

ENME202 Matlab

LINEAR ALGEBRA

TOPICS:

- vector and matrix formation & manipulation
- matrix slicing
- row & column expansion
- vector and matrix algebra

FUNCTIONS:

- `dot()` -- dot product
- `cross()` -- cross product
- `norm()` -- vector norm (magnitude)
- `size()` -- find matrix dimensions
- `eye()` -- identity matrix
- `diag()` -- create a diagonal matrix / return diagonal
- `inv()` -- matrix inverse
- `det()` -- determinant of a square matrix

ARRAYS AS VECTORS

So far we have used arrays for two things:

1. holding a list of numbers
2. representing polynomials

Another key use for Matlab arrays is to represent physical vectors, e.g. the coordinates of a point or the components of a force or velocity. We often express such vectors as column vectors, e.g.:

```
x = [1 0 -1]           % row vector
```

```
x = 1×3
      1      0     -1
```

```
y = [1 2 3]'           % column vector
```

```
y = 3×1
      1
      2
      3
```

Vector arithmetic works as expected:

```
x'+y           % addition (note the transpose to make dimensions match!)
```

```
ans = 3×1
```

2
2
2

```
x-y'      % subtraction
```

```
ans = 1×3  
      0    -2    -4
```

```
2*x       % scalar multiplication
```

```
ans = 1×3  
      2     0    -2
```

Norm:

The **norm()** function yields the L2 norm (Euclidean norm), interpreted as the vector length in n-dimensional space. This is not to be confused with `length()`, which just gives the number of elements in an array!

```
norm(x)
```

```
ans = 1.4142
```

`norm()` is the same as:

```
sqrt(x*x')
```

```
ans = 1.4142
```

```
sqrt(dot(x,x))
```

```
ans = 1.4142
```

Dot product:

```
dot(x,y)
```

```
ans = -2
```

```
dot(y,x)    % = dot(x,y)
```

```
ans = -2
```

```
dot(x,x)    % = norm(x)^2
```

```
ans = 2
```

Manual calculation of `dot(x,y)`:

```
x(1)*y(1) + x(2)*y(2) + x(3)*y(3)
```

```
ans = -2
```

A physical interpretation of the dot product is that $\text{dot}(x,y)$ yields the length of the projection of x onto y , multiplied by the length of y :

$$\text{dot}(x,y) = \text{norm}(x) \cdot \text{norm}(y) \cdot \cos(q) \quad \text{where } q = \text{angle between } x \text{ and } y$$

This interpretation allows us to determine the angle between two vectors:

```
q = acos(dot(x,y)/(norm(x)*norm(y)))
```

```
q = 1.9584
```

`dot()` does not care if the arrays are row vectors, column vectors, or a mix of both:

```
dot(x',y)           % ans = -2
```

```
ans = -2
```

Cross product:

```
cross(x,y)
```

```
ans = 1×3  
      2    -4     2
```

```
cross(y,x)           % = -cross(x,y)
```

```
ans = 1×3  
     -2     4    -2
```

A physical interpretation of the cross product is that the magnitude of $\text{cross}(x,y)$ is the area of a parallelogram with sides $|x|$ and $|y|$, and the direction of $\text{cross}(x,y)$ is orthogonal to the plane containing the parallelogram:

$$\text{cross}(x,y) = |x| |y| \sin(q) \cdot \hat{n}$$

where \hat{n} is a unit normal vector orthogonal to x and y (using the right hand rule). To find the plane in which x and y lie:

```
n_hat = cross(x,y)/(norm(x)*norm(y)*sin(q))   % q was found via dot(x,y)
```

```
n_hat = 1×3  
      0.4082   -0.8165    0.4082
```

Note that \hat{n} has unit length:

```
norm(n_hat)
```

```
ans = 1
```

Matlab can work with *any* length vector not just 2 or 3. Indeed, you will often need to deal with very large vectors in advanced engineering problems:

```
x=[1 -2 3 4 -5 7 9 -pi]'
```

```
x = 8×1
```

```
1.0000
-2.0000
3.0000
4.0000
-5.0000
7.0000
9.0000
-3.1416
```

```
y=(1:8)'
```

```
y = 8×1
     1
     2
     3
     4
     5
     6
     7
     8
```

```
norm(x)
```

```
ans = 13.9596
```

```
dot(x,y)           % length(x) must be same as length(y)
```

```
ans = 76.8673
```

Cross products, however, are ONLY defined between 3 dimensional vectors, so `cross(x,y)` will not work here! The cross product *can* be extended to $n>3$ dimensions, but Matlab's `cross()` does not support this generalization.

