Elementary Linear Algebra

Chapter 1:

Systems of Linear Equations & Matrices

Chapter Contents

- Introduction to System of Linear Equations
- Gaussian Elimination
- Matrices and Matrix Operations
- Inverses; Rules of Matrix Arithmetic
- Elementary Matrices and a Method for Finding *A*-1
- Further Results on Systems of Equations and Invertibility
- Diagonal, Triangular, and Symmetric Matrices

1-1 Linear Equations

• Any straight line in *xy*-plane can be represented algebraically by an equation of the form:

a1x + a2y = b

General form: Define a linear equation in the *n* variables x1, x2, ..., xn:

 $a1x1 + a2x2 + \dots + anxn = b$

where *a*1, *a*2, ..., *an* and *b* are real constants.

• The variables in a linear equation are sometimes called unknowns.

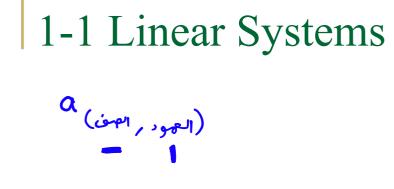
1-1 Example 1 (Linear Equations)

- The equations x + 3y = 7, $y = \frac{1}{2}x + 3z + 1$, and $x_1 2x_2 3x_3 + x_4 = 7$ are linear
- A linear equation does not involve any products or roots of variables
- All variables occur only to the first power and do not appear as arguments for trigonometric, logarithmic, or exponential functions.
- The equations linear $x + 3\sqrt{y} = 5.3x + 2y - z + xz = 4$ and $y = \sin x$ are not
- A solution of a linear equation is a sequence of *n* numbers *s*1, *s*2, ..., *sn* such that the equation is satisfied.
- The set of all solutions of the equation is called its solution set or general solution of the equation.

1-1 Example 2 (Linear Equations)

- Find the solution of x1 4x2 + 7x3 = 5
- Solution:
- We can assign arbitrary values to any two variables and solve for the third variable
 - For example

$$x1 = 5 + 4s - 7t$$
, $x2 = s$, $x3 = t$
where s t are arbitrary values
and late of the set of the s



- $a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$ $a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$? ? ? ? ? $a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$
- A finite set of linear equations in the variables x1, x2, ..., xn is called a system of linear equations or a linear system.
- A sequence of numbers *s*1, *s*2, ..., *sn* is called a solution of the system
- A system has *no solution* is said to be inconsistent.
- If there is at least one solution of the system, it is called consistent.
- *Every system of linear equations has either no solutions, exactly one solution, or infinitely many solutions*

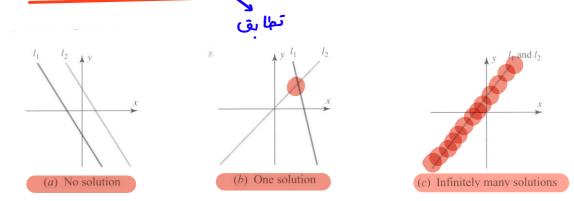
1-1 Linear Systems

• A general system of two linear equations:

a1x + b1y = c1 (a1, b1 not both zero)

a2x + b2y = c2 (a2, b2 not both zero)

- Two line may be parallel no solution
 - Two line may be intersect at only one point one solution
 - Two line may <u>coincide</u> infinitely many solutions



1-1 Augmented Matrices

- The location of the + s, the x s, and the = s can be abbreviated by writing only the rectangular array of numbers.
- This is called the augmented matrix for the system.
- It must be written in the same order in each equation as the unknowns and the constants must be on the right

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{th column} \\ \downarrow & \swarrow \\ a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \hline \mathbf{?} & \mathbf{?} & \mathbf{?} \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{array} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \hline \mathbf{?} & \mathbf{?} & \mathbf{?} & \mathbf{?} \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{bmatrix} \xleftarrow{} 1 \text{ th row}$$

augmented

coefficient

Solution

1-1 Elementary Row Operations

- The basic method for solving a system of linear equations is to replace the given system by a new system that has the same solution set but which is easier to solve.
- Since the **rows** of an augmented matrix correspond to the **equations** in the associated system, new systems is generally obtained in a series of steps by applying the following three types of operations to eliminate unknowns systematically.

