AB)C$ (e) $A(BC)$ (f) CC^T
(g) $(DA)^T$ (h) $(C^TB)A^T$ (i) $\text{tr}(DD^T)$
(j) $\text{tr}(4E^T - D)$ (k) $\text{tr}(C^TA^T + 2E^T)$ (l) $\text{tr}((EC^T)^TA)$

6. (a) $(2D^T - E)A$ (b) $(4B)C + 2B$
(c) $(-AC)^T + 5D^T$ (d) $(BA^T - 2C)^T$
(e) $B^T(CC^T - A^TA)$ (f) $D^TE^T - (ED)^T$

In Exercises 7–8, use the following matrices and either the ro[w] method or the column method, as appropriate, to find the indicated row or column.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 7 \\ 6 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 7 & 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

7. (a) the first row of AB (b) the third row of AB
(c) the second column of AB (d) the first column of BA
(e) the third row of AA (f) the third column of AA

8. (a) the first column of AB (b) the third column of BB
(c) the second row of BB (d) the first column of AA
(e) the third column of AB (f) the first row of BA

In Exercises 9–10, use matrices A and B from Exercises 7–8.

9. (a) Express each column vector of AA as a linear combination of the column vectors of A.
(b) Express each column vector of BB as a linear combination of the column vectors of B.

10. (a) Express each column vector of AB as a linear combination of the column vectors of A.
(b) Express each column vector of BA as a linear combination of the column vectors of B.

In each part of Exercises 11–12, find matrices A, $\mathbf{x}$, and $\mathbf{b}$ that express the given linear system as a single matrix equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, and write out this matrix equation.

11. (a)
$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - 3x_2 + 5x_3 &= 7 \\ 9x_1 - x_2 + x_3 &= -1 \\ x_1 + 5x_2 + 4x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

(b)
$$\begin{aligned} 4x_1 \qquad - 3x_3 + x_4 &= 1 \\ 5x_1 + x_2 \qquad\qquad - 8x_4 &= 3 \\ 2x_1 - 5x_2 + 9x_3 - x_4 &= 0 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 + 7x_4 &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

12. (a)
$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= -3 \\ 2x_1 + x_2 \qquad &= 0 \\ - 3x_2 + 4x_3 &= 1 \\ x_1 \qquad + x_3 &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

(b)
$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 &= -3 \\ -x_1 - 5x_2 - 2x_3 &= 3 \\ - 4x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

In each part of Exercises 13–14, express the matrix equation as a system of linear equations.

13. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & -7 \\ -1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 5 & -3 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix}$

14. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 7 \\ -2 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 7 \\ -2 & 5 & 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 15–16, find all values of k, if any, that satisfy the equation.

15. $\begin{bmatrix} k & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$

16. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ k \end{bmatrix} = 0$

In Exercises 17–20, use the column-row expansion of AB to express this product as a sum of matrices.

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

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

19. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

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

21. For the linear system in Example 5 of Section 1.2, express the general solution that we obtained in that example as a linear combination of column vectors that contain only numerical entries. [*Suggestion:* Rewrite the general solution as a single column vector, then write that column vector as a sum of column vectors each of which contains at most one parameter, and then factor out the parameters.]

22. Follow the directions of Exercise 21 for the linear system in Example 6 of Section 1.2.

In Exercises 23–24, solve the matrix equation for a, b, c, and d.

23. $\begin{bmatrix} a & 3 \\ -1 & a+b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & d-2c \\ d+2c & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

24. $\begin{bmatrix} a-b & b+a \\ 3d+c & 2d-c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 \\ 7 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

25. (a) Show that if A has a row of zeros and B is any matrix for which AB is defined, then AB also has a row of zeros.
(b) Find a similar result involving a column of zeros.

26. In each part, find a 6×6 matrix $[a_{ij}]$ that satisfies the stated condition. Make your answers as general as possible by using letters rather than specific numbers for the nonzero entries.
(a) $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$ (b) $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$
(c) $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i < j$ (d) $a_{ij} = 0$ if $|i - j| > 1$

In Exercises 27–28, how many 3×3 matrices A can you find for which the equation is satisfied for all choices of x, y, and z?

27. $A\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ x-y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

28. $A\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} xy \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

29. A matrix B is said to be a ***square root*** of a matrix A if $BB = A$.

(a) Find two square roots of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

(b) How many different square roots can you find of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$?

(c) Do you think that every 2×2 matrix has at least one square root? Explain your reasoning.

30. Let 0 denote a 2×2 matrix, each of whose entries is zero.

(a) Is there a 2×2 matrix A such that $A \neq 0$ and $AA = 0$? Justify your answer.

(b) Is there a 2×2 matrix A such that $A \neq 0$ and $AA = A$? Justify your answer.

31. Establish Formula (11) by using Formula (5) to show that

$$(AB)_{ij} = (\mathbf{c}_1\mathbf{r}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2\mathbf{r}_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{c}_r\mathbf{r}_r)_{ij}$$

32. Find a 4×4 matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ whose entries satisfy the stated condition.

(a) $a_{ij} = i + j$

(b) $a_{ij} = i^{j-1}$

(c) $a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |i-j| > 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } |i-j| \le 1 \end{cases}$

33. Suppose that type I items cost \$1 each, type II items cost \$2 each, and type III items cost \$3 each. Also, suppose that the accompanying table describes the number of items of each type purchased during the first four months of the year.

Table Ex-33

	Type I	Type II	Type III
Jan.	3	4	3
Feb.	5	6	0
Mar.	2	9	4
Apr.	1	1	7

What information is represented by the following product?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 & 0 \\ 2 & 9 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

34. The accompanying table shows a record of May and June unit sales for a clothing store. Let M denote the 4×3 matrix of May sales and J the 4×3 matrix of June sales.

(a) What does the matrix $M + J$ represent?

(b) What does the matrix $M - J$ represent?

(c) Find a column vector $\mathbf{x}$ for which $M\mathbf{x}$ provides a list of the number of shirts, jeans, suits, and raincoats sold in May.

(d) Find a row vector $\mathbf{y}$ for which $\mathbf{y}M$ provides a list of the number of small, medium, and large items sold in May.

(e) Using the matrices $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ that you found in parts (c) and (d), what does $\mathbf{y}M\mathbf{x}$ represent?

Table Ex-34

May Sales

	Small	Medium	Large
Shirts	45	60	75
Jeans	30	30	40
Suits	12	65	45
Raincoats	15	40	35

June Sales

	Small	Medium	Large
Shirts	30	33	40
Jeans	21	23	25
Suits	9	12	11
Raincoats	8	10	9

Working with Proofs

35. Prove: If A and B are $n \times n$ matrices, then

$$\operatorname{tr}(A+B) = \operatorname{tr}(A) + \operatorname{tr}(B)$$

36. (a) Prove: If AB and BA are both defined, then AB and BA are square matrices.

(b) Prove: If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and $A(BA)$ is defined, then B is an $n \times m$ matrix.

True-False Exercises

TF. In parts (a)–(o) determine whether the statement is true or false, and justify your answer.

(a) The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ has no main diagonal.

(b) An $m \times n$ matrix has m column vectors and n row vectors.

(c) If A and B are 2×2 matrices, then $AB = BA$.

(d) The ith row vector of a matrix product AB can be computed by multiplying A by the ith row vector of B.

Properties of Matrix Multiplication

Do not let Theorem 1.4.1 lull you into believing that *all* laws of real arithmetic carry over to matrix arithmetic. For example, you know that in real arithmetic it is always true that $ab = ba$, which is called the *commutative law for multiplication*. In matrix arithmetic, however, the equality of AB and BA can fail for three possible reasons:

1. AB may be defined and BA may not (for example, if A is 2×3 and B is 3×4).
2. AB and BA may both be defined, but they may have different sizes (for example, if A is 2×3 and B is 3×2).
3. AB and BA may both be defined and have the same size, but the two products may be different (as illustrated in the next example).

▶ **EXAMPLE 2 Order Matters in Matrix Multiplication**

Consider the matrices

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

Multiplying gives

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

Thus, $AB \neq BA$. ◀

not read too much into Ex-
ple 2—it does not rule out
possibility that AB and BA
be equal in *certain* cases,
that they are not equal in
cases. If it so happens that
$= BA$, then we say that
and BA *commute*.

Zero Matrices

A matrix whose entries are all zero is called a ***zero matrix***. Some examples are

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

We will denote a zero matrix by 0 unless it is important to specify its size, in which case we will denote the $m \times n$ zero matrix by $0_{m \times n}$.

