



BITS Pilani
Pilani Campus

Mathematical Foundations

MFDS Team



*** ZC416, Lecture 0**

Agenda



- Matrices and their types
- REF and RREF
- Rank, its computation and properties
- Determinant, its computation and properties
- Consistency and inconsistency of linear systems
- Nature of solutions of linear systems

Matrices



- A **matrix** is a **rectangular array of numbers or functions** which we will enclose in brackets. For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 1 & -5 \\ 0 & -0.2 & 16 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1)$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-x} & 2x^2 \\ e^{6x} & 4x \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The numbers (or functions) are called **entries** or, less commonly, *elements* of the matrix.
- The first matrix in (1) has two **rows**, which are the horizontal lines of entries.

Matrix – Notations

- We shall denote matrices by capital boldface letters **A**, **B**, **C**, ... , or by writing the general entry in brackets; thus **A** = $[a_{jk}]$, and so on.
- By an $m \times n$ **matrix** (read *m by n matrix*) we mean a **matrix with m rows and n columns**—rows always come first! $m \times n$ is called the **size** of the matrix. Thus an $m \times n$ matrix is of the form

$$\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

Vectors



- A **vector** is a **matrix with only one row or column**. Its entries are called the **components** of the vector.
- We shall denote vectors by *lowercase* boldface letters **a**, **b**, ... or by its general component in brackets, $\mathbf{a} = [a_j]$, and so on. Our special vectors in (1) suggest that a (general) **row vector** is of the form

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad \text{For instance,} \quad \mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 5 & 0.8 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

A **column vector**

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}. \quad \text{For instance,} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Equality of Matrices

- Two matrices $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ and $\mathbf{B} = [b_{jk}]$ are **equal**, written $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$, if and only if (1) they have the same size and (2) the corresponding entries are equal, that is, $a_{11} = b_{11}$, $a_{12} = b_{12}$, and so on.
- Matrices that are not equal are called **different**. Thus, matrices of different sizes are always different.

Algebra of Matrices



1. Addition of Matrices

- The **sum** of two matrices $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ and $\mathbf{B} = [b_{jk}]$ *of the same size* is written $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ and has the entries $a_{jk} + b_{jk}$ obtained by adding the corresponding entries of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} . Matrices of different sizes cannot be added.

2. Scalar Multiplication (Multiplication by a Number)

- The **product** of any $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ and any **scalar** c (number c) is written $c\mathbf{A}$ and is the $m \times n$ matrix $c\mathbf{A} = [ca_{jk}]$ obtained by multiplying each entry of \mathbf{A} by c .

(a) $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$

(a) $c(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = c\mathbf{A} + c\mathbf{B}$

(b) $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$ (written $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}$)

(b) $(c + k)\mathbf{A} = c\mathbf{A} + k\mathbf{A}$

(c) $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{A}$

(c) $c(k\mathbf{A}) = (ck)\mathbf{A}$ (written $ck\mathbf{A}$)

(d) $\mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{0}$.

(d) $1\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$.

- Here $\mathbf{0}$ denotes the **zero matrix** (of size $m \times n$), that is, the $m \times n$ matrix with all entries zero.

Matrix Multiplication

Multiplication of a Matrix by a Matrix

• The **product** $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ (in this order) of an $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ times an $r \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{B} = [b_{jk}]$ is **defined if and only if $r = n$** and is then the $m \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{C} = [c_{jk}]$ with entries

$$(3) \quad c_{jk} = \sum_{l=1}^n a_{jl} b_{lk} = a_{j1} b_{1k} + a_{j2} b_{2k} + \cdots + a_{jn} b_{nk} \quad \begin{matrix} j = 1, \dots, m \\ k = 1, \dots, p. \end{matrix}$$

• The condition $r = n$ means that the second factor, \mathbf{B} , must have as many rows as the first factor has columns, namely n . A diagram of sizes that shows when matrix multiplication is possible is as follows:

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} & = & \mathbf{C} \\ [m \times n] & [n \times p] & = & [m \times p]. \end{matrix}$$

Matrix Multiplication



EXAMPLE 1

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 \\ -6 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & -4 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 22 & -2 & 43 & 42 \\ 26 & -16 & 14 & 6 \\ -9 & 4 & -37 & -28 \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagram illustrates the calculation of the entry c_{23} in the product matrix AB . A blue arrow points from the second row of the first matrix (4, 0, 2) to the third column of the second matrix (3, 7, 1). The resulting value 14 is highlighted in a blue box in the product matrix.