$$a_{11}x_{1} + a_{12}x_{2} + \dots + a_{1n}x_{n} = b_{1}$$

$$a_{21}x_{1} + a_{22}x_{2} + \dots + a_{2n}x_{n} = b_{2}$$

$$a_{m1}x_{1} + a_{m2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{mn}x_{n} = b_{m}$$

$$a_{m1}x_{1} + a_{m2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{mn}x_{n} = b_{m}$$

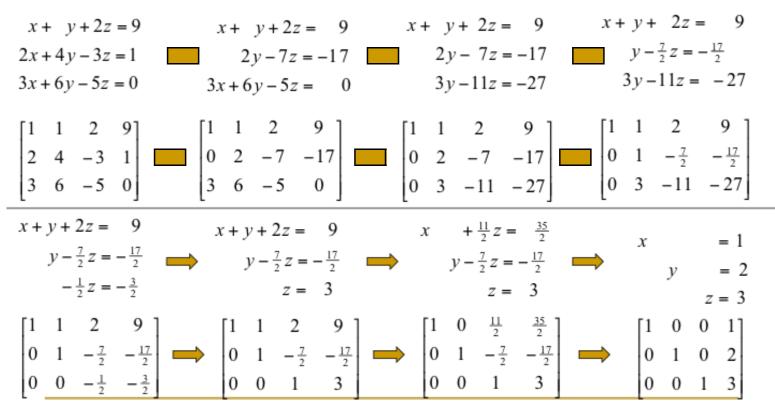
$$a_{m1}x_{1} + a_{m2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{mn}x_{n} = b_{m}$$

$$a_{m1}x_{1} + a_{m2}x_{2} + \dots + a_{mn}x_{n} = b_{m}$$

1-1 Elementary Row Operations

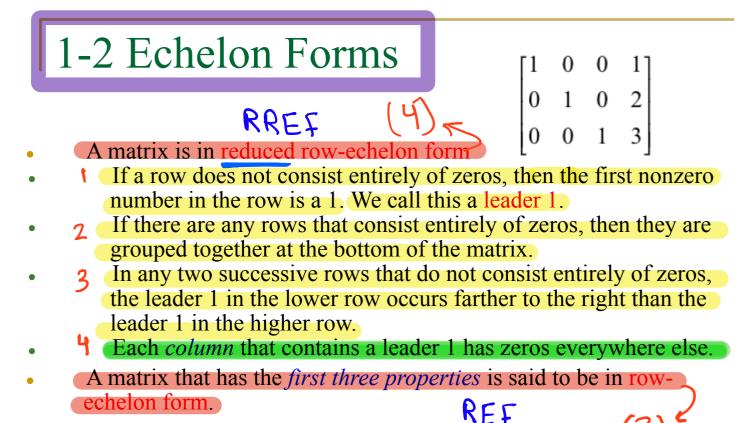
- Elementary row operations
- Multiply an equation through by a nonzero constant
- Interchange two equation
 - Add a multiple of one equation to another

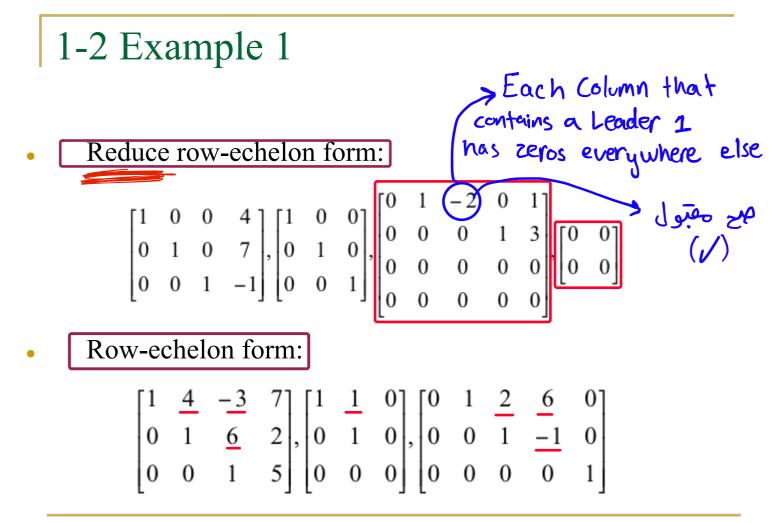
1-1 Example 3(Using Elementary Row Operations)