It should be evident that if A and 0 are matrices with the same size, then

$$A + 0 = 0 + A = A$$

Thus, 0 plays the same role in this matrix equation that the number 0 plays in the numerical equation $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$.

The following theorem lists the basic properties of zero matrices. Since the results should be self-evident, we will omit the formal proofs.

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 perfomed, then:

(a) $A + 0 = 0 + A = A$

(b) $A - 0 = A$

(c) $A - A = A + (-A) = 0$

(d) $0A = 0$

(e) *If $cA = 0$, then $c = 0$ or $A = 0$.*

Since we know that the commutative law of real arithmetic is not valid in matrix arithmetic, it should not be surprising that there are other rules that fail as well. For example, consider the following two laws of real arithmetic:

- If $ab = ac$ and $a \neq 0$, then $b = c$. [The cancellation law]
- If $ab = 0$, then at least one of the factors on the left is 0.

The next two examples show that these laws are not true in matrix arithmetic.

▶ EXAMPLE 3 Failure of the Cancellation Law

Consider the matrices

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

We leave it for you to confirm that

$$AB = AC = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Although $A \neq 0$, canceling A from both sides of the equation $AB = AC$ would lead to the incorrect conclusion that $B = C$. Thus, the cancellation law does not hold, in general, for matrix multiplication (though there may be particular cases where it is true).

▶ EXAMPLE 4 A Zero Product with Nonzero Factors

Here are two matrices for which $AB = 0$, but $A \neq 0$ and $B \neq 0$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \blacktriangleleft$$

Identity Matrices

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

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

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.

To explain the role of identity matrices in matrix arithmetic, let us consider the effect of multiplying a general 2×3 matrix A on each side by an identity matrix. Multiplying on the right by the 3×3 identity matrix yields

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

and multiplying on the left by the 2×2 identity matrix yields

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

The same result holds in general; that is, if A is any $m \times n$ matrix, then

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

Thus, the identity matrices play the same role in matrix arithmetic that the number 1 plays in the numerical equation $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$.

As the next theorem shows, identity matrices arise naturally in studying reduced row echelon forms of *square* matrices.

THEOREM 1.4.3 *If R is the reduced row echelon form of an $n \times n$ matrix A, then either R has a row of zeros or R is the identity matrix I_n.*

Proof Suppose that the reduced row echelon form of A is

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ r_{n1} & r_{n2} & \cdots & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Either the last row in this matrix consists entirely of zeros or it does not. If not, the matrix contains no zero rows, and consequently each of the n rows has a leading entry of 1. Since these leading 1's occur progressively farther to the right as we move down the matrix, each of these 1's must occur on the main diagonal. Since the other entries in the same column as one of these 1's are zero, R must be I_n. Thus, either R has a row of zeros or $R = I_n$. ◀

Inverse of a Matrix

In real arithmetic every nonzero number a has a reciprocal $a^{-1}(= 1/a)$ with the property

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

The number a^{-1} is sometimes called the *multiplicative inverse* of a. Our next objective is to develop an analog of this result for matrix arithmetic. For this purpose we make the following definition.

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***.

Remark The relationship $AB = BA = I$ is not changed by interchanging A and B, so if A is invertible and B is an inverse of A, then it is also true that B is invertible, and A is an inverse of B. Thus, when

$$AB = BA = I$$

we say that A and B are *inverses of one another*.

▶ EXAMPLE 5 An Invertible Matrix

Let

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

Then

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

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

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

EXAMPLE 6 A Class of Singular Matrices

A square matrix with a row or column of zeros is singular. To help understand why this is so, consider the matrix

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

To prove that A is singular we must show that there is no 3×3 matrix B such that $AB = BA = I$. For this purpose let $\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \mathbf{0}$ be the column vectors of A. Thus, for any 3×3 matrix B we can express the product BA as

$$BA = B[\mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_2 \quad \mathbf{0}] = [B\mathbf{c}_1 \quad B\mathbf{c}_2 \quad \mathbf{0}] \quad \text{[Formula (6) of Section 1.3]}$$

The column of zeros shows that $BA \neq I$ and hence that A is singular. ◀

As in Example 6, we will frequently denote a zero matrix with one row or one column by a boldface zero.

Properties of Inverses

It is reasonable to ask whether an invertible matrix can have more than one inverse. The next theorem shows that the answer is no—*an invertible matrix has exactly one inverse.*

THEOREM 1.4.4 *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 $C = B$. ◀

As a consequence of this important result, we can now speak of "the" inverse of an invertible matrix. If A is invertible, then its inverse will be denoted by the symbol A^{-1}. Thus,

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

WARNING The symbol A^{-1} should not be interpreted as $1/A$. Division by matrices will not be a defined operation in this text.

The inverse of A plays much the same role in matrix arithmetic that the reciprocal a^{-1} plays in the numerical relationships $aa^{-1} = 1$ and $a^{-1}a = 1$.

In the next section we will develop a method for computing the inverse of an invertible matrix of any size. For now we give the following theorem that specifies conditions under which a 2×2 matrix is invertible and provides a simple formula for its inverse.

Historical Note The formula for A^{-1} given in Theorem 1.4.5 first appeared (in a more general form) in Arthur Cayley's 1858 *Memoir on the Theory of Matrices*. The more general result that Cayley discovered will be studied later.

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

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

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

Figure 1.4.1

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

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

We will omit the proof, because we will study a more general version of this theorem later. For now, you should at least confirm the validity of Formula (2) by showing that $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$.

Remark Figure 1.4.1 illustrates that the determinant of a 2×2 matrix A is the product of the entries on its main diagonal minus the product of the entries *off* its main diagonal.

▶ EXAMPLE 7 Calculating the Inverse of a 2 × 2 Matrix

In each part, determine whether the matrix is invertible. If so, find its inverse.

$$\text{(a) } A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{(b) } A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution (a) The determinant of A is $\det(A) = (6)(2) - (1)(5) = 7$, which is nonzero. Thus, A is invertible, and its inverse is

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

We leave it for you to confirm that $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$.

Solution (b) The matrix is not invertible since $\det(A) = (-1)(-6) - (2)(3) = 0$.

▶ EXAMPLE 8 Solution of a Linear System by Matrix Inversion

A problem that arises in many applications is to solve a pair of equations of the form

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

for x and y in terms of u and v. One approach is to treat this as a linear system of two equations in the unknowns x and y and use Gauss–Jordan elimination to solve for x and y. However, because the coefficients of the unknowns are *literal* rather than *numerical*, this procedure is a little clumsy. As an alternative approach, 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

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

Using Theorem 1.4.5, we can rewrite this equation as

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

from which we obtain

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

The next theorem is concerned with inverses of matrix products.

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

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

Proof We can establish the invertibility and obtain the stated formula at the same time by showing that

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

But

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

and similarly, $(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = I$. ◀

Although we will not prove it, this result can be extended to three or more factors:

A product of any number of invertible matrices is invertible, and the inverse of the product is the product of the inverses in the reverse order.

▶ **EXAMPLE 9 The Inverse of a Product**

Consider the matrices

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

We leave it for you to show that

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

and also that

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

Thus, $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ as guaranteed by Theorem 1.4.6. ◀

a product of matrices is [s]ingular, then at least one of [the] factors must be singular. [Why]?

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,

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

In addition, we have the following properties of negative exponents.

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 $(kA)^{-1} = k^{-1}A^{-1}$.

We will prove part (*c*) and leave the proofs of parts (*a*) and (*b*) as exercises.

***Proof* (c)** Properties (*m*) and (*l*) of Theorem 1.4.1 imply that

$$(kA)(k^{-1}A^{-1}) = k^{-1}(kA)A^{-1} = (k^{-1}k)AA^{-1} = (1)I = I$$

and similarly, $(k^{-1}A^{-1})(kA) = I$. Thus, kA is invertible and $(kA)^{-1} = k^{-1}A^{-1}$. ◀

▶ EXAMPLE 10 Properties of Exponents

Let A and A^{-1} be the matrices in Example 9; that is,

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

Then

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

Also,

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

so, as expected from Theorem 1.4.7(*b*),

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

▶ EXAMPLE 11 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

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

It is only in the special case where A and B *commute* (i.e., $AB = BA$) that we can go a step further and write

$$(A+B)^2 = A^2 + 2AB + B^2 \quad ◀$$

Matrix Polynomials

If A is a square matrix, say $n \times n$, and if

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_mx^m$$

is any polynomial, then we define the $n \times n$ matrix $p(A)$ to be

$$p(A) = a_0I + a_1A + a_2A^2 + \cdots + a_mA^m$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix; that is, $p(A)$ is obtained by substituting A for x and replacing the constant term a_0 by the matrix a_0I. An expression of form (3) is called *a matrix polynomial in A*.