• Here $c_{11} = 3 \cdot 2 + 5 \cdot 5 + (-1) \cdot 9 = 22$, and so on. The entry in the box is $c_{23} = 4 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 1 = 14$.

• The product BA is not defined.

Matrix Multiplication

Matrix Multiplication Is *Not Commutative*, $AB \neq BA$ in General

- This is illustrated by Example 1, where one of the two products is not even defined. But it *also holds for square matrices*. For instance,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 100 & 100 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

but

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 100 & 100 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 99 & 99 \\ -99 & -99 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- It is interesting that this also shows that $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{0}$ does *not necessarily imply* $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$.

Transposition of Matrices & Vectors



- The transpose of an $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ is the $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A}^T (read *A transpose*) that has the first *row* of \mathbf{A} as its first *column*, the second *row* of \mathbf{A} as its second *column*, and so on. Thus the transpose of \mathbf{A} in (2) is $\mathbf{A}^T = [a_{kj}]$, written out

$$\mathbf{A}^T = [a_{kj}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

- As a special case, **transposition converts row vectors to column vectors and conversely.**

Transposition of Matrices



- Rules for transposition are

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad & (\mathbf{A}^\top)^\top = \mathbf{A} \\ \text{(b)} \quad & (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^\top = \mathbf{A}^\top + \mathbf{B}^\top \\ \text{(c)} \quad & (c\mathbf{A})^\top = c\mathbf{A}^\top \\ \text{(d)} \quad & (\mathbf{AB})^\top = \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{A}^\top. \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

CAUTION! Note that in (5d) the transposed matrices are *in reversed order*.

Special Matrices

- **Symmetric**: $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ Eg:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Skew Symmetric**: $a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$ Eg:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper triangular matrix: U

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

- **Triangular**: Upper Triangular $\rightarrow a_{ij} = 0$ for all $i > j$
Lower Triangular $\rightarrow a_{ij} = 0$ for all $i < j$

Lower triangular matrix: L

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

- **Diagonal Matrix**: $a_{ij} = 0$ for all $i \neq j$ Eg:
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{pink square} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \text{blue square} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \text{green square} \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Sparse Matrix**: Many zeroes and few non-zero entities

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

Positive Definite matrix

- Let **A** be a **real symmetric matrix**. Then **A** is positive definite if for any $x \neq 0$,

$$x^T A x > 0$$

- Example:

- $$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 6 & 20 \end{bmatrix} \quad x^T A x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 6 & 20 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 2x_1^2 + 12x_1x_2 + 20x_2^2 = 2(x_1 + 3x_2)^2 + 2x_2^2 > 0$$

- A** is **positive semi-definite** if $x^T A x \geq 0$

- $$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 6 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x^T A x = 2(x_1 + 3x_2)^2 = 0 \text{ when } x_1 = -3x_2$$

and $x_2 = -1$

Elementary Row Operations



Given a matrix A , the following operations are called Elementary Row Operations

- *Interchange of two rows*
- *Addition of a constant multiple of one row to another row*
- *Multiplication of a row by a **non-zero** constant c*

CAUTION! These operations are for rows, *not for columns!*

Row Echelon Form (REF) of a matrix



- Any rows of all zeros are below any other non zero rows.
- Each leading entry of a row is in a column to the right of the leading entry of the row above it.
- All entries in a column below a leading entry are zeros
- [Example](#)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 & 7 & 9 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reduced Rpw Echelon Form (RREF)



- We say that a matrix is in Reduced Row Echelon Form if it is in Echelon form and additionally,
 1. The leading entry in each row is 1.
 2. Each leading 1 is the only non zero entry in its column

•Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Uniqueness of Row Reduced Echelon Form



- We can transform any matrix into a matrix in reduced row echelon form by using elementary row operations.
- No matter what sequence of row operations we use each matrix is row equivalent to one and only one reduced row echelon matrix

REF of a Matrix



$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 8 & 20 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Swap rows 1 and 2}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 8 & 20 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \xleftarrow{\text{Replace R3 by } R3+(-10).R2} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 10 & 20 & 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Replace R3 by } R3+1.R1} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