MATRICES

Matrices are rectangular arrays of numbers, that have their own special arithmetic rules. Note that a vector can be viewed as a special case of a matrix containing only a single row (or column, depending on orientation).

Define a matrix in Matlab by specifying the numbers in each row, separated by spaces or commas. Start a new row with a semicolon

```
A = [1 2 3 -1; 4 5 6 0; 7 8 9 1]
```

```
A = 3×4
     1     2     3    -1
     4     5     6     0
     7     8     9     1
```

Can also put each row on a separate line (semicolons optional):

```
A = [ 1 2 3 -1
      4 5 6 0
      7 8 9 1 ]
```

```
A = 3×4
```

1	2	3	-1
4	5	6	0
7	8	9	1

This matrix A is 3x4 (3 rows, 4 columns)

When defining a matrix, *all* rows & columns must have the same number of elements

```
% AA = [1 2 3 -1; 4 5 0; 7 8 9 1]      % ERROR
```

Oops; 2nd row only had 3 elements in above, while the other two rows had 4.

Indexing into a matrix to get one of its elements by specifying both the row and column number of the element

Element of A in 1st row, 3rd column:

```
r = 1;
c = 3;
A(r,c)      % ans = 3
```

```
ans = 3
```

Element of A in 2nd row, 4th column:

```
A(2,4)      % ans = 0
```

```
ans = 0
```

If only one argument is given for the index, Matlab will start counting at the upper left corner and work down each *column* in sequence:

```
A(1)        % ans = 1
```

```
ans = 1
```

```
A(4)        % ans = 2
```

```
ans = 2
```

We can change an individual matrix element:

```
A(2,4) = pi
```

```
A = 3x4
```

1.0000	2.0000	3.0000	-1.0000
4.0000	5.0000	6.0000	3.1416
7.0000	8.0000	9.0000	1.0000

size() returns an array containing the number of rows and columns in a matrix:

```
[m,n] = size(A)      % m = 3, n = 4
```

```
m = 3
```

```
n = 4
```

We previously used `sum()` to find the summation of all values in an array (vector). When applied to a matrix, `sum()` will return the summation of values within each *column* of the matrix:

```
sum(A)
```

```
ans = 1×4
    12.0000    15.0000    18.0000     3.1416
```

Concatenating linear arrays into (longer) vectors or into rectangular arrays (matrices)

```
x = [1 2 3];
y = [-3 -2 -1];

z = [x y]           % z = [1 2 3 -3 -2 -1]
```

```
z = 1×6
     1     2     3    -3    -2    -1
```

```
A1 = [x
      y]           % A1 = [1 2 3; -3 -2 -1]
```

```
A1 = 2×3
     1     2     3
    -3    -2    -1
```

```
A2 = [x' y']       % A2 = [1 -3; 2 -2; 3 -1]
```

```
A2 = 3×2
     1    -3
     2    -2
     3    -1
```

Recall colon notation to slice a range of elements in a linear array:

```
x = [1 0 -1 2];
x(2:3)           % ans = [0 -1]
```

```
ans = 1×2
     0    -1
```

Same notation can also be used for the row or column index (or both) in a matrix.

