(AT) Thookslike inverse of AT.

Now we can find (A-1) =

SO = [(A-1)T = (AT)-1) This means that AT is invertible if A is, and At isnit invertible if A isnit.

Example
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Inverse $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{(1)(4)-(1)(3)} \begin{bmatrix} 4-3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\sqrt{\text{Transpose}}$$

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

$$\sqrt{\text{Transpose}}$$

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

Last time: Transpose of a matrix - switch rows and columns

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Rules: (A+B)T=AT+BT, (AB)T=BTAT, (A-1)T=(AT)-1, --.

special case: A is a matrix and B is a column vector:

(vector) T (matrix) T = row vector VTAT = (AD)T

We usually prefer to thonk of matrices multiply column vectors on the left. But we could also have matrices multiply row vectors on the right. If we change column vectors to row vectors, we also have to switch A to AT.

Example
$$\begin{cases} x+2y=3 \\ 4+5y=6 \end{cases}$$
 Two equations with motrly and vectors
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why care about matrix transposes? It helps us handle dot producte (remember this is useful for relating algebra and geometry.

This number is just the dot product.

we also have an "outer product" of two vectors:

$$7 \text{ NT} = n \times n \text{ motrix}$$
 Example $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1(4) & 1(5) & 1(6) \\ 2(4) & 2(5) & 2(6) \\ 3(4) & 3(5) & 3(6) \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 10 & 12 \\ 12 & 15 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remember we had a "Key Property" of matrix multiplication (it was $(AB)\overline{x} = A(B\overline{x})$.)

We also have a Key Property of transposes:

Why? Because V. (ATO)=VT (ATO)=(STAT) TO

$$=(A\overrightarrow{\nabla})^T\overrightarrow{\nabla}=(A\overrightarrow{\nabla})\cdot\overrightarrow{\nabla}$$
.

(56)

Test with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 13 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}$, $\nabla = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\nabla = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$ATW = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \overrightarrow{\nabla} \cdot (AT\overrightarrow{\nabla}) = 1(0) + 2(-1) = -2$$

Sometimes a matrix is the some as its transpose:

An nxn matrix 15 colled symmetric if A=AT

has to be square; otherwise A mxn and AT nxm have different sizes, so conit be some.

Example
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 \\ 6 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{flip over}} A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 \\ 6 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

There are two ways to turn any mxn matrix into a symmetric one: AAT and ATA are both symmetric.

Check:
$$(AAT)^T = (A^T)^T A^T = AA^T$$
, $(ATA)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A$.

Thus is just A

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $AAT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 32 \\ 32 & 77 \end{bmatrix}$

$$ATA = \begin{bmatrix} 14\\25\\36 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 123\\456 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 22 & 27\\22 & 29 & 36\\27 & 36 & 45 \end{bmatrix}$$
Two different symmetric matrices

Note: If A=V, a column vector, these are just the inner and outer products of V with itself.

Permutation Matrices: These are the elimination matrices that (5) do row switches. You get them by switching around rows in the identity matrix. They have exactly one I in each row and column.

[OOIO][X] [X3]

Example: OOOOON OON [X]

Example:
$$0000 | X_1 = X_3$$

 $0000 | X_2 = X_4$
 $0100 | X_2 = X_4$
 $X_2 = X_1$

This moves: old Row 2 -> new Row 4

old Row 3 -> new Row 2

old Row 3 -> new Row 1

old Row 4 -> new Row 2

Some with PTP. So PT=P-1!

This works for any permutation matrix!

Why? Let's find (i,j)-entry of PPT:

Diagonal entries [=j: 1's are in the same position - 9 get 1

Off-diagonal, if = 1's one in different positions -s dot product
is 0.

So ppT has 1's on the diagonal (i=j) and 0's everywhere else ($i\neq j$) \longrightarrow ppT=I. Same for PTP.

Remember LM decomposition from last time:



A lower triangular U upper triangular ~> A = LU

This doesn't work if we have to do row switches on A, because the elimination operations won't all be lower triongular. Some will be permutation matrices.

What we can do instead:

D Figure out what row switches we'll need to do and put them into a permutation matrix P.

2) Reduce PA to upper triangular U. We've already done the now switches, so we'll get PA=LU

Or, A=P-1LU=PTLU

1

"Any nxn A can be factorized as a permutation matrix times lower triangular time upper triangular"

This form makes sense for solving linear equations, since $A\hat{x} = \hat{b}$ is really the same as $PA\hat{x} = P\hat{b}$

This system just rearranges the order that you write the equation.

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Row 2-Row 1 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ do a row switch: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ Row 3-2 Row 1 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ Row 229 Row 3

Instead:
$$PA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Row 2 - 2 & Row 1 \\ Row 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2$$

Switches Rows 2 and 3.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

So if you want to solve:
$$\begin{cases} x + 2y + 3z = 1 \\ x + 2y + 4z = 2 \\ 2x + 5y + 7z = 4 \\ Ax = 6 \end{cases}$$

It is best to first rewrite
$$(x+2y+3z = 1)$$
 of course this is in a more "natural" order: $(2x+5y+7z=4)$ really the same $(x+2y+4z=2)$ system of equations.

Solve by LU:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ y \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow Ph$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \overrightarrow{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{y_1 + y_2 = 4} \xrightarrow{y_2 = 4 - 2(1) = 2}$$

$$y_1 + y_3 = 2 \xrightarrow{y_3 = 2 - (1) = 1}$$

Now solve
$$U\hat{x} = \hat{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\begin{cases} x + 2y + 3z = 1 \\ y + z = 2 \\ z = 1 \end{cases}$

$$50 = 1$$
, $y = 2 - (1) = 1$, and $x = 1 - 2(1) - 3(1) = 4$

so
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is the solution for the original system $A\hat{x} = \hat{b}$,