

Lecture 6

Vectors &

Introduction to Matrices

The Cross Product

The **cross product** of $\mathbf{a} = [a_1, a_2, a_3]$ and $\mathbf{b} = [b_1, b_2, b_3]$ is

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = [a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1]$$

Note the following:

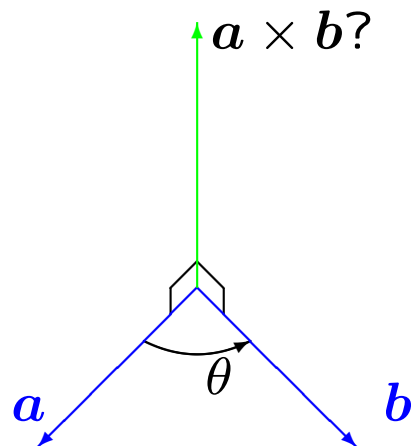
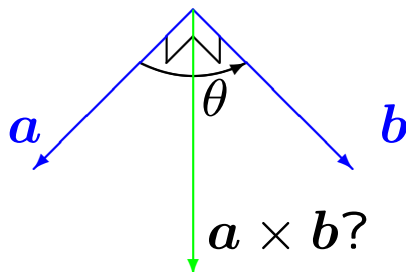
- (i) The cross product is itself a vector.
- (ii) Also known as the **vector product**.
- (iii) It is only defined for vectors in 3 space.
- (iv) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$!

Memory aid:

+	+	+	-	-	-
<i>i</i>	<i>j</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>j</i>	
<i>a</i> ₁	<i>a</i> ₂	<i>a</i> ₃	<i>a</i> ₁	<i>a</i> ₂	
<i>b</i> ₁	<i>b</i> ₂	<i>b</i> ₃	<i>b</i> ₁	<i>b</i> ₂	

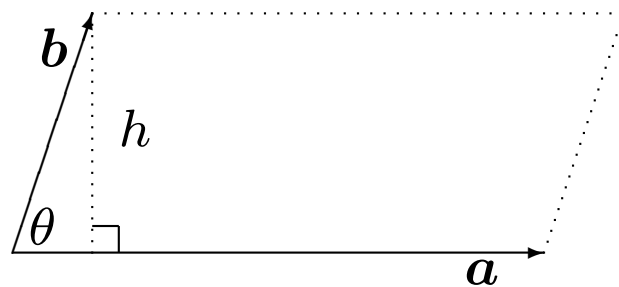
Ex: Find $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ if $\mathbf{a} = [3, -1, 0]$ and $\mathbf{b} = [2, 4, -3]$.

Note that $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{a} = 0$ and $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$,
i.e. $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular to \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} !



RIGHT HAND RULE: If the fingers of your right hand curl in the direction of rotation from \mathbf{a} to \mathbf{b} (through an angle $0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 180^\circ$), then your extended thumb points in the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

Consider the parallelogram formed by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .



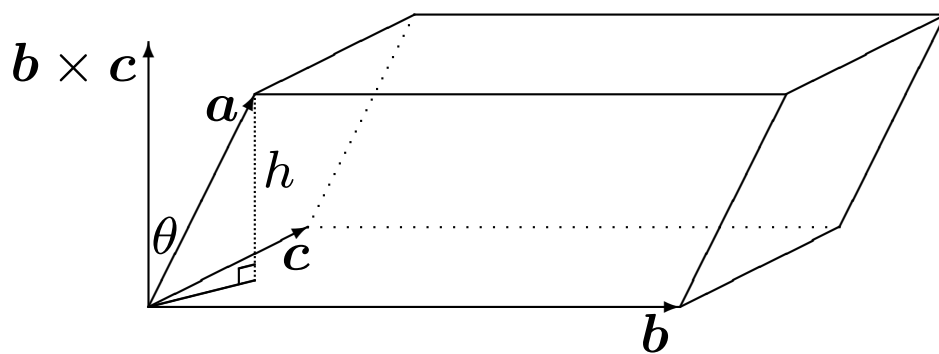
We have

$$\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\| = \text{area of parallelogram.}$$

Ex: Find the area of the parallelogram formed by the vectors $\mathbf{a} = [3, -1, 0]$ and $\mathbf{b} = [2, 4, -3]$.

$a \cdot (b \times c)$ is called the **scalar triple product** of a , b and c .

Consider the *parallelepiped* formed by a , b and c .



$$V = |a \cdot (b \times c)|$$

a , b and c are **coplanar** (ie. lie in the same plane) if and only if $a \cdot (b \times c) = 0$.

Ex: Find the volume of the parallelepiped formed by the vectors $a = [3, 1, 3]$, $b = [0, 1, -4]$ and $c = [2, 2, 0]$.

Matrices

An $m \times n$ matrix A is a rectangular array of entries (real numbers for our purposes) consisting of m rows and n columns, *i.e.*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

We say that A is of **order** (or **dimension**) $m \times n$. Note that we usually use uppercase letters to denote matrices.