Row Echelon Form

Rank of a matrix

- The number of nonzero rows, r , in the reduced row (or row echelon form) coefficient matrix \mathbf{R} is called the **rank of \mathbf{R}** and also the **rank of \mathbf{A}** .
- The rank is **invariant** under elementary row operations:

Determination of Rank



$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ -6 & 42 & 24 & 54 \\ 21 & -21 & 0 & -15 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{given})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 42 & 28 & 58 \\ 0 & -21 & -14 & -29 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Row 2} + 2 \text{ Row 1} \\ \text{Row 3} - 7 \text{ Row 1} \end{array}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 42 & 28 & 58 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Row 3} + \frac{1}{2} \text{ Row 2.}$$

- The last matrix is in row-echelon form and has two nonzero rows.
Hence rank $\mathbf{A} = 2$.

Minor



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Each element in **A** has a minor.

Delete first row and column from **A**. The determinant of the remaining 2x2 submatrix is the minor of a_{11} which is $a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}$

$$m_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

Minor



$$m_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

And the minor for a_{13} is:

$$m_{13} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$

The cofactor C_{ij} of an element a_{ij} is defined as:

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

When the sum of a row number i and column j is even, $c_{ij} = m_{ij}$ and when $i+j$ is odd, $c_{ij} = -m_{ij}$

$$c_{11}(i = 1, j = 1) = (-1)^{1+1} m_{11} = +m_{11}$$

$$c_{12}(i = 1, j = 2) = (-1)^{1+2} m_{12} = -m_{12}$$

$$c_{13}(i = 1, j = 3) = (-1)^{1+3} m_{13} = +m_{13}$$

Determinant



The determinant of an $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} can now be defined as

$$|A| = \det A = a_{11}c_{11} + a_{12}c_{12} + \dots + a_{1n}c_{1n}$$

The determinant of \mathbf{A} is therefore the sum of the products of the elements of the first row of \mathbf{A} and their corresponding cofactors.

(It is possible to define $|\mathbf{A}|$ in terms of any other row or column but for simplicity, the first row only is used)

Determinant -Example

Therefore the 2 x 2 matrix :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 1:

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

Has cofactors :

$$c_{11} = m_{11} = |a_{22}| = a_{22}$$

$$|A| = (3)(2) - (1)(1) = 5$$

And:

$$c_{12} = -m_{12} = -|a_{21}| = -a_{21}$$

And the determinant of **A** is:

$$|A| = a_{11}c_{11} + a_{12}c_{12} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

Determinant -Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

The cofactors of the first row are:

$$c_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}$$

$$c_{12} = - \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = -(a_{21}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{31})$$

$$c_{13} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} = a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31}$$

Determinants – Example

$$|A| = a_{11}c_{11} + a_{12}c_{12} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

Which by substituting for the cofactors in this case is:

$$|A| = a_{11}(a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{31}) + a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31})$$

Example 2:

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

$$|A| = a_{11}(a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{31}) + a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31})$$

$$|A| = (1)(2 - 0) - (0)(0 + 3) + (1)(0 + 2) = 4$$

Adjoint



The adjoint matrix of \mathbf{A} , denoted by $\text{adj } \mathbf{A}$, is the transpose of its cofactor matrix

$$\text{adj}A = C^T$$

It can be shown that:

$$\mathbf{A}(\text{adj } \mathbf{A}) = (\text{adj } \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{I}$$

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

$$|A| = (1)(4) - (2)(-3) = 10$$

$$\text{adj}A = C^T = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Adjoint



$$A(adjA) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = 10I$$

$$(adjA)A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = 10I$$

Properties of Determinants



1. $\det(AB) = \det(A) * \det(B)$
2. $\det(A)$ nonzero implies there exists a matrix B such that $AB=BA=I$
3. Two Rows Equal $\rightarrow \det = 0$ (Singular)
4. R_i and R_j swapped $\rightarrow \det$ gets a minus sign ($i \neq j$)
5. $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$
6. $R_i \leftarrow cR_j \rightarrow \det A \leftarrow c \det A$

Inverse



- $A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(A)}{\det(A)}$ where $\det(A) \neq 0$

Reiterate $\det(A) \neq 0 \rightarrow A$ is Non singular

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

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

Inverse – 2x2 Example

Example

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

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & -0.2 \\ 0.3 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

