



**National University**  
of computer and emerging sciences

Foundation for Advancement  
of Science and Technology **FAST**

# Linear Algebra (MT-1004)

Lecture # 08

## 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

### Note:

- 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.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

↑  
A general  $4 \times 4$  upper  
triangular matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & 0 \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

↑  
A general  $4 \times 4$  lower  
triangular matrix

## 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.

**Task for Students**  
Observe Example #3 (Pg #71)

# Symmetric Matrices:

## Definition 1

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

## EXAMPLE 4 | Symmetric Matrices

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

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

## Important Points/Properties related to Symmetric Matrices:

### 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.

### Theorem 1.7.3

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

**Task for Students**  
Observe Example #5 (Pg #73)

## Invertibility of Symmetric Matrices

### Theorem 1.7.4

If  $A$  is an invertible symmetric matrix, then  $A^{-1}$  is symmetric.

### Theorem 1.7.5

If  $A$  is an invertible matrix, then  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  are also invertible.

### Task for Students

Observe Example # 6 (Pg #74)

As per Course outline : Do (Q.1 till 10 & 19 till 28 from Ex # 1.7)

## Fundamental Points before moving on Linear Transformation

We defined an “ordered n-tuple” to be a sequence of  $n$  real numbers, and we observed that a solution of a linear system in  $n$  **unknowns**, say

$$x_1 = s_1, \quad x_2 = s_2, \dots, \quad x_n = s_n$$

can be expressed as the ordered n-tuple  $(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)$

The set of all ordered **n-tuples** of real numbers is denoted by the symbol  $R^n$ . The elements of  $R^n$  are called **vectors** and are denoted in **boldface** type, such as **a**, **b**, **v**, **w**, and **x**. When convenient, ordered n-tuples can be denoted in matrix notation as column vectors. For example, the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} s_1 \\ s_2 \\ \vdots \\ s_n \end{bmatrix}$$

For each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , let  $\mathbf{e}_i$  denote the vector in  $R^n$  with a 1 in the  $i$ th position and zeros elsewhere. In column form these vectors are

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \quad \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We call the vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  the **standard basis vectors** for  $R^n$ . For example, the vectors

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

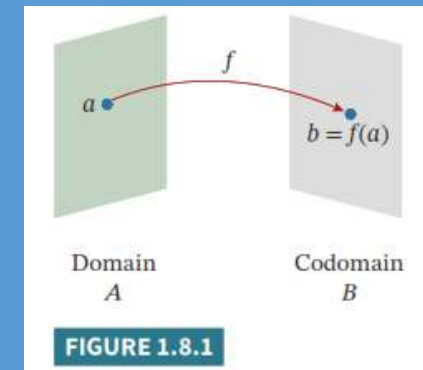
are the standard basis vectors for  $R^3$ .

## Transformation or Function or Mapping:

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

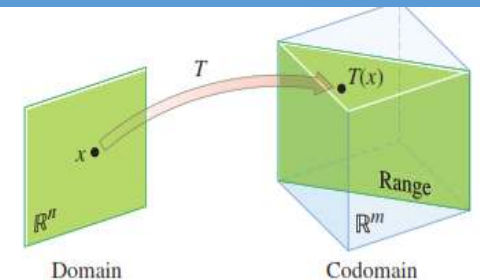
$$b = f(a)$$

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



A **transformation** (or **function** or **mapping**)  $T$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is a rule that assigns to each vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  a vector  $T(\mathbf{x})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . The set  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called the **domain** of  $T$ , and  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is called the **codomain** of  $T$ . The notation  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  indicates that the domain of  $T$  is  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and the codomain is  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . For  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the vector  $T(\mathbf{x})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is called the **image** of  $\mathbf{x}$  (under the action of  $T$ ). The set of all images  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is called the **range** of  $T$ . See Figure 2.

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



**FIGURE 2** Domain, codomain, and range of  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ .



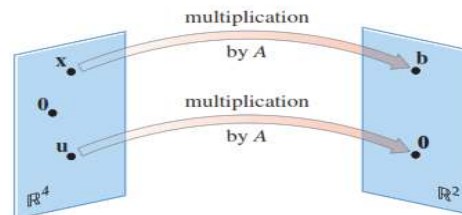
## Basic Idea \_ Matrix Transformation

The difference between a matrix equation  $Ax = b$  and the associated vector equation  $x_1a_1 + x_2a_2 + \cdots + x_na_n = b$  is merely a matter of notation. However, a matrix equation  $Ax = b$  can arise in linear algebra (and in applications such as computer graphics and signal processing) in a way that is not directly connected with linear combinations of vectors. This happens when we think of the matrix  $A$  as an object that “acts” on a *vector*  $x$  by multiplication to produce a new vector called  $Ax$ .