▶ EXAMPLE 12 A Matrix Polynomial

Find $p(A)$ for

$$p(x) = x^2 - 2x - 3 \quad \text{and} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} p(A) &= A^2 - 2A - 3I \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^2 - 2\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - 3\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

or more briefly, $p(A) = 0$. ◀

Remark It follows from the fact that $A^rA^s = A^{r+s} = A^{s+r} = A^sA^r$ that powers of a square matrix commute, and since a matrix polynomial in A is built up from powers of A, any two matrix polynomials in A also commute; that is, for any polynomials p_1 and p_2 we have

$$p_1(A)p_2(A) = p_2(A)p_1(A) \tag{4}$$

Properties of the Transpose

The following theorem lists the main 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*) $(AB)^T = B^TA^T$

If you keep in mind that transposing a matrix interchanges its rows and columns, then you should have little trouble visualizing the results in parts (*a*)–(*d*). For example, part (*a*) states the obvious fact that interchanging rows and columns twice leaves a matrix unchanged; and part (*b*) states that adding two matrices and then interchanging the rows and columns produces the same result as interchanging the rows and columns before adding. We will omit the formal proofs. Part (*e*) is less obvious, but for brevity we will omit its proof as well. The result in that part can be extended to three or more factors and restated as:

The transpose of a product of any number of matrices is the product of the transposes in the reverse order.

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*

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

Proof We can establish the invertibility and obtain the formula at the same time by showing that

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

But from part (*e*) of Theorem 1.4.8 and the fact that $I^T = I$, we have

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

which completes the proof. ◀

▶ **EXAMPLE 13 Inverse of a Transpose**

Consider a general 2×2 invertible matrix and its transpose:

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

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. It follows from Theorem 1.4.5 that

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

which is the same matrix that results if A^{-1} is transposed (verify). Thus,

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

as guaranteed by Theorem 1.4.9. ◀

Exercise Set 1.4 add

In Exercises 1–2, verify that the following matrices and scalars satisfy the stated properties of Theorem 1.4.1.

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

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad a = 4, \quad b = -7$$

1. (a) The associative law for matrix addition. $A+(B+C)=(A+B)+C$
   (b) The associative law for matrix multiplication. $A(BC)=(AB)C$
   (c) The left distributive law. $A(B+C)=AB+AC$
   (d) $(a + b)C = aC + bC$

2. (a) $a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)$
   (b) $A(B - C) = AB - AC$ (c) $(B + C)A = BA + CA$
   (d) $a(bC) = (ab)C$

In Exercises 3–4, verify that the matrices and scalars in Exercise 1 satisfy the stated properties.

3. (a) $(A^T)^T = A$ (b) $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
4. (a) $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$ (b) $(aC)^T = aC^T$

In Exercises 5–8, use Theorem 1.4.5 to compute the inverse of the matrix.

5. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ 6. $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

7. $C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $D = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

9. Find the inverse of

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x}) & \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x}) \\ \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x}) & \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

10. Find the inverse of

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

In Exercises 11–14, verify that the equations are valid for the matrices in Exercises 5–8.

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

12. $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

13. $(ABC)^{-1} = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}$

14. $(ABC)^T = C^TB^TA^T$

In Exercises 15–18, use the given information to find A.

15. $(7A)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 7 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $(5A^T)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

17. $(I + 2A)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

18. $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 19–20, compute the following using the given matrix A.

(a) A^3 (b) A^{-3} (c) $A^2 - 2A + I$

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

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

In Exercises 21–22, compute $p(A)$ for the given matrix A and the following polynomials.

(a) $p(x) = x - 2$

(b) $p(x) = 2x^2 - x + 1$

(c) $p(x) = x^3 - 2x + 1$

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

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

In Exercises 23–24, let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

23. Find all values of a, b, c, and d (if any) for which the matrices A and B commute. AB = B.A

24. Find all values of a, b, c, and d (if any) for which the matrices A and C commute. AC = CA

In Exercises 25–28, use the method of Example 8 to find the unique solution of the given linear system.

25. $3x_1 - 2x_2 = -1$
$4x_1 + 5x_2 = 3$

26. $-x_1 + 5x_2 = 4$
$-x_1 - 3x_2 = 1$

27. $6x_1 + x_2 = 0$
$4x_1 - 3x_2 = -2$

28. $2x_1 - 2x_2 = 4$
$x_1 + 4x_2 = 4$

If a polynomial $p(x)$ can be factored as a product of lower degree polynomials, say

$$p(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$$

and if A is a square matrix, then it can be proved that

$$p(A) = p_1(A)p_2(A)$$

In Exercises 29–30, verify this statement for the stated matrix and polynomials

$$p(x) = x^2 - 9, \quad p_1(x) = x + 3, \quad p_2(x) = x - 3$$

29. The matrix A in Exercise 21.

30. An arbitrary square matrix A.

31. (a) Give an example of two 2×2 matrices such that

$$(A + B)(A - B) \neq A^2 - B^2$$

(b) State a valid formula for multiplying out

$$(A + B)(A - B)$$

(c) What condition can you impose on A and B that will allow you to write $(A + B)(A - B) = A^2 - B^2$?

32. The numerical equation $a^2 = 1$ has exactly two solutions. Find at least eight solutions of the matrix equation $A^2 = I$. [*Hint:* Look for solutions in which all entries off the main diagonal are zero.]

33. (a) Show that if a square matrix A satisfies the equation $A^2 + 2A + I = 0$, then A must be invertible. What is the inverse?

(b) Show that if $p(x)$ is a polynomial with a nonzero constant term, and if A is a square matrix for which $p(A) = 0$, then A is invertible.

34. Is it possible for A^3 to be an identity matrix without A being invertible? Explain.

35. Can a matrix with a row of zeros or a column of zeros have an inverse? Explain.

36. Can a matrix with two identical rows or two identical columns have an inverse? Explain.

echelon forms, and elementary matrices, is our first step in that direction. As we study new topics, more statements will be added to this theorem.

THEOREM 1.5.3 Equivalent Statements

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the following statements are equivalent, that is, all true or all false.

(a) A is invertible.

(b) $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution. → when an variable valu 0

(c) The reduced row echelon form of A is I_n.

(d) A is expressible as a product of elementary matrices.

The following figure illustrates visually that from the sequence of implications

$$(a) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (d) \Rightarrow (a)$$

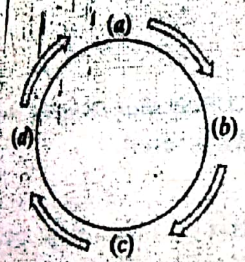
we can conclude that

$$(d) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (a)$$

and hence that

$$(a) \Leftrightarrow (b) \Leftrightarrow (c) \Leftrightarrow (d)$$

(see Appendix A).



Proof We will prove the equivalence by establishing the chain of implications: $(a) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (d) \Rightarrow (a)$.

(a) ⇒ (b) Assume A is invertible and let $\mathbf{x}_0$ be any solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Multiplying both sides of this equation by the matrix A^{-1} gives $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_0) = A^{-1}\mathbf{0}$, or $(A^{-1}A)\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, or $I\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, or $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$. Thus, $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.

(b) ⇒ (c) Let $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ be the matrix form of the system

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n &= 0 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n &= 0 \\ \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad\quad \vdots \qquad &\ \ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{nn}x_n &= 0 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

and assume that the system has only the trivial solution. If we solve by Gauss–Jordan elimination, then the system of equations corresponding to the reduced row echelon form of the augmented matrix will be

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 \qquad\qquad &= 0 \\ x_2 \qquad &= 0 \\ \ddots \quad & \\ x_n &= 0 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Thus the augmented matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for (1) can be reduced to the augmented matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 0 & -8 & -9 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 9 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$ ← We added −2 times the first row to the second and added the first row to the third.

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -8 & -9 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$ ← We added the second row to the third.

Since we have obtained a row of zeros on the left side, A is not invertible.

▶ EXAMPLE 6 Analyzing Homogeneous Systems

Use Theorem 1.5.3 to determine whether the given homogeneous system has nontrivial solutions.

(a)
$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 &= 0 \\ x_1 \qquad\quad + 8x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

(b)
$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 6x_2 + 4x_3 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Solution From parts (a) and (b) of Theorem 1.5.3 a homogeneous linear system has only the trivial solution if and only if its coefficient matrix is invertible. From Examples 4 and 5 the coefficient matrix of system (a) is invertible and that of system (b) is not. Thus, system (a) has only the trivial solution while system (b) has nontrivial solutions. ◀

Exercise Set 1.5

In Exercises 1–2, determine whether the given matrix is elementary.

1. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

2. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 3–4, find a row operation and the corresponding elementary matrix that will restore the given elementary matrix to the identity matrix.

3. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} -7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{7} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

▶ In Exercises 5–6 an elementary matrix E and a matrix A are given. Identify the row operation corresponding to E and verify that the product EA results from applying the row operation to A. ◀

5. (a) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 & -1 \\ 3 & -6 & -6 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -4 & -4 \\ 1 & -3 & -1 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

6. (a) $E = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 & -1 \\ 3 & -6 & -6 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -4 & -4 \\ 1 & -3 & -1 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

▶ In Exercises 7–8, use the following matrices and find an elementary matrix E that satisfies the stated equation.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 8 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & -1 \\ 2 & -7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ -6 & 21 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 5 \\ 8 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

7. (a) $EA = B$ (b) $EB = A$

(c) $EA = C$ (d) $EC = A$

8. (a) $EB = D$ (b) $ED = B$

(c) $EB = F$ (d) $EF = B$

▶ In Exercises 9–10, first use Theorem 1.4.5 and then use the inversion algorithm to find A^{-1}, if it exists. ◀

9. (a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ -4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

10. (a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 \\ 3 & -16 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

▶ In Exercises 11–12, use the inversion algorithm to find the inverse of the matrix (if the inverse exists).

11. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$

12. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{2}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{10} \\ \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{4}{5} & \frac{1}{10} \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{2}{5} \\ \frac{2}{5} & -\frac{3}{5} & -\frac{3}{10} \\ \frac{1}{5} & -\frac{4}{5} & \frac{1}{10} \end{bmatrix}$

▶ In Exercises 13–18, use the inversion algorithm to find the inverse of the matrix (if the inverse exists). ◀

13. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

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

15. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 & 6 \\ 2 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 7 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

17. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 12 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -4 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$

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

▶ In Exercises 19–20, find the inverse of each of the following 4×4 matrices, where k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4, and k are all nonzero. ◀

19. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} k_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & k_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & k_4 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} k & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

20. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & k_1 \\ 0 & 0 & k_2 & 0 \\ 0 & k_3 & 0 & 0 \\ k_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} k & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & k & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & k \end{bmatrix}$

▶ In Exercises 21–22, find all values of c, if any, for which the given matrix is invertible. ◀

21. $\begin{bmatrix} c & c & c \\ 1 & c & c \\ 1 & 1 & c \end{bmatrix}$

22. $\begin{bmatrix} c & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & c & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & c \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & b_1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & b_2 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reducing this to reduced row echelon form yields (verify)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -40b_1 + 16b_2 + 9b_3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 13b_1 - 5b_2 - 3b_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5b_1 - 2b_2 - b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

What does the result in Example 4 tell you about the coefficient matrix of the system?

In this case there are no restrictions on b_1, b_2, and b_3, so the system has the solution

$$x_1 = -40b_1 + 16b_2 + 9b_3, \quad x_2 = 13b_1 - 5b_2 - 3b_3, \quad x_3 = 5b_1 - 2b_2 - b_3$$

for all values of b_1, b_2, and b_3. ◀

Exercise Set 1.6

In Exercises 1–8, solve the system by inverting the coefficient matrix and using Theorem 1.6.2.

1. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= 2 \\ 5x_1 + 6x_2 &= 9 \end{aligned}$

2. $\begin{aligned} 4x_1 - 3x_2 &= -3 \\ 2x_1 - 5x_2 &= 9 \end{aligned}$

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

4. $\begin{aligned} 5x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 &= 4 \\ 3x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 &= 2 \\ x_2 + x_3 &= 5 \end{aligned}$

5. $\begin{aligned} x + y + z &= 5 \\ x + y - 4z &= 10 \\ -4x + y + z &= 0 \end{aligned}$

6. $\begin{aligned} -x - 2y - 3z &= 0 \\ w + x + 4y + 4z &= 7 \\ w + 3x + 7y + 9z &= 4 \\ -w - 2x - 4y - 6z &= 6 \end{aligned}$

7. $\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + 5x_2 &= b_1 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$

8. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= b_1 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 5x_3 &= b_2 \\ 3x_1 + 5x_2 + 8x_3 &= b_3 \end{aligned}$

In Exercises 9–12, solve the linear systems together by reducing the appropriate augmented matrix.

9. $\begin{aligned} x_1 - 5x_2 &= b_1 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$

   (i) $b_1 = 1, \; b_2 = 4$ (ii) $b_1 = -2, \; b_2 = 5$

10. $\begin{aligned} -x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 &= b_1 \\ x_1 + 9x_2 - 2x_3 &= b_2 \\ 6x_1 + 4x_2 - 8x_3 &= b_3 \end{aligned}$

    (i) $b_1 = 0, \; b_2 = 1, \; b_3 = 0$
    (ii) $b_1 = -3, \; b_2 = 4, \; b_3 = -5$

11. $\begin{aligned} 4x_1 - 7x_2 &= b_1 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$

    (i) $b_1 = 0, \; b_2 = 1$ (ii) $b_1 = -4, \; b_2 = 6$
    (iii) $b_1 = -1, \; b_2 = 3$ (iv) $b_1 = -5, \; b_2 = 1$

12. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 + 5x_3 &= b_1 \\ -x_1 - 2x_2 &= b_2 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 4x_3 &= b_3 \end{aligned}$

    (i) $b_1 = 1, \; b_2 = 0, \; b_3 = -1$
    (ii) $b_1 = 0, \; b_2 = 1, \; b_3 = 1$
    (iii) $b_1 = -1, \; b_2 = -1, \; b_3 = 0$

In Exercises 13–17, determine conditions on the b_i's, if any, in order to guarantee that the linear system is consistent. ◀

13. $\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 &= b_1 \\ -2x_1 + x_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$

14. $\begin{aligned} 6x_1 - 4x_2 &= b_1 \\ 3x_1 - 2x_2 &= b_2 \end{aligned}$

15. $\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= b_1 \\ 4x_1 - 5x_2 + 8x_3 &= b_2 \\ -3x_1 + 3x_2 - 3x_3 &= b_3 \end{aligned}$

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

17. $\begin{aligned} x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 + 2x_4 &= b_1 \\ -2x_1 + x_2 + 5x_3 + x_4 &= b_2 \\ -3x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 &= b_3 \\ 4x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 + 3x_4 &= b_4 \end{aligned}$

18. Consider the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) Show that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ can be rewritten as $(A - I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ and use this result to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ for

(b) Solve $A\mathbf{x} = 4\mathbf{x}$.

In Exercises 19–20, solve the matrix equation for X. ◀

19. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 5 & 7 & 8 \\ 4 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & -7 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

20. $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 1 & 3 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

Working with Proofs

21. Let $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ be a homogeneous system of n linear equations in n unknowns that has only the trivial solution. Prove that if k is any positive integer, then the system $A^k\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ also has only the trivial solution.

22. Let $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ be a homogeneous system of n linear equations in n unknowns, and let Q be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Prove that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution if and only if $(QA)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.

23. Let $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ be any consistent system of linear equations, and let $\mathbf{x}_1$ be a fixed solution. Prove that every solution to the system can be written in the form $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_0$, where $\mathbf{x}_0$ is a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Prove also that every matrix of this form is a solution.

24. Use part (*a*) of Theorem 1.6.3 to prove part (*b*).

True-False Exercises

TF. In parts (a)–(g) determine whether the statement is true or false, and justify your answer.

(a) It is impossible for a system of linear equations to have exactly two solutions.

(b) If A is a square matrix, and if the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution, then the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ also must have a unique solution.

(c) If A and B are $n \times n$ matrices such that $AB = I_n$, then $BA = I_n$.

(d) If A and B are row equivalent matrices, then the linear systems $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ and $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ have the same solution set.

(e) Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and S is an $n \times n$ invertible matrix. If $\mathbf{x}$ is a solution to the linear system $(S^{-1}AS)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, then $S\mathbf{x}$ is a solution to the linear system $A\mathbf{y} = S\mathbf{b}$.

(f) Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The linear system $A\mathbf{x} = 4\mathbf{x}$ has a unique solution if and only if $A - 4I$ is an invertible matrix.

(g) Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. If A or B (or both) are not invertible, then neither is AB.