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Matrices in **row-echelon form** (any real numbers substituted for the *'s.):

Г 1	*	*	*1		1	*	*	*1	Г 1	sk	sk	* 1	0	1	Ŧ	Ŧ	4	÷	*	÷	÷	*	
1	4-	-1-	~ I		1	·	- 1 -	~	1	-4-	4-	~	6	0	0	1	*	*	*	*	*	*	
0	1	*	*		0	1	*	*	0	1	*	*	Ľ	0	0	1							
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0	0	1	*		0	0	1	*	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	1	*	*	*	*	
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Ľ	0	0	1		Ľ	0	v	~]	Ľ	0	v	* 0 0]	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	*	

Matrices in **reduced row-echelon form** (any real numbers substituted for the *'s.) :

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

• Solutions of linear systems

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• A step-by-step elimination procedure that can be used to reduce any matrix to reduced row-echelon form

[0	0	-2	0	7	12]	
2	4	-2 -10 -5	6	12	28	
2	4	- 5	6	-5	-1	

1-2 Elimination Methods $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\ 2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

• Step1. Locate the leftmost column that does not consist entirely of zeros.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\ 2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Leftmost nonzero column

• Step2. Interchange the top row with another row, to bring a nonzero entry to top of the column found in Step1

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -10 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 & -5 & 6 & -5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 The 1th and 2th rows in the preceding matrix were interchanged.

• Step3. If the entry that is now at the top of the column found in Step1 is a, multiply the first row by 1/a in order to introduce a leading 1.

[1	2	- 5	3	6	14]	
0	0	-5 -2 -5	0	7	12	
2	4	- 5	6	- 5	-1	

The 1st row of the preceding matrix was multiplied by 1/2.

• Step4. Add suitable multiples of the top row to the rows below so that all entries below the leading 1 become zeros

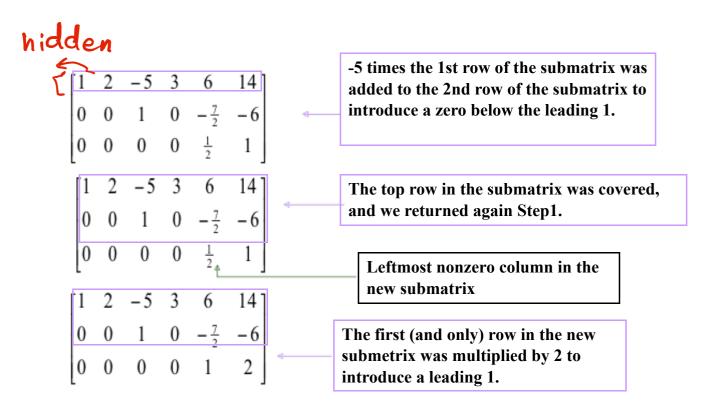
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -17 & -29 \end{bmatrix}$

-2 times the 1st row of the preceding matrix was added to the 3rd row.

• Step5. <u>Now cover the top row in the matrix and begin again with</u> Step1 applied to the submatrix that remains. Continue in this way until the entire matrix is in row-echelon form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 & 0 & -17 & -29 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -5 & 3 & 6 & 14 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{7}{2} & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -17 & -29 \end{bmatrix}$$
The 1st row in the submatrix was multiplied by -1/2 to introduce a leading 1.