For convenience, we have the following short-hand notation:

$$A = [a_{ij}], \quad 1 \leq i \leq m, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

In this context, a_{ij} is called the ij th entry of A , *i.e.* the entry which is in row i and column j of the matrix.

$1 \times n$ matrix is a **row vector**, $[a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$.

$n \times 1$ matrix is a **column vector**, $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$

Ex: Matrices come in various sizes.

(i) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 3 \\ 6 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 3×2 matrix.

(ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 3×1 matrix (ie. a column vector).

(iii) $[4 \ 0 \ -1]$ is a 1×3 matrix (ie. a row vector).

(iv) $[3]$ is a 1×1 matrix.

A **zero matrix** is one where all entries are equal to zero. For example, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 2×3 zero matrix.

We usually denote a zero matrix simply as 0.

Two $m \times n$ matrices $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are **equal** if all their corresponding entries are equal, *i.e.* if

$$a_{ij} = b_{ij}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq m, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

This implicitly assumes that the matrices have the same order, of course. *e.g.* $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

is not equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, because the matrices are of different orders.

Ex: Solve for x and y , given that

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & 3y \\ 3y & x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -9 \\ -9 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Operations on Matrices

1. **Matrix Addition:** We can only add matrices of the same order. If $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$, then

$$C = A + B = [c_{ij}] = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$$

for all i and j . *e.g.*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 4 & -2 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \text{d.n.e.}$$

2. **Scalar Multiplication:** If $A = [a_{ij}]$, then for any scalar k ,

$$kA = k[a_{ij}] = [k a_{ij}]$$

i.e. each entry of the matrix gets multiplied by the scalar.

$$\text{e.g.} \quad 2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 2 \\ 10 & -6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

3. **Matrix Multiplication:** The matrix product AB is only defined if the number of columns of A is equal to the number of rows of B . In that case

$$A_{m \times n} B_{n \times p} = C_{m \times p}$$

If $A = [a_{ij}]$, $B = [b_{ij}]$ and $C = [c_{ij}]$, then

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in}b_{nj} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

i.e. c_{ij} is obtained from the i -th row in A and the j -th column in B . In fact, note how c_{ij} is obtained by effectively taking the dot product of the i -th row in A and the j -th column in B .

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1j} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2j} & \cdots & b_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & b_{nj} & \cdots & b_{np} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \\ c_{ij} \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$
 and $C = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $A - 3C$, AB
 and BA .

Clearly, in general $AB \neq BA$. This may be due to a number of different reasons:

- Either product may not exist because the orders don't match, as in the case above.
- AB and BA may be of different order.
- AB and BA may be the same order, but still not necessarily equal. e.g. if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, then $AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and $BA = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \neq AB$.

Other valid properties of matrix multiplication are these:

$$(i) \quad A(B + C) = AB + AC$$

$$(ii) \quad (A + B)C = AC + BC$$

$$(iii) \quad (AB)C = A(BC)$$

But beware of the following:

(a) $AB = 0$ does not necessarily mean $A = 0$ or $B = 0$.

$$\text{eg. } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & -\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) $AB = AC$ does not necessarily mean $B = C$. e.g. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$,
and $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $AB = AC$,
but $B \neq C$.

The **transpose** of an $m \times n$ matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is the matrix $A^\top = [a'_{ij}]$ where $a'_{ij} = a_{ji}$.

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 & 4 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, A^\top = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$

A matrix A is said to be **square of order n** if it is of order $n \times n$. In this case, we can identify a **main diagonal**:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that $A^2 = AA$, or $A^m = \underbrace{AA \dots A}_{m \text{ times}}$ in general, for a square matrix A .

Ex: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$, find A^2 .

Finally, we say that a square matrix A is **symmetric** if $A^\top = A$. Note that A must be square for this to be possible.

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ -1 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = A^\top$ is symmetric.

Note that if $A = [a_{ij}]$ is symmetric, then $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$.

Identities and Inverses

An **identity matrix** is a square matrix (*i.e.* of order $n \times n$) with all main diagonal entries equal to 1 and all other entries equal to 0.

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

$$\text{e.g. } I_1 = [1], \quad I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that I is the *identity element* of matrix multiplication, *i.e.* for $A_{m \times n}$,

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

If A is square and of order n , and if there exists a B such that

$$AB = BA = I_n,$$

then we say that A is invertible, we call B the inverse of A and we write $B = A^{-1}$ to denote the inverse.

Ex: Verify that $B = A^{-1}$ if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 3 \\ \frac{3}{2} & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Clearly, if B is an inverse of A , then A is an inverse of B . Also, if the inverse of a matrix exists, then it is unique.

Note that not all square matrices are invertible. We'll look at invertibility and calculating inverses in more detail later.