Working with Technology

T1. Colors in print media, on computer monitors, and on television screens are implemented using what are called "color models". For example, in the RGB model, colors are created by mixing percentages of red (R), green (G), and blue (B), and in the YIQ model (used in TV broadcasting), colors are created by mixing percentages of luminescence (Y) with percentages of a chrominance factor (I) and a chrominance factor (Q). The conversion from the RGB model to the YIQ model is accomplished by the matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y \\ I \\ Q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} .299 & .587 & .114 \\ .596 & -.275 & -.321 \\ .212 & -.523 & .311 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

What matrix would you use to convert the YIQ model to the RGB model?

T2. Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solve the linear systems $A\mathbf{x} = B_1$, $A\mathbf{x} = B_2$, $A\mathbf{x} = B_3$ using the method of Example 2..

1.7 Diagonal, Triangular, and Symmetric Matrices

In this section we will discuss matrices that have various special forms. These matrices arise in a wide variety of applications and will play an important role in our subsequent work.

Diagonal Matrices

A square matrix in which all the entries off the main diagonal are zero is called a ***diagonal matrix***. Here are some examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Triangular Matrices

A square matrix in which all the entries above the main diagonal are zero is called ***lower triangular***, and a square matrix in which all the entries below the main diagonal are zero is called ***upper triangular***. A matrix that is either upper triangular or lower triangular is called ***triangular***.

▶ **EXAMPLE 2 Upper and Lower Triangular Matrices**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & 0 \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

A general 4×4 upper triangular matrix

A general 4×4 lower triangular matrix

Remark Observe that diagonal matrices are both upper triangular and lower triangular since they have zeros below and above the main diagonal. Observe also that a *square* matrix in row echelon form is upper triangular since it has zeros below the main diagonal.

Properties of Triangular Matrices

Example 2 illustrates the following four facts about triangular matrices that we will state without formal proof:

- A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is upper triangular if and only if all entries to the left of the main diagonal are zero; that is, $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$ (Figure 1.7.1).
- A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is lower triangular if and only if all entries to the right of the main diagonal are zero; that is, $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i < j$ (Figure 1.7.1).
- A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is upper triangular if and only if the ith row starts with at least $i - 1$ zeros for every i.
- A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is lower triangular if and only if the jth column starts with at least $j - 1$ zeros for every j.

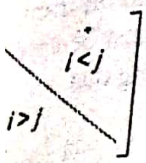


Figure 1.7.1

The following theorem lists some of the basic properties of triangular matrices.

THEOREM 1.7.1

(*a*) *The transpose of a lower triangular matrix is upper triangular, and the transpose of an upper triangular matrix is lower triangular.*

(*b*) *The product of lower triangular matrices is lower triangular, and the product of upper triangular matrices is upper triangular.*

(*c*) *A triangular matrix is invertible if and only if its diagonal entries are all nonzero.*

(*d*) *The inverse of an invertible lower triangular matrix is lower triangular, and the inverse of an invertible upper triangular matrix is upper triangular.*

Part (*a*) is evident from the fact that transposing a square matrix can be accomplished by reflecting the entries about the main diagonal; we omit the formal proof. We will prove (*b*), but we will defer the proofs of (*c*) and (*d*) to the next chapter, where we will have the tools to prove those results more efficiently.

***Proof* (*b*)** We will prove the result for lower triangular matrices; the proof for upper triangular matrices is similar. Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be lower triangular $n \times n$ matrices, and let $C = [c_{ij}]$ be the product $C = AB$. We can prove that C is lower triangular by showing that $c_{ij} = 0$ for $i < j$. But from the definition of matrix multiplication,

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

If we assume that $i < j$, then the terms in this expression can be grouped as follows:

$$c_{ij} = \underbrace{a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{i(j-1)}b_{(j-1)j}}_{\substack{\text{Terms in which the row} \\ \text{number of } b \text{ is less than} \\ \text{the column number of } b}} + \underbrace{a_{ij}b_{jj} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj}}_{\substack{\text{Terms in which the row} \\ \text{number of } a \text{ is less than} \\ \text{the column number of } a}}$$

In the first grouping all of the b factors are zero since B is lower triangular, and in the second grouping all of the a factors are zero since A is lower triangular. Thus, $c_{ij} = 0$, which is what we wanted to prove. ◀

▶ **EXAMPLE 3 Computations with Triangular Matrices**

Consider the upper triangular matrices

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

It follows from part (c) of Theorem 1.7.1 that the matrix A is invertible but the matrix B is not. Moreover, the theorem also tells us that A^{-1}, AB, and BA must be upper triangular. We leave it for you to confirm these three statements by showing that

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{7}{5} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{2}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \end{bmatrix}, \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} ◀$$

...hat in Example 3 the ... entries of AB and ...e same, and in both ...y are the products ...esponding diagonal ... A and B. In the ...ve will ask you to ... this happens when- ...per triangular ma- ...o lower triangular ...e multiplied.

...metric Matrices

DEFINITION 1 A square matrix A is said to be ***symmetric*** if $A = A^T$.

...ecognize sym... by inspe... the main d... ...tions, bu... of entri... ...onal must ... a pictu... ...atrix in E...

▶ **EXAMPLE 4 Symmetric Matrices**

The following matrices are symmetric, since each is equal to its own transpose (verify).

$$\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{bmatrix} ◀$$

Remark It follows from Formula (14) of Section 1.3 that a square matrix A is symmetric if and only if

$$(A)_{ij} = (A)_{ji} \tag{4}$$

for all values of i and j.

THEOREM 1.7.2 *If A and B are symmetric matrices with the same size, and if k is any scalar, then:*

(a) A^T *is symmetric.*

(b) $A + B$ *and* $A - B$ *are symmetric.*

(c) kA *is symmetric.*

It is not true, in general, that the product of symmetric matrices is symmetric. To see why this is so, let A and B be symmetric matrices with the same size. Then it follows from part (*e*) of Theorem 1.4.8 and the symmetry of A and B that

$$(AB)^T = B^TA^T = BA$$

Thus, $(AB)^T = AB$ if and only if $AB = BA$, that is, if and only if A and B commute. In summary, we have the following result.

THEOREM 1.7.3 *The product of two symmetric matrices is symmetric if and only if the matrices commute.*

EXAMPLE 5 Products of Symmetric Matrices

The first of the following equations shows a product of symmetric matrices that *is not* symmetric, and the second shows a product of symmetric matrices that *is* symmetric. We conclude that the factors in the first equation do not commute, but those in the second equation do. We leave it for you to verify that this is so.

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

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

ibility of Symmetric Matrices

In general, a symmetric matrix need not be invertible. For example, a diagonal matrix with a zero on the main diagonal is symmetric but not invertible. However, the following theorem shows that if a symmetric matrix happens to be invertible, then its inverse must also be symmetric.

THEOREM 1.7.4 *If A is an invertible symmetric matrix, then A^{-1} is symmetric.*

Proof Assume that A is symmetric and invertible. From Theorem 1.4.9 and the fact that $A = A^T$, we have

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

which proves that A^{-1} is symmetric.

ts AA^T and A^TA are Symmetric

Matrix products of the form AA^T and A^TA arise in a variety of applications. If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then A^T is an $n \times m$ matrix, so the products AA^T and A^TA are both square matrices—the matrix AA^T has size $m \times m$, and the matrix A^TA has size $n \times n$. Such products are always symmetric since

$$(AA^T)^T = (A^T)^TA^T = AA^T \quad \text{and} \quad (A^TA)^T = A^T(A^T)^T = A^TA$$

The vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ in R^n are termed "basis vectors" because all other v in R^n are expressible in exactly one way as a linear combination of them. For exa if

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

then we can express $\mathbf{x}$ as

$$\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

$A \xrightarrow{f} B$

Functions and Transformations

Recall that a *function* is a rule that associates with each element of a set A one and on one element in a set B. If f associates the element b with the element a, then we wri

if $a \in A$

$$b = f(a)$$

then $f(a) = b \in B$

and we say that b is the *image* of a under f or that $f(a)$ is the *value* of f at a. The se A is called the *domain* of f and the set B the *codomain* of f (Figure 1.8.1). The subs of the codomain that consists of all images of elements in the domain is called the ran of f.

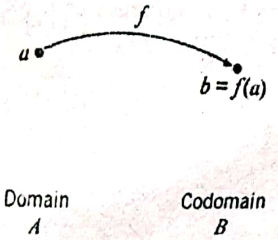
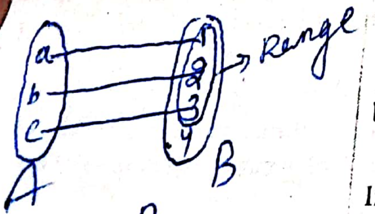


Figure 1.8.1

In many applications the domain and codomain of a function are sets of real numbers, but in this text we will be concerned with functions for which the domain is R^n and the codomain is R^m for some positive integers m and n.