- Step1~Step5: the above procedure produces a row-echelon form and is called Gaussian elimination
- Step1~Step6: the above procedure produces a reduced row-echelon form and is called Gaussian-Jordan elimination
 - Every matrix has a unique reduced row-echelon form but a rowechelon form of a given matrix is not unique
 - Back-Substitution
 - To solve a system of linear equations by using Gaussian elimination to bring the augmented matrix into row-echelon form **without continuing** all the way to the reduced row-echelon form.
 - When this is done, the corresponding system of equations can be solved by a technique called back-substitution

• Solve by Gauss-Jordan elimination

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 3x_2 - 2x_3 + 2x_5 &= 0\\ 2x_1 + 6x_2 - 5x_3 - 2x_4 + 4x_5 - 3x_6 &= -1\\ 5x_3 + 10x_4 &+ 15x_6 &= 5\\ 2x_1 + 6x_2 &+ 8x_4 + 4x_5 + 18x_6 &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

То

REF

• From the computations in example 4, a row-echelon form of the augmented matrix is given.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
solve the system of equations:

• Solve the system of equations by Gaussian elimination and back-substitution.

$$x + y + 2z = 9$$
$$2x + 4y - 3z = 1$$
$$3x + 6y - 5z = 0$$

1-2 Homogeneous Linear Systems

[?]

A system of linear equations is said to be homogeneous if the constant terms are all zero. $a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$ $a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = 0$ (consistent) \tilde{l}_{21}

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = 0$$
 Solution

? ?

- Every homogeneous system of linear equation is consistent, since all such system have x1 = 0, x2 = 0, ..., xn = 0 as a solution.
 - This solution is called the trivial solution.

[?]

- If there are another solutions, they are called nontrivial solutions.
- There are *only two possibilities* for its solutions:
 - There is **only** the trivial solution
 - There are **infinitely** many solutions in addition to the trivial solution

Solve the homogeneous system of linear equations by Gauss-Jordan elimination

$$2x_{1} + 2x_{2} - x_{3} + x_{5} = 0$$

- $x_{1} - x_{2} + 2x_{3} - 3x_{4} + x_{5} = 0$
 $x_{1} + x_{2} - 2x_{3} - x_{5} = 0$
 $x_{2} + x_{4} + x_{5} = 0$

• The augmented matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reducing this matrix to reduced row-echelon form

[1	1	0	0	1	0]
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	0 0 0 0
0	1 0 0 0	0	0	0	0

The general solution is

$$x_1 = -s - t, x_2 = s$$

$$x_3 = -t, x_4 = 0, x_5 = t$$

Note: the trivial solution is obtained when s = t = 0

1-2 Example 7 (Gauss-Jordan Elimination)

- Two important points:
- None of the three row operations alters the final column of zeros, so the system of equations corresponding to the reduced row-echelon form of the augmented matrix must also be a homogeneous system.
- If the given homogeneous system has *m* equations in *n* unknowns with m < n, and there are *r* nonzero rows in reduced row-echelon form of the augmented matrix, we will have r < n. It will have the form:

Theorem 1.2.1

- Remark
 - This theorem applies only to homogeneous system! A nonhomogeneous system with more unknowns than equations need not be consistent; however, if the system is consistent, it will have infinitely many solutions.
 - e.g., two parallel planes in 3-space

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1-3 Definition and Notation

- A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. The numbers in the array are called the entries in the matrix
- A general $m \times n$ matrix A is denoted as

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{R} \circ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{i}) \\ \mathbf{v} & \mathbf{v} \\ \mathbf$$

- The entry that occurs in row *i* and column *j* of matrix *A* will be denoted *aij* or *A ij*. If *aij* is real number, it is common to be referred as **scalars**
- The preceding matrix can be written as [*aij*]*m×n* or [*aij*]

1-3 Definition

- Two matrices are defined to be equal if they have the same size and their corresponding entries are equal)
 - If A = [aij] and B = [bij] have the same size, then A = B if and only if aij = bij for all *i* and *j*

If A and B are matrices of the same size, then the sum A + B is the matrix obtained by adding the entries of B to the corresponding entries of A.

