Chapter 1

1 Matrices

1.1 Basic Concepts

A matrix is a rectangular array arranged in vertical columns.

The matrix
$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is said to have order 3 x 2.

The entries of a matrix are called *elements*. l_{12} refers to the element in the first row and second column of the matrix L.

In general, a matrix
$$A$$
 of order $p \times n$ has the form $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{p1} & a_{p2} & \dots & a_{pn} \end{bmatrix}$

Any element having its row index equal to its column index is a diagonal element.

A matrix is *square* if it has the same number of rows as columns. In a square matrix, the elements $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \ldots$ form the *main* or *principal* diagonal.

The elements of a matrix need not be numbers; they can be functions or matrices themselves.

A row matrix is a matrix having a single row; a column matrix is a matrix having a single column. The elements of such a matrix are commonly called its components, and the number of components its dimension.

The term n-tuple refers to either a row matrix or a column matrix having dimension n.

Two matrices A and B are equal if they have the same order and if their corresponding elements are equal.

The sum of two matrices of the same order is a matrix obtained by adding together corresponding elements of the original matrices. Addition is not defined for matrices of different orders.

Theorem 1. If matrices A, B, C all have the same order, then

- (a) the commutative law of addition holds; that is, A + B = B + A
- (b) the associative law of addition holds; that is, A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C

Proof. (a) Let
$$A = [a_{ij}] \wedge B = [b_{ij}]$$
. Then

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

$$= [a_{ij}] + [b_{ij}]$$

$$= [b_{ij} + a_{ij}]$$

$$= [b_{ij}] + [a_{ij}]$$

$$= B + A$$

by defs. of A, B by def. of matrix addition by commutative property of addition by def. of matrix addition

(b) Let
$$A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}], \text{ and } C = [c_{ij}].$$
 Then

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

$$= [a_{ij}] + [b_{ij} + c_{ij}]$$

$$= [a_{ij} + (b_{ij} + c_{ij})]$$

$$= [(a_{ij} + b_{ij}) + c_{ij}]$$

$$= [(a_{ij} + b_{ij})] + [c_{ij}]$$

by def. of matrix addition by def. of matrix addition by associative property of addition by def. of matrix addition = (A + B) + C

We define the matrix 0 to be a matrix consisting of only zero elements. When a zero matrix has the same order as another matrix A, we have the additional property A + 0 = A.

Subtraction of matrices is defined analogously to addition. The difference B-A of two matrices of the same order is the matrix obtained by subtracting from the elements of A the corresponding elements of B.

A matrix A can always be added to itself, forming the sum A+A. We would like to write A+A=2A.

The right side of the equation is a number times a matrix, a product known as scalar multiplication.

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is a $p \times n$ matrix and if λ is a real number, then $\lambda A = [\lambda a_{ij}], (i = 1, 2, ..., p; j = 1, 2, ..., n)$.

Theorem 2. If $A \wedge B$ are matrices of the same order and if $\lambda_1 \wedge \lambda_2$ denote scalars, then the following distributive laws hold:

(a)
$$\lambda_1(A+B) = \lambda_1 A + \lambda_1 B$$
.

(b)
$$(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A = \lambda_1 A + \lambda_2 A$$

(c)
$$(\lambda_1 \lambda_2) A = \lambda_1 (\lambda_2 A)$$

Proof. (a) Let
$$A = [a_{ij}] \wedge B = [b_{ij}]$$
. Then

$$\lambda_{1}(A + B) = \lambda_{1}([a_{ij}] + [b_{ij}])$$

$$= \lambda_{1}[(a_{ij} + b_{ij})]$$

$$= [\lambda_{1}(a_{ij} + b_{ij})]$$

$$= [(\lambda_{1}a_{ij} + \lambda_{1}b_{ij})]$$

$$= [\lambda_{1}a_{ij}] + [\lambda_{1}b_{ij}]$$

$$= \lambda_{1}[a_{ij}] + \lambda_{1}[b_{ij}]$$

def. of matrix addition def. of scalar multiplication distributive property of scalars def. of matrix addition def. of scalar multiplication $= \lambda_1 A + \lambda_1 B$