Pull out elements in 1st and 2nd rows, 3rd and 4th columns:

```
A(1:2, 3:4)       % ans = [3 -1; 6 0]
```

```
ans = 2×2
     3.0000    -1.0000
     6.0000     3.1416
```

Pull out elements in 1st and 2nd rows, 2nd through 4th columns:

```
A(1:2, 2:4)           % ans = [2 3 -1; 5 6 0]
```

```
ans = 2×3
    2.0000    3.0000   -1.0000
    5.0000    6.0000    3.1416
```

We can also assign new values to multiple elements at once using slicing:

```
A(1:2,2) = [-1; -1]
```

```
A = 3×4
    1.0000   -1.0000    3.0000   -1.0000
    4.0000   -1.0000    6.0000    3.1416
    7.0000    8.0000    9.0000    1.0000
```

Alternately, multiple elements can also be changed to a single scalar value:

```
A(2:3,3) = -100
```

```
A = 3×4
    1.0000   -1.0000    3.0000   -1.0000
    4.0000   -1.0000  -100.0000    3.1416
    7.0000    8.0000  -100.0000    1.0000
```

A colon ":" by itself as an index means "all". Pull out all rows of the 2nd column:

```
A(:,2)           % ans = [2; 5; 8]
```

```
ans = 3×1
     -1
     -1
      8
```

Pull out all the columns of the 2nd row:

```
A(2,:)           % ans = [4 5 6 0]
```

```
ans = 1×4
    4.0000   -1.0000  -100.0000    3.1416
```

Matrices may be "partitioned" into a set of rows or columns. Here is an example of column partitioning:

```
C1 = A(:,1)
```

```
C1 = 3×1
     1
     4
     7
```

```
C2 = A(:,2)
```

```
C2 = 3×1
```

```
-1
-1
8
```

```
C3 = A(:,3)
```

```
C3 = 3×1
      3
    -100
    -100
```

```
C4 = A(:,4)
```

```
C4 = 3×1
    -1.0000
     3.1416
     1.0000
```

Now reconstruct the original matrix from the columns:

```
A = [C1 C2 C3 C4]
```

```
A = 3×4
    1.0000    -1.0000     3.0000    -1.0000
    4.0000    -1.0000   -100.0000     3.1416
    7.0000     8.0000   -100.0000     1.0000
```

We could instead use row partitioning to break a matrix into rows (noting there are only n=3 rows vs. m=4 columns for A):

```
R1 = A(1,:)
```

```
R1 = 1×4
      1     -1      3     -1
```

```
R2 = A(2,:)
```

```
R2 = 1×4
    4.0000    -1.0000  -100.0000     3.1416
```

```
R3 = A(3,:)
```

```
R3 = 1×4
      7      8   -100      1
```

```
A = [ R1
      R2
      R3 ]
```

```
A = 3×4
    1.0000    -1.0000     3.0000    -1.0000
    4.0000    -1.0000  -100.0000     3.1416
    7.0000     8.0000  -100.0000     1.0000
```


Matrix partitioning is a key step to understanding how matrix-vector multiplication is defined.

MATRIX-VECTOR MULTIPLICATION

Given a matrix A and column vector x, matrix-vector multiplication ($A \cdot x$) requires that x has the same number of rows as A has columns, i.e. the inner dimensions of A and x must match.

```
M = [1 2 3 -1; 4 5 6 0; 7 8 9 1];    % M is 3x4
x = [-2; -1; 1];                    % x is 3x1
% y = M*x                          % ERROR (4 vs. 3 for inner dimensions)
```

When the dimensional condition is satisfied, the resultant vector $y=M \cdot x$ will be a column vector with the same number of elements as A has rows, i.e. y will have the outer dimensions of $M \cdot x$:

```
x = [-2; -1; 1; 2];                % x is 4x1
M*x                                % M is 3x4
```

```
ans = 3x1
      -3
      -7
     -11
```

The formal definition of the product can be given expressed as the **weighted sum of the columns of the matrix**

Return to our earlier 3x4 matrix A that was partitioned by column and row, and find $A \cdot x$:

```
y = A*x
```

```
y = 3x1
      0
    -100.7168
    -120.0000
```

Remember, we defined above C1...C4 to be the respective columns of A, so let's apply the weighted sum concept to find $A \cdot x$:

```
y = x(1)*C1 + x(2)*C2 + x(3)*C3 + x(4)*C4
```

```
y = 3x1
      0
    -100.7168
    -120.0000
```

$A \cdot x$ can also be written as a vector consisting of the products of the **rows** of A with the vector x:

```
y = [ R1*x
      R2*x
      R3*x ]
```

```
y = 3x1
```

```
0
-100.7168
-120.0000
```

Both row and column expansions of the product are consistent and equivalent, and lead to Matlab's reported result for the product $A \cdot x$. Matlab applies such rules automatically when the multiplication is valid; you don't need to manually apply the expansion (but be aware of it!)