1-3 Definition

The difference A - B is the matrix obtained by subtracting the entries of B from the corresponding entries of A

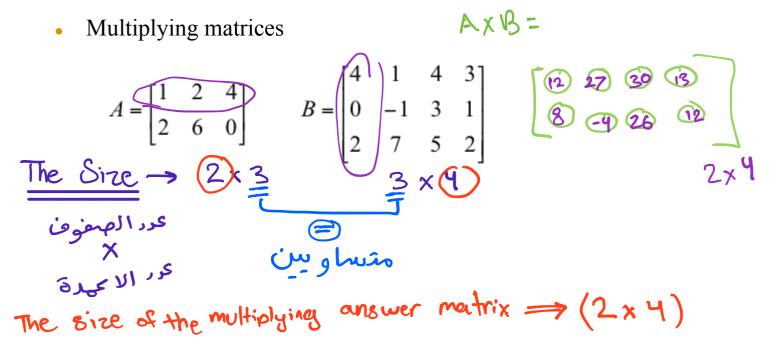
> Matrices must have some size

• If *A* is any matrix and *c* is any scalar, then the product *cA* is the matrix obtained by multiplying each entry of the matrix *A* by *c*. The matrix *cA* is said to be the scalar multiple of *A* If A = [aii] then cA ii = c A ii = caii

If
$$A = [aij]$$
, then $cA \quad ij = c \quad A \quad ij = ca$

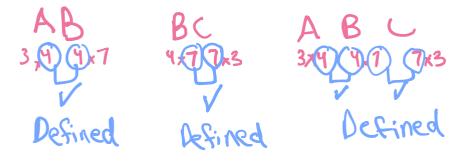
1-3 Definitions If A is an $m_{\mathcal{A}}$ matrix and B is an $m_{\mathcal{A}}$ matrix, then the product AB is the *m* × *n* matrix whose entries are determined as follows. $(AB)m \times n = Am \times p Bp \times n$ $(AB)m \times n = Am \times p Bp \times n$ X X $AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & ? & a_{1r} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & ? & a_{2r} \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & ? & a_{ir} \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & ? & a_{ir} \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ AB & ij = a \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & ? & a_{1r} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & ? & a_{2r} \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & ? & a_{ir} \\ ? & ? & ? & ? \\ b_{r1} & b_{r2} & ? & b_{rj} & ? \\ b_{r1} & b_{r2} & ? & b_{rj} & ? \\ b_{r1} & b_{r2} & ? & b_{rj} & ? \\ a_{i3}b3j + \dots + airbrj \end{bmatrix}$

1-3 Example 5



1-3 Example 6

Determine whether a product is defined Matrices A: 3×4, B: 4×7, C: 7×3



1-3 Partitioned Matrices

- مقسبة A matrix can be partitioned into smaller matrices by inserting horizontal and vertical rules between selected rows and columns
- For example, three possible partitions of a 3 4 matrix A:
- The partition of *A* into four submatrices *A*11, *A*12, *A*21, and *A*22
- The partition of A into its row matrices r1, r2, and r3
- The partition of *A* into its column matrices c1, c2, c3, and c4

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \mathbf{r}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_2 & \mathbf{c}_3 & \mathbf{c}_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-3 Multiplication by Columns and by Rows

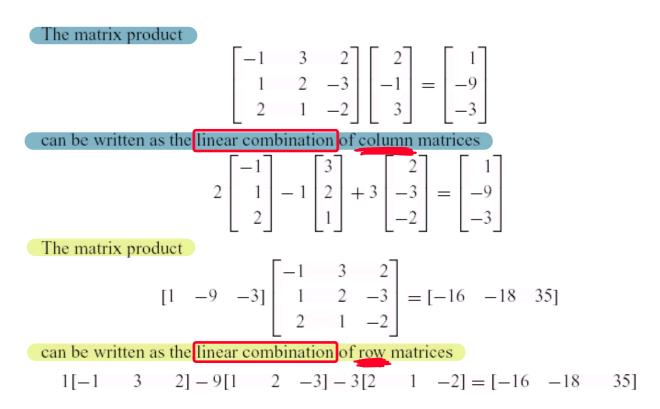
- It is possible to compute a particular row or column of a matrix product <u>AB</u> without computing the entire product: *j*th column matrix of <u>AB</u> = <u>A[j</u>th column matrix of <u>B]</u> *i*th row matrix of <u>AB</u> = [*i*th row matrix of <u>A]B</u>
- If **a**1, **a**2, ..., **a***m* denote the row matrices of A and **b**1, **b**2, ..., **b***n* denote the column matrices of B, then