(b) Let $A = [a_{ij}]$. Then

$$(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)[a_{ij}]$$

$$= [(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)a_{ij}]$$

$$= [\lambda_1 a_{ij} + \lambda_2 a_{ij}]$$

$$= [\lambda_1 a_{ij}] + [\lambda_2 a_{ij}]$$

$$= \lambda_1 [a_{ij}] + \lambda_2 [a_{ij}]$$

$$= \lambda_1 A + \lambda_2 A$$

def. of scalar multiplication distributive property of multiplication def. of matrix addition def. of scalar multiplication

(c) Let $A = [a_{ij}]$. Then

$$(\lambda_1 \lambda_2) A = (\lambda_1 \lambda_2) [a_{ij}]$$

$$= [(\lambda_1 \lambda_2) a_{ij}]$$

$$= [\lambda_1 (\lambda_2 a_{ij})]$$

$$= \lambda_1 [\lambda_2 a_{ij}]$$

$$= \lambda_1 (\lambda_2 A)$$

def. of scalar multiplication associative property of multiplication def. of scalar multiplication

1.2 Matrix Multiplication

A single system of two linear equations in two unknowns is

$$2x + 3y = 10$$

$$4x + 5y = 20$$

Combining all the coefficients of the variables on the left of each equation into a *coefficient matrix*, all the variables into a column matrix of variables; and the constants on the right of each equation into another column matrix, we separate the matrix system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

We want to define matrix multiplication so that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (2x+3y) \\ (4x+5y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

We shall define the product AB of two matrices A and B when the number of columns of A is equal to the number of rows of B, and the result will be a matrix having the same number of rows as A and the same number of columns as B.

When the product AB is considered, A is said to premultiply B, while B is said to postmultiply A.

To calculate the i-j element of AB, when the multiplication is defined, multiply the elements in the *i*th row of A by the corresponding elements in the *j*th column of B and sum the results.

Let
$$AB = C = [c_{ij}]$$
. Then $[c_{ij}] = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{ir}b_{rj} = \sum_{k=1}^{r} a_{ik}b_{kj}$.

Although matrix multiplication is not commutative, some matrix products are. Also, matrices exist for which AB = 0 without either A or B being 0. The cancellation law also does not apply. In general, AB = AC does not imply B = C.

Theorem 3. If $A, B, \land C$ have appropriate orders so that the following additions and multiplications are defined, then

(a)
$$A(BC) = (AB)C$$
 (associative law of multiplication)

(b)
$$A(B+C) = AB + AC$$
 (left distributive law)

(c)
$$(B+C)A = BA + CA$$
 (right distributive law)

Proof. (a) Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be an $m \times n$ matrix, $B = [b_{ij}]$ be an $n \times p$ matrix, and $C = [c_{ij}]$ be a $p \times q$ matrix. Then

$$(AB)C = ([a_{ij}][b_{jk}])[c]$$

$$= (\sum_{k=1}^{r} a_{ik}b_{kj})[c]$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{p} (\sum_{k=1}^{r} a_{ik}b_{kj})c$$

$$= \sum_{l} ([ab]_{il}[c])$$

$$= [ab]_{il}[c]_{lj}$$

$$= (AB)C$$

Note 1. I got lost in the sea of subscripts, but labeled appropriately (and arbitrarily) the logic still holds.

(b) Let $A = [a_{ij}] \wedge B = [b_{ij}] \wedge C = [c_{ij}]$, where A is $m \times n$, and B and C are $n \times p$. Then

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

$$= [a_{ij}][(b_{ij} + c_{ij})]$$

$$= \sum_{k} a_{ik}(b_{kj} + c_{kj})$$

$$= \sum_{k} a_{ik}b_{kj} + a_{ik}c_{kj}$$

$$= \sum_{k} a_{ik}b_{kj} + \sum_{k} a_{ik}c_{kj}$$

$$= [a_{ij}][b_{ij}] + [a_{ij}][c_{ij}]$$

$$= AB + AC$$

(c) Let $A = [a_{ij}] \wedge B = [b_{ij}] \wedge C = [c_{ij}]$, where A is $m \times n$, and B and C are $n \times p$. Then