To check

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & -0.2 \\ 0.3 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 & -0.2 \\ 0.3 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}$$

Inverse – 3x3 Example



Example 2

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

The determinant of **A** is

$$|\mathbf{A}| = (3)(-1-0) - (-1)(-2-0) + (1)(4-1) = -2$$

The elements of the cofactor matrix are

$$\begin{array}{lll} c_{11} = +(-1), & c_{12} = -(-2), & c_{13} = +(3), \\ c_{21} = -(-1), & c_{22} = +(-4), & c_{23} = -(7), \\ c_{31} = +(-1), & c_{32} = -(-2), & c_{33} = +(5), \end{array}$$

Inverse – 3x3 Example

The cofactor matrix is therefore

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -4 & -7 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$\text{adj}A = C^T = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 \\ 3 & -7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}A}{|A|} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 \\ 3 & -7 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & -0.5 & 0.5 \\ -1.0 & 2.0 & -1.0 \\ -1.5 & 3.5 & -2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse



The result can be checked using

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

The determinant of a matrix must not be zero for the inverse to exist as there will not be a solution

Nonsingular matrices have non-zero determinants

Singular matrices have zero determinants

Inverse -Simple 2 x 2 case



So that for a 2 x 2 matrix the inverse can be constructed in a simple fashion as

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

- Exchange elements of main diagonal
- Change sign in elements off main diagonal
- Divide resulting matrix by the determinant

Inverse -Simple 2 x 2 case



Example

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

$$A^{-1} = -\frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.1 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & -0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Check inverse

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

$$-\frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

Linear System



- A linear system of m equations in n unknowns x_1, \dots, x_n is a set of equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

- The system is called *linear* because each variable x_j appears in the first power only, just as in the equation of a straight line.

Linear System

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

- a_{11}, \dots, a_{mn} are given numbers, called the **coefficients** of the system.
- b_1, \dots, b_m on the right are also given numbers.
- If all the b_j are zero, then (1) is called a **homogeneous system**.
- If at least one b_j is not zero, then (1) is called a **non-homogeneous system**.

Coefficient Matrix



Matrix Form of the Linear System (1).

• From the definition of matrix multiplication we see that the m equations of (1) may be written as a single vector equation

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \quad (2)$$

where the **coefficient matrix** $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$ is the $m \times n$ matrix
are column vectors.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Augmented Matrix



Matrix Form of the Linear System (1). (continued)

- We assume that the coefficients a_{jk} are not all zero, so that \mathbf{A} is not a zero matrix. Note that \mathbf{x} has n components, whereas \mathbf{b} has m components. The matrix

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \cdot & \cdots & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdots & \cdot & \cdot \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array} \right]$$

- is called the **augmented matrix** of the system (1).
- The dashed vertical line could be omitted, as we shall do later. It is merely a reminder that the last column of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ did not come from matrix \mathbf{A} but came from vector \mathbf{b} . Thus, we *augmented* the matrix \mathbf{A} .

Solution to System of Linear Equations



- A linear system (1) is called **overdetermined** if it has more equations than unknowns, **determined** if $m = n$, and **underdetermined** if it has fewer equations than unknowns.
- A linear system is **consistent** if $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{rank}(\tilde{\mathbf{A}})$
- A **consistent** system has at least one solution (thus, one solution or infinitely many solutions), but **inconsistent** has no solutions at all, as $x_1 + x_2 = 1, x_1 + x_2 = 0$.

The method for determining whether $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ has solutions and what they are:

(a) No solution. If r is less than m (meaning that \mathbf{R} actually has at least one row of all 0s) *and* at least one of the numbers $f_{r+1}, f_{r+2}, \dots, f_m$ is not zero, then the system $\mathbf{Rx} = \mathbf{f}$ is inconsistent: No solution is possible. Therefore the system $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is inconsistent as well.

If the system is consistent (either $r = m$, or $r < m$ and all the numbers $f_{r+1}, f_{r+2}, \dots, f_m$ are zero), then there are solutions.

(b) Unique solution. If the system is consistent and $r = n$, there is exactly one solution, which can be found by back substitution.

(c) Infinitely many solutions. To obtain any of these solutions, choose values of x_{r+1}, \dots, x_n arbitrarily. Then solve the r th equation for x_r (in terms of those arbitrary values), then the $(r - 1)$ st equation for x_{r-1} , and so on up the line.