$R \subseteq B$

DEFINITION 1 If f is a function with domain R^n and codomain R^m, then we say that f is a *transformation* from R^n to R^m or that f *maps* from R^n to R^m, which we denote by writing

$$f: R^n \to R^m$$

In the special case where $m = n$, a transformation is sometimes called an *operator* on R^n.

Matrix Transformations

It is common in linear algebra to use the letter T to denote a transformation. In keeping with this usage, we will usually denote a transformation from R^n to R^m by writing

$$T: R^n \to R^m$$

In this section we will be concerned with the class of transformations from R^n to R^m that arise from linear systems. Specifically, suppose that we have the system of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n \\ w_2 &= a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n \\ \vdots \quad & \quad\ \vdots \qquad\quad \vdots \qquad\qquad\quad \vdots \\ w_m &= a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

which we can write in matrix notation as

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \tag{4}$$

or more briefly as

$$\mathbf{w} = A\mathbf{x} \tag{5}$$

Although we could view (5) as a compact way of writing linear system (3), we will view it instead as a transformation that maps a vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n into thevector $\mathbf{w}$ in R^m by multiplying $\mathbf{x}$ on the left by A. We call this a ***matrix transformation*** (or ***matrix operator*** in the special case where $m = n$). We denote it by

$$T_A: R^n \rightarrow R^m$$

(see Figure 1.8.2). This notation is useful when it is important to make the domain and codomain clear. The subscript on T_A serves as a reminder that the transformation results from multiplying vectors in R^n by the matrix A. In situations where specifying the domain and codomain is not essential, we will express (4) as

$$\mathbf{w} = T_A(\mathbf{x}) \tag{6}$$

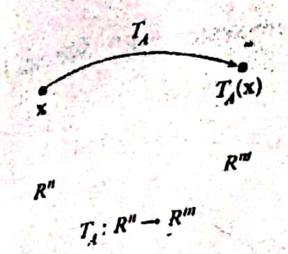


Figure 1.8.2

We call the transformation T_A ***multiplication by A***. On occasion we will find it convenient to express (6) in the schematic form

$$\mathbf{x} \xrightarrow{T_A} \mathbf{w} \tag{7}$$

which is read "T_A maps $\mathbf{x}$ into $\mathbf{w}$."

▶ EXAMPLE 1 A Matrix Transformation from R^4 to R^3

The transformation from R^4 to R^3 defined by the equations

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 2x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 - 5x_4 \\ w_2 &= 4x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 + x_4 \\ w_3 &= 5x_1 - x_2 + 4x_3 \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

can be expressed in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

from which we see that the transformation can be interpreted as multiplication by

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

Although the image under the transformation T_A of any vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

in R^4 could be computed directly from the defining equations in (8), we will find it preferable to use the matrix in (9). For example, if

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

then it follows from (9) that

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = T_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

This leads us to the following two questions.

Question 1. Are there algebraic properties of a transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ that can be used to determine whether T is a matrix transformation?

Question 2. If we discover that a transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation, how can we find a matrix for it?

The following theorem and its proof will provide the answers.

THEOREM 1.8.2 *$T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation if and only if the following relationships hold for all vectors* **u** *and* **v** *in R^n and for every scalar k:*

Linearity condition

(i) $T(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$ **[Additivity property]**

(ii) $T(k\mathbf{u}) = kT(\mathbf{u})$ **[Homogeneity property]**

Proof If T is a matrix transformation, then properties (i) and (ii) follow respectively from parts (c) and (b) of Theorem 1.8.1.

Conversely, assume that properties (i) and (ii) hold. We must show that there exists an $m \times n$ matrix A such that

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$$

for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n. Recall that the derivation of Formula (10) used only the additivity and homogeneity properties of T_A. Since we are assuming that T has those properties, it must be true that

$$T(k_1\mathbf{u}_1 + k_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + k_r\mathbf{u}_r) = k_1T(\mathbf{u}_1) + k_2T(\mathbf{u}_2) + \cdots + k_rT(\mathbf{u}_r) \tag{12}$$

for all scalars $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r$ and all vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_r$ in R^n. Let A be the matrix

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) \mid T(\mathbf{e}_2) \mid \cdots \mid T(\mathbf{e}_n)] \tag{13}$$

where $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ are the standard basis vectors for R^n. It follows from Theorem 1.3.1 that $A\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of the columns of A in which the successive coefficients are the entries $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ of $\mathbf{x}$. That is,

$$A\mathbf{x} = x_1T(\mathbf{e}_1) + x_2T(\mathbf{e}_2) + \cdots + x_nT(\mathbf{e}_n)$$

Using Formula (10) we can rewrite this as

$$A\mathbf{x} = T(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{e}_n) = T(\mathbf{x})$$

which completes the proof.

The additivity and homogeneity properties in Theorem 1.8.2 are called ***linearity conditions***, and a transformation that satisfies these conditions is called a ***linear transformation***. Using this terminology Theorem 1.8.2 can be restated as follows.

Theorem 1.8.3 tells us that *for transformations from R^n to R^m*, the terms "matrix transformation" and "linear transformation" are synonymous.

THEOREM 1.8.3 *Every linear transformation from R^n to R^m is a matrix transformation, and conversely, every matrix transformation from R^n to R^m is a linear transformation.*

Depending on whether n-tuples and m-tuples are regarded as vectors or po… geometric effect of a matrix transformation $T_A: R^n \to R^m$ is to map each vector… in R^n into a vector (point) in R^m (Figure 1.8.3).

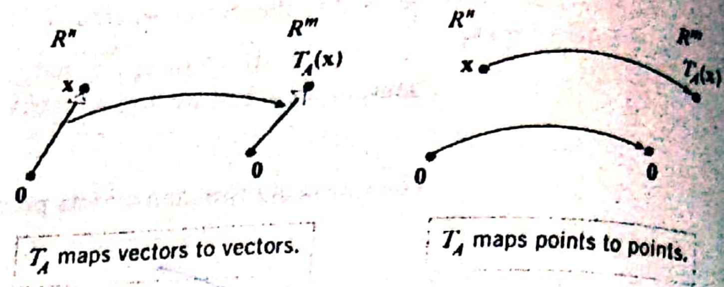


Figure 1.8.3

The following theorem states that if two matrix transformations from R^n to R^m have the same image at each point of R^n, then the matrices themselves must be the same.

THEOREM 1.8.4 *If $T_A: R^n \to R^m$ and $T_B: R^n \to R^m$ are matrix transformations, and $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = T_B(\mathbf{x})$ for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n, then $A = B$.*

Proof To say that $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = T_B(\mathbf{x})$ for every vector in R^n is the same as saying that

$$A\mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{x}$$

for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n. This will be true, in particular, if $\mathbf{x}$ is any of the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ for R^n; that is,

$$A\mathbf{e}_j = B\mathbf{e}_j \quad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, n) \tag{14}$$

Since every entry of $\mathbf{e}_j$ is 0 except for the jth, which is 1, it follows from Theorem 1.3… that $A\mathbf{e}_j$ is the jth column of A and $B\mathbf{e}_j$ is the jth column of B. Thus, (14) implies that corresponding columns of A and B are the same, and hence that $A = B$. ◀

Theorem 1.8.4 is significant because it tells us that there is a *one-to-one correspondence* between $m \times n$ matrices and matrix transformations from R^n to R^m in the sense that every $m \times n$ matrix A produces exactly one matrix transformation (multiplication by A) and every matrix transformation from R^n to R^m arises from exactly one $m \times n$ matrix; we call that matrix the ***standard matrix*** for the transformation.

A Procedure for Finding Standard Matrices

In the course of proving Theorem 1.8.2 we showed in Formula (13) that if $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ are the standard basis vectors for R^n (in column form), then the standard matrix for a linear transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ is given by the formula

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) \mid T(\mathbf{e}_2) \mid \cdots \mid T(\mathbf{e}_n)] \tag{15}$$

This suggests the following procedure for finding standard matrices.

Finding the Standard Matrix for a Matrix Transformation

Step 1. Find the images of the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ for R^n.

Step 2. Construct the matrix that has the images obtained in Step 1 as its successive columns. This matrix is the standard matrix for the transformation.

1– 26

Exercise Set 1.8

In Exercises 1–2, find the domain and codomain of the transformation $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$.

1. (a) A has size 3×2. (b) A has size 2×3. (c) A has size 3×3. (d) A has size 1×6.

2. (a) A has size 4×5. (b) A has size 5×4. (c) A has size 4×4. (d) A has size 3×1.

In Exercises 3–4, find the domain and codomain of the transformation defined by the equations.