MATRIX-MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

Define 2 matrices A and B

```
A = [1 2 3 -1
      4 5 6 0
      7 8 9 1];

B = [-1 0 1
      1 2 3];
```

Note that A is 3x4, B is 2x3

```
% A*B           % ERROR (inner dimensions are different)
```

Product $A \cdot B$ is not defined since inner dimensions don't match (4 vs 2)

```
B*A           % yields a 2x4 matrix result
```

```
ans = 2x4
      6      6      6      2
     30     36     42     2
```

Product BA is defined since inner dimensions match (both are 3), and result matrix is 2x4 (outer dimensions)

```
A = [1 2
      3 4
      5 6]; % 3x2 matrix

A*B           % 3x2 * 2x3 --> 3x3
```

```
ans = 3x3
      1      4      7
      1      8     15
      1     12     23
```

Product is defined since inner dimensions match (both are 2). Result is 3x3 (outer dimensions)

```
B*A           % 2x3 * 3x2 --> 2x2
```

```
ans = 2x2
      4      4
     22     28
```

Product is also defined since inner dimensions also match, and result is 2x2.

Note from the three examples above that matrix multiplication is NOT COMMUTATIVE: generally $A*B$ is different from $B*A$.

The row,column value resulting from matrix multiplication is given by the product of the row from the 1st matrix and the column of the 2nd matrix:

```
AB = A*B;
```

```
AB(2,3)           % ans = 15
```

```
ans = 15
```

```
A(2,:) * B(:,3)   % ans = 15
```

```
ans = 15
```

Similarly, ith column of $C_{AB} = A*B$ is given by $A * (\text{ith column of } B)$

```
AB(:,2)
```

```
ans = 3×1
```

```
4
```

```
8
```

```
12
```

```
A * B(:,2)
```

```
ans = 3×1
```

```
4
```

```
8
```

```
12
```

Both these equivalent ways of viewing the matrix-matrix product give the same results, and agree with Matlab's reported result for $A*B$

Matrix transpose:

A' turns the rows of A into columns, and vice-versa (but remember that if your matrix contains imaginary numbers you will need to use $.'$ instead of $'$ for the non-conjugate transpose!)

```
A
```

```
A = 3×2
```

```
1    2
```

```
3    4
```

```
5    6
```

```
A'
```

```
ans = 2×3
```

```
1    3    5
```

```
2    4    6
```

Identity matrix:

The identity matrix is a square matrix (same number of rows and columns), with "1" on the diagonal and "0" everywhere else:

```
I = [ 1 0 0
      0 1 0
      0 0 1 ]
```

```
I = 3x3
     1     0     0
     0     1     0
     0     0     1
```

Identity matrices are equivalent to the number 1 in ordinary scalar arithmetic. However, keep in mind that dimensions matter:

```
I*A           % 3x3 * 3x2 --> 2x2
```

```
ans = 3x2
     1     2
     3     4
     5     6
```

```
% A*I         % 3x2 * 3x3 --> ERROR
```

```
% I*B         % 2x3 * 3x3 --> ERROR
```

```
B*I           % 2x3 * 2x3 --> 2x3
```

```
ans = 2x3
    -1     0     1
     1     2     3
```

Also true for vectors, assuming they are of correct size for multiplication

```
A2 = A(:,2)    % Second column of A
```

```
A2 = 3x1
     2
     4
     6
```

```
I*A2          % 3x3 * 3x1 --> 3x1
```

```
ans = 3x1
     2
     4
     6
```

We can easily generate identity matrices of any size using Matlab's **eye()** function

```
I = eye(4)     % 4x4 identity matrix
```

```
I = 4x4
```