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

$$= \sum_{k} (b_{ik} + c_{ik})a_{kj}$$

$$= \sum_{k} (b_{ik}a_{kj} + c_{ik})a_{kj}$$

$$= \sum_{k} (b_{ik}a_{kj} + \sum_{k} c_{ik})a_{kj}$$

$$= BA + BC$$

1.3 Special Matrices

The transpose of a matrix A, denoted by A^T , is obtained by converting all the rows of A into the columns of A^T while preserving the ordering of the rows/columns. More formally, if $A = [a_{ij}]$ is an $n \times p$ matrix, then the transpose of A, denoted by $A^T = [a_{ij}^T]$, is a $p \times n$ matrix where $a_{ij}^T = a_{ji}$.

Theorem 4. The following properties are true for any scalar λ and any matrices for which the indicated additions and multiplications are defined.

- (a) $(A^T)^T = A$
- (b) $(\lambda A)^T = \lambda A^T$
- (c) $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- $(d) (AB)^T = B^T A^T$

Proof. (a) Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$. Then

$$(A^T)^T = ([a_{ij}]^T)^T$$
$$= ([a_{ji}])^T$$
$$= [a_{ij}]$$

(b)

$$(\lambda A)^{T} = (\lambda [a_{ij}])^{T}$$

$$= ([\lambda a_{ij}])^{T}$$

$$= [\lambda a_{ji}]$$

$$= \lambda [a_{ji}]^{T}$$

$$= \lambda A^{T}$$

(c)

$$(A+B)^T = ([a_{ij}] + [b_{ij}])^T = ([a_{ij} + b_{ij}])^T = [a_{ji} + b_{ji}] = [a_{ji}] + [b_{ji}] = A^T + B^T$$

(d) Note: I'm pretty sure the following is wrong.

$$(AB)^T = (\sum_k a_{ik} b_{kj})^T = \sum_k a_{jk} b_{ki} = \sum_k a_{kj}^T b_{ik}^T = \sum_k b_{ik}^T a_{kj}^T = (B^T A^T)$$

A matrix A is symmetric if it equals its own transpose; that is, if $A = A^T$. A matrix A is skew-symmetric if it equals the negative of its transpose; that is, if $A = -A^T$.

A submatrix of a matrix A is a matrix obtained by removing any number of rows or columns from A. By removing no rows and no columns from A, it follows that A is a submatrix of itself.

A matrix is *partitioned* if it is divided into submatrices by horizontal or vertical lines between rows and columns.

A zero row in a matrix is a row containing only zero elements, whereas a nonzero row is a row that contains at least one nonzero element.

Definition 1. A matrix is in row-reduced form if it satisfies the following four conditions:

- 1. All zero rows appear below nonzero rows when both types are present in the matrix.
- 2. The first nonzero element in any nonzero row is 1.
- 3. All elements directly below (that is, in the same column but in succeeding rows from) the first nonzero elements of a nonzero row are zero.
- 4. The first nonzero element of any nonzero row appears in a later column (further to the right) than the first nonzero element in any preceding row.

A diagonal matrix is a square matrix having only zeros as non-diagonal elements.

An *identity matrix*, denoted by I, is a diagonal matrix having all its diagonal elements equal to 1, and 0 otherwise.

If A and I are square matrices of the same order, then AI = IA = A.

A block diagonal matrix A is one that can be partitioned into the form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 & 0 \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & A_k \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k \text{ are square matrices.}$$

A matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is upper triangular if $a_{ij} = 0 \ \forall i > j$; that is, if all elements below the main diagonal are zero.

If $a_{ij} = 0 \ \forall i < j$; that is, if all elements above the main diagonal are zero, then A is lower triangular.

Theorem 5. The product of two lower (upper) triangular matrices of the same order is also lower (upper) triangular.

Proof. Let $A = [a_{ij}] \wedge B = [b_{ij}]$ both be $n \times n$ lower triangular matrices. Then

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

Since $a_{ik} = 0 \ \forall i < j$

?

Since $b_{kj} = 0 \ \forall k < j$

??

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1.4 Linear Systems of Equations

A system of m-linear equations in n-variables x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n has the general form