3. (a) $w_1 = 4x_1 + 5x_2$, $w_2 = x_1 - 8x_2$ (b) $w_1 = 5x_1 - 7x_2$, $w_2 = 6x_1 + x_2$, $w_3 = 2x_1 + 3x_2$

4. (a) $w_1 = x_1 - 4x_2 + 8x_3$, $w_2 = -x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3$, $w_3 = -3x_1 + 2x_2 - 5x_3$ (b) $w_1 = 2x_1 + 7x_2 - 4x_3$, $w_2 = 4x_1 - 3x_2 + 2x_3$

In Exercises 5–6, find the domain and codomain of the transformation defined by the matrix product.

5. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 4 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

6. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -6 \\ 3 & 7 & -4 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 7–8, find the domain and codomain of the transformation T defined by the formula.

7. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (4x_1 + x_2, x_1 + x_2)$

8. (a) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_1, x_2)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2)$

In Exercises 9–10, find the domain and codomain of the transformation T defined by the formula.

9. $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 \\ x_1 - x_2 \\ 3x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ 10. $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1 - x_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 11–12, find the standard matrix for the transformation defined by the equations.

11. (a) $w_1 = 2x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3$, $w_2 = 3x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3$ (b) $w_1 = 7x_1 + 2x_2 - 8x_3$, $w_2 = -x_2 + 5x_3$, $w_3 = 4x_1 + 7x_2 - x_3$

12. (a) $w_1 = -x_1 + x_2$, $w_2 = 3x_1 - 2x_2$, $w_3 = 5x_1 - 7x_2$ (b) $w_1 = x_1$, $w_2 = x_1 + x_2$, $w_3 = x_1 + x_2 +$, $w_4 = x_1 + x_2 +$

13. Find the standard matrix for the transformation T de the formula.
(a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, -x_1, x_1 + 3x_2, x_1 - x_2)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (7x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 + x_4, x_2 + x_3,$
(c) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$
(d) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_4, x_1, x_3, x_2, x_1 - x_3)$

14. Find the standard matrix for the operator T defined formula.
(a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2)$
(c) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3, x_1 + 5x_2, x_3)$
(d) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (4x_1, 7x_2, -8x_3)$

15. Find the standard matrix for the operator $T: R^3 \to R^3$ defi by

$$w_1 = 3x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3$$
$$w_2 = 4x_1 - x_2 + x_3$$
$$w_3 = 3x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3$$

and then compute $T(-1, 2, 4)$ by directly substituting in t equations and then by matrix multiplication.

16. Find the standard matrix for the transformation $T: R^4 \to R$ defined by

$$w_1 = 2x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3 - x_4$$
$$w_2 = x_1 - 5x_2 + 2x_3 - 3x_4$$

and then compute $T(1, -1, 2, 4)$ by directly substituting in the equations and then by matrix multiplication.

In Exercises 17–18, find the standard matrix for the transformation and use it to compute $T(\mathbf{x})$. Check your result by substituting directly in the formula for T.

17. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (-x_1 + x_2, x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (-1, 4)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (2x_1 - x_2 + x_3, x_2 + x_3, 0)$; $\mathbf{x} = (2, 1, -3)$

18. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (-2, 2)$
(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2 - x_1, x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (1, 0, 5)$

In Exercises 19–20, find $T_A(\mathbf{x})$, and express your answer in matrix form.

19. (a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

20. (a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 6 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 21–22, use Theorem 1.8.2 to show that T is a matrix transformation.

co-domain Domain R^2

21. (a) $T(x, y) = (2x + y, x - y)$

(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_3, x_1 + x_2)$

22. (a) $T(x, y, z) = (x + y, y + z, x)$

(b) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1)$

In Exercises 23–24, use Theorem 1.8.2 to show that T is not a matrix transformation.

23. (a) $T(x, y) = (x^2, y)$

(b) $T(x, y, z) = (x, y, xz)$

24. (a) $T(x, y) = (x, y + 1)$

(b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2, \sqrt{x_3})$

25. A function of the form $f(x) = mx + b$ is commonly called a "linear function" because the graph of $y = mx + b$ is a line. Is f a matrix transformation on R?

26. Show that $T(x, y) = (0, 0)$ defines a matrix operator on R^2 but $T(x, y) = (1, 1)$ does not.

In Exercises 27–28, the images of the standard basis vectors for R^3 are given for a linear transformation $T: R^3 \to R^3$. Find the standard matrix for the transformation, and find $T(\mathbf{x})$.

27. $T(\mathbf{e}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(\mathbf{e}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(\mathbf{e}_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

28. $T(\mathbf{e}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(\mathbf{e}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(\mathbf{e}_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

29. Let $T: R^2 \to R^2$ be a linear operator for which the images of the standard basis vectors for R^2 are $T(\mathbf{e}_1) = (a, b)$ and $T(\mathbf{e}_2) = (c, d)$. Find $T(1, 1)$.

30. We proved in the text that if $T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation, then $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$. Show that the converse of this result is false by finding a mapping $T: R^n \to R^m$ that is not a matrix transformation but for which $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$.

31. Let $T_A: R^3 \to R^3$ be multiplication by

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

$v \in R$

$U, v \in R^2$

and let $\mathbf{e}_1$, $\mathbf{e}_2$, and $\mathbf{e}_3$ be the standard basis vectors for R^3. Find the following vectors by inspection.

(a) $T_A(\mathbf{e}_1)$, $T_A(\mathbf{e}_2)$, and $T_A(\mathbf{e}_3)$

(b) $T_A(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3)$

(c) $T_A(7\mathbf{e}_3)$

Working with Proofs

32. (a) Prove: If $T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation, then $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$; that is, T maps the zero vector in R^n into the zero vector in R^m.

(b) The converse of this is not true. Find an example of a function T for which $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ but which is not a matrix transformation.

True-False Exercises

TF. In parts (a)–(g) determine whether the statement is true or false, and justify your answer.

(a) If A is a 2×3 matrix, then the domain of the transformation T_A is R^2.

(b) If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then the codomain of the transformation T_A is R^n.

(c) There is at least one linear transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ for which $T(2\mathbf{x}) = 4T(\mathbf{x})$ for some vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n.

(d) There are linear transformations from R^n to R^m that are not matrix transformations.

(e) If $T_A: R^n \to R^n$ and if $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n, then A is the $n \times n$ zero matrix.

(f) There is only one matrix transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ such that $T(-\mathbf{x}) = -T(\mathbf{x})$ for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n.

(g) If $\mathbf{b}$ is a nonzero vector in R^n, then $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ is a matrix operator on R^n.

1.9 Applications of Linear Systems

In this section we will discuss some brief applications of linear systems. These are but a small sample of the wide variety of real-world problems to which our study of linear systems is applicable.

Network Analysis

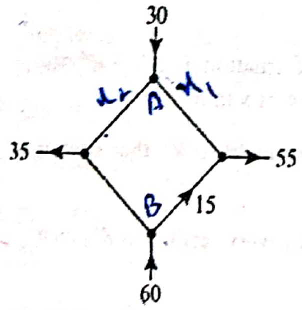
The concept of a ***network*** appears in a variety of applications. Loosely stated, a network is a set of ***branches*** through which something "flows." For example, the branches might be electrical wires through which electricity flows, pipes through which water or oil flows, traffic lanes through which vehicular traffic flows, or economic linkages through which money flows, to name a few possibilities.

In most networks, the branches meet at points, called ***nodes*** or ***junctions***, where the flow divides. For example, in an electrical network, nodes occur where three or more wires join; in a traffic network they occur at street intersections, and in a financial network they occur at banking centers where incoming money is distributed to individuals or other institutions.

In the study of networks, there is generally some numerical measure of the rate at which the medium flows through a branch. For example, the flow rate of electricity is often measured in amperes, the flow rate of water or oil in gallons per minute, the flow rate of traffic in vehicles per hour, and the flow rate of European currency in millions of Euros per day. We will restrict our attention to networks in which there is ***flow conservation*** at each node, by which we mean that *the rate of flow into any node is equal to the rate of flow out of that node*. This ensures that the flow medium does not build up at the nodes and block the free movement of the medium through the network.

A common problem in network analysis is to use known flow rates in certain branches to find the flow rates in all of the branches. Here is an example.

▶ **EXAMPLE 1 Network Analysis Using Linear Systems**



▲ Figure 1.9.1

Figure 1.9.1 shows a network with four nodes in which the flow rate and direction of flow in certain branches are known. Find the flow rates and directions of flow in the remaining branches.