For instance, the equations

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \mathbf{x} \\ \uparrow \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \mathbf{b} \\ \uparrow \end{array} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \mathbf{u} \\ \uparrow \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \uparrow \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

say that multiplication by  $A$  transforms  $\mathbf{x}$  into  $\mathbf{b}$  and transforms  $\mathbf{u}$  into the zero vector. See Figure 1.



**FIGURE 1** Transforming vectors via matrix multiplication.

## Matrix Transformation:

The rest of this section focuses on mappings associated with matrix multiplication. For each  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is computed as  $A\mathbf{x}$ , where  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix. For simplicity, we sometimes denote such a *matrix transformation* by  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ . Observe that the domain of  $T$  is  $\mathbb{R}^n$  when  $A$  has  $n$  columns and the codomain of  $T$  is  $\mathbb{R}^m$  when each column of  $A$  has  $m$  entries. The range of  $T$  is the set of all linear combinations of the columns of  $A$ , because each image  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is of the form  $A\mathbf{x}$ .

suppose that we have the system of linear equations

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

which we can write in matrix notation as

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

or more briefly as

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

$$\begin{aligned} T_A(\mathbf{x}) &= A\mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{w} &= T_A(\mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

## Matrix Transformation:

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

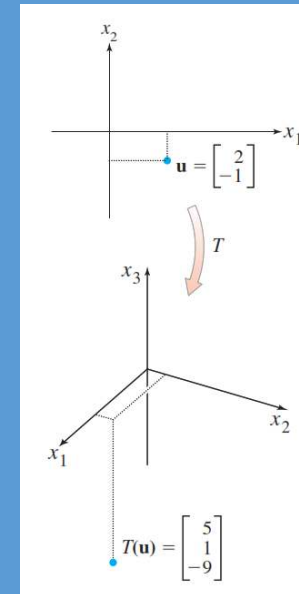
define a transformation  $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , so that

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - 3x_2 \\ 3x_1 + 5x_2 \\ -x_1 + 7x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - 3x_2 \\ 3x_1 + 5x_2 \\ -x_1 + 7x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find  $T(\mathbf{u})$ , the image of  $\mathbf{u}$  under the transformation  $T$ .  
 Compute

$$T(\mathbf{u}) = A\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix}$$



Geometrical Representation of Transformation for this case i.e.  
 $T_A(\mathbf{u}): \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

**NOTE:** We take **Matrix A** as our Transformation Parameter and Apply on vector  $\mathbf{u}$  ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) by means of multiplication to get  $T(\mathbf{u})$  i.e. ( $\mathbb{R}^3$ ) Here,  $T_A(\mathbf{u}): \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$



## Zero & Identity Transformations:

*i.e.  $A$  as Zero Matrix &  $A=I$*

### EXAMPLE 2 | Zero Transformations

If  $0$  is the  $m \times n$  zero matrix, then

$$T_0(\mathbf{x}) = 0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

so multiplication by zero maps every vector in  $R^n$  into the zero vector in  $R^m$ . We call  $T_0$  the **zero transformation** from  $R^n$  to  $R^m$ .

### EXAMPLE 3 | Identity Operators

If  $I$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, then

$$T_I(\mathbf{x}) = I\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

so multiplication by  $I$  maps every vector in  $R^n$  to itself. We call  $T_I$  the **identity operator** on  $R^n$ .

# Properties of Matrix Transformations

## Theorem 1.8.1

For every matrix  $A$  the matrix transformation  $T_A : R^n \rightarrow R^m$  has the following properties for all vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and for every scalar  $k$ :

- (a)  $T_A(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$
- (b)  $T_A(k\mathbf{u}) = kT_A(\mathbf{u})$  [Homogeneity property]
- (c)  $T_A(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T_A(\mathbf{u}) + T_A(\mathbf{v})$  [Additivity property]
- (d)  $T_A(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) = T_A(\mathbf{u}) - T_A(\mathbf{v})$

## Theorem 1.8.2

$T : R^n \rightarrow R^m$  is a matrix transformation if and only if the following relationships hold for all vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $R^n$  and for every scalar  $k$ :

- (i)  $T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$  [Additivity property]
- (ii)  $T(k\mathbf{u}) = kT(\mathbf{u})$  [Homogeneity property]