1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1

Input to `eye()` is the desired square matrix size (#rows = #cols)

If given a matrix as its input, the Matlab **diag()** function returns a column array with only the diagonal elements of that matrix

```
diag(I)      % ans = [1; 1; 1; 1]
```

```
ans = 4x1
     1
     1
     1
     1
```

```
C = [1 0 1; 2 2 0; 3 1 5]
```

```
C = 3x3
     1     0     1
     2     2     0
     3     1     5
```

```
diag(C)      % ans = [1; 2; 5]
```

```
ans = 3x1
     1
     2
     5
```

`diag()` can also be used to generate a square matrix. If `diag` is given a (linear) array as its input, it creates a square matrix with the elements of the array on the diagonal, and zeros elsewhere.

This is an easy way to "strip" all but the diagonal elements from a matrix (setting the others to 0):

```
C1 = diag(diag(C))
```

```
C1 = 3x3
     1     0     0
     0     2     0
     0     0     5
```

As another example, use `diag()` to generate an identity matrix:

```
diag([1 1 1])
```

```
ans = 3x3
     1     0     0
     0     1     0
     0     0     1
```

MATRIX INVERSION

Inverting a 2x2 matrix by hand is easy (assuming you've taken a Linear Algebra course, that is).

Inverting a 3x3 is not too bad. Inverting a 4x4, 5x5, ... by hand is a nightmare! Matlab makes this easy using the `inv()` function:

```
A = [1 2;  
     3 4]
```

```
A = 2x2  
     1     2  
     3     4
```

```
inv(A)
```

```
ans = 2x2  
    -2.0000    1.0000  
     1.5000   -0.5000
```

Product of matrix and its inverse is always the identity matrix:

```
A * inv(A)           % ans = [1 0; 0 1]
```

```
ans = 2x2  
     1.0000         0  
     0.0000     1.0000
```

```
inv(A) * A           % ans = [1 0; 0 1]
```

```
ans = 2x2  
     1.0000         0  
     0.0000     1.0000
```

Let's look at a larger matrix

```
A2 = [ 1  2  3  
       4 -5  6  
       9  8  7 ]
```

```
A2 = 3x3  
     1     2     3  
     4    -5     6  
     9     8     7
```

```
inv(A2)
```

```
ans = 3x3  
   -0.4150    0.0500    0.1350  
    0.1300   -0.1000    0.0300  
    0.3850    0.0500   -0.0650
```

The **determinant** of a matrix can be found using the **det()** function. Note that if the determinant of a matrix is zero, it is "singular" and its inverse does not exist.

det() calculates the determinant of any square matrix:

```
A = [ 1 1  
      3 3 ]
```

```
A = 2×2  
    1    1  
    3    3
```

```
det(A)      % close to zero!
```

```
ans = 0
```

```
inv(A)      % {Warning: Matrix is singular to working precision.}
```

```
Warning: Matrix is singular to working precision.
```

```
ans = 2×2  
    Inf    Inf  
    Inf    Inf
```

Determinant of A is zero here, so its inverse is not defined.

Singular matrices are like the number zero in scalar arithmetic; they do not have a defined inverse.

More precisely, in scalar arithmetic, there is no meaningful solution for x in the equation $a \cdot x = b$ when $a=0$ and $b \neq 0$ (and if $b=0$, *all* values of x are valid solutions)

We can encounter, and solve, similar problems in matrix arithmetic, provided the matrix is square and nonsingular.

Solve $A2 \cdot x = b$ for x :

```
b = [-1;0;1];  
x = inv(A2)*b
```

```
x = 3×1  
    0.5500  
   -0.1000  
   -0.4500
```

```
A2*x      % same as b since x is a solution of A2*x=b
```

```
ans = 3×1  
   -1.0000  
    0  
    1.0000
```

Multiplication by the inverse of a matrix can be simplified in Matlab using the backslash (\) operator. For example, instead of "inv(A2) * b" we could use the following syntax:

```
A2 \ b      % Note the order -- the backslash tells us to read from right to left!
```

```
ans = 3×1  
    0.5500  
   -0.1000  
   -0.4500
```