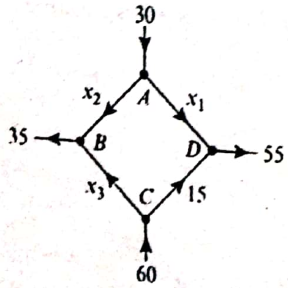
Solution As illustrated in Figure 1.9.2, we have assigned arbitrary directions to the unknown flow rates x_1, x_2, and x_3. We need not be concerned if some of the directions are incorrect, since an incorrect direction will be signaled by a negative value for the flow rate when we solve for the unknowns.

It follows from the conservation of flow at node A that

$$x_1 + x_2 = 30$$

Similarly, at the other nodes we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_2 + x_3 &= 35 \quad (\text{node } B)\\ x_3 + 15 &= 60 \quad (\text{node } C)\\ x_1 + 15 &= 55 \quad (\text{node } D) \end{aligned}$$



▲ Figure 1.9.2

These four conditions produce the linear system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= 30\\ x_2 + x_3 &= 35\\ x_3 &= 45\\ x_1 &= 40 \end{aligned}$$

Exercise Set 1.9

1. The accompanying figure shows a network in which the flow rate and direction of flow in certain branches are known. Find the flow rates and directions of flow in the remaining branches.

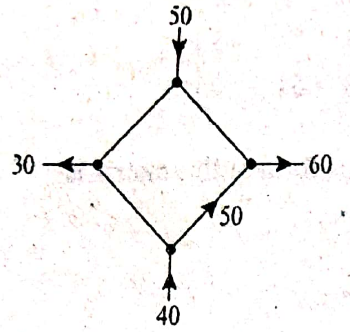


Figure Ex-1

2. The accompanying figure shows known flow rates of hydrocarbons into and out of a network of pipes at an oil refinery.

(a) Set up a linear system whose solution provides the unknown flow rates.

(b) Solve the system for the unknown flow rates.

(c) Find the flow rates and directions of flow if $x_4 = 50$ and $x_6 = 0$.

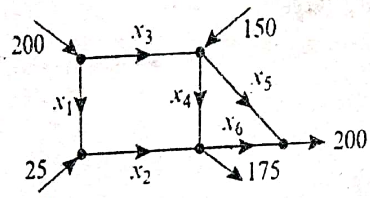


Figure Ex-2

3. The accompanying figure shows a network of one-way streets with traffic flowing in the directions indicated. The flow rates along the streets are measured as the average number of vehicles per hour.

(a) Set up a linear system whose solution provides the unknown flow rates.

(b) Solve the system for the unknown flow rates.

(c) If the flow along the road from A to B must be reduced for construction, what is the minimum flow that is required to keep traffic flowing on all roads?

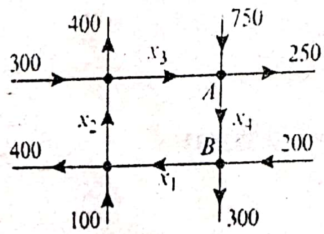


Figure Ex-3

4. The accompanying figure shows a network of one-way streets with traffic flowing in the directions indicated. The flow rates along the streets are measured as the average number of vehicles per hour.

(a) Set up a linear system whose solution provides the unknown flow rates.

(b) Solve the system for the unknown flow rates.

(c) Is it possible to close the road from A to B for co... and keep traffic flowing on the other streets? E...

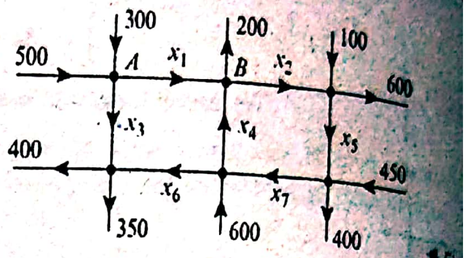
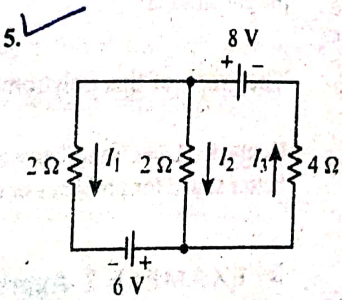


Fig...

In Exercises 5–8, analyze the given electrical circuits b... the unknown currents.

5.



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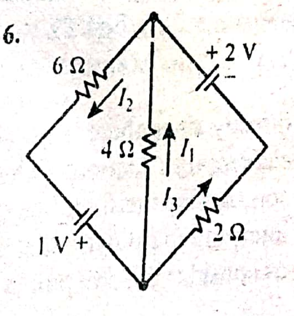

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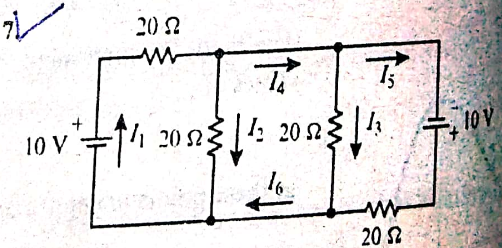
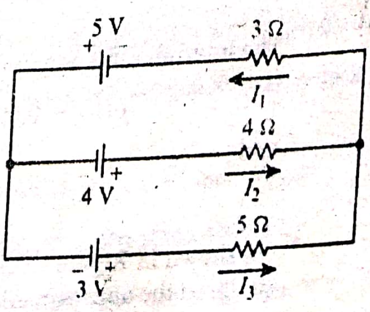


8.



In Exercises 9–12, write a balanced equation for the given chemical reaction.

9. $C_3H_8 + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$ (propane combustion)

10. $C_6H_{12}O_6 \rightarrow CO_2 + C_2H_5OH$ (fermentation of sugar)

11. $CH_3COF + H_2O \rightarrow CH_3COOH + HF$

12. $CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + O_2$ (photosynthesis)

13. Find the quadratic polynomial whose graph passes through the points (1, 1), (2, 2), and (3, 5).

14. Find the quadratic polynomial whose graph passes through the points (0, 0), (−1, 1), and (1, 1).

15. Find the cubic polynomial whose graph passes through the points (−1, −1), (0, 1), (1, 3), (4, −1).

16. The accompanying figure shows the graph of a cubic polynomial. Find the polynomial.

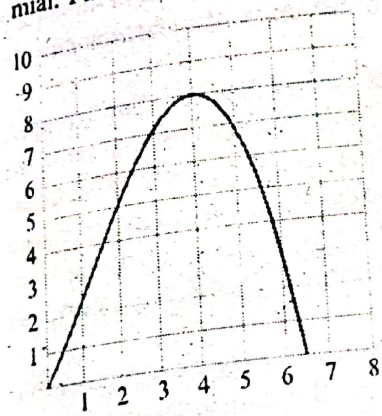


Figure Ex-16

17. (a) Find an equation that represents the family of all second-degree polynomials that pass through the points (0, 1) and (1, 2). [*Hint:* The equation will involve one arbitrary parameter that produces the members of the family when varied.]

(b) By hand, or with the help of a graphing utility, sketch four curves in the family.

18. In this section we have selected only a few applications of linear systems. Using the Internet as a search tool, try to find some more real-world applications of such systems. Select one that is of interest to you, and write a paragraph about it.

True-False Exercises

TF. In parts (a)–(e) determine whether the statement is true or false, and justify your answer.

(a) In any network, the sum of the flows out of a node must equal the sum of the flows into a node.

(b) When a current passes through a resistor, there is an increase in the electrical potential in a circuit.

(c) Kirchhoff's current law states that the sum of the currents flowing into a node equals the sum of the currents flowing out of the node.

(d) A chemical equation is called balanced if the total number of atoms on each side of the equation is the same.

(e) Given any n points in the xy-plane, there is a unique polynomial of degree $n - 1$ or less whose graph passes through those points.

Working with Technology

T1. The following table shows the lifting force on an aircraft wing measured in a wind tunnel at various wind velocities. Model the data with an interpolating polynomial of degree 5, and use that polynomial to estimate the lifting force at 2000 ft/s.

Velocity (100 ft/s)	1	2	4	8	16	32
Lifting Force (100 lb)	0	3.12	15.86	33.7	81.5	123.0

T2. (*Calculus required*) Use the method of Example 7 to approximate the integral

$$\int_0^1 e^{x^2}\,dx$$

by subdividing the interval of integration into five equal parts and using an interpolating polynomial to approximate the integrand. Compare your answer to that obtained using the numerical integration capability of your technology utility.

T3. Use the method of Example 5 to balance the chemical equation

$$Fe_2O_3 + Al \rightarrow Al_2O_3 + Fe$$

(Fe = iron, Al = aluminum, O = oxygen)

T4. Determine the currents in the accompanying circuit.