$$AB = A[\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad ? \quad \mathbf{b}_n] = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \quad A\mathbf{b}_2 \quad ? \quad A\mathbf{b}_n]$$
$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \\ ? \\ \mathbf{a}_m \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 B \\ \mathbf{a}_2 B \\ \mathbf{a}_2 B \\ ? \\ \mathbf{a}_m B \end{bmatrix}$$

• Multiplying matrices by rows and by columns

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-3 Matrix Products as Linear
Combinations
Let
White
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 2 & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 2 & a_{2n} \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & 2 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$ (X) is a column metric
Then
 $A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + 2 + a_{1n}x_n \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + 2 + a_{2n}x_n \\ 2 \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + 2 + a_{nn}x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ 2 \\ a_{n1} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ 2 \\ a_{n2} \end{bmatrix} + 2 + x_n \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ 2 \\ a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$
The product $A\mathbf{x}$ of a matrix A with a column matrix \mathbf{x} is a linear combination of the column matrices of A with the coefficients coming from the matrix \mathbf{x}



We showed in Example 5 that

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 27 & 30 & 13 \\ 8 & -4 & 26 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

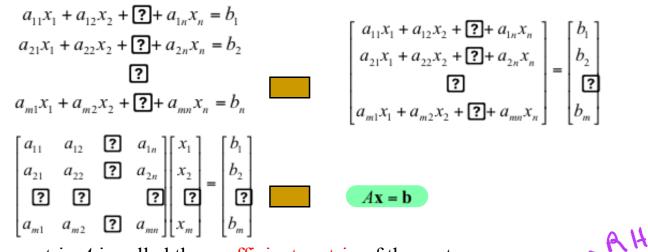
$$2 \times 4$$

The column matrices of AB can be expressed as linear combinations of the column matrices of A as follows:

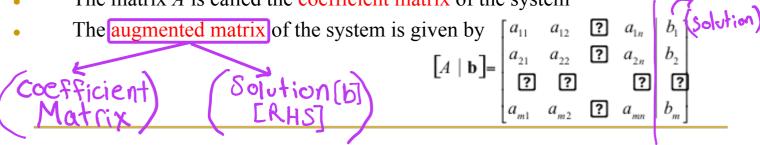
$$\begin{bmatrix} 12\\8 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 2\\6 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 4\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 27\\-4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2\\6 \end{bmatrix} + 7 \begin{bmatrix} 4\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 30\\26 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} 2\\6 \end{bmatrix} + 5 \begin{bmatrix} 4\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 13\\12 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2\\6 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 4\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-3 Matrix Form of a Linear System

Consider any system of mlinear equations in munknowns:



The matrix A is called the coefficient matrix of the system



• A function using matrices

.

•

• Consider the following matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The product $y = Ax$ is 2×2
$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ -b \end{bmatrix}$$

The product $y = Bx$ is $\therefore \qquad Q = Ax$
$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -a \end{bmatrix} \qquad \therefore \qquad Q = Ax$$

-a

1-3 Definitions A^T (transpose) → any matrix Tr(A) (trace) → square matrix

- If A is any m n matrix, then the transpose of A, denoted by AT, is defined to be the n m matrix that results from interchanging the rows and columns of A
 - That is, the first column of AT is the first row of A, the second column of AT is the second row of A, and so forth
- If *A* is a square matrix, then the trace of *A*, denoted by tr(*A*), is defined to be the sum of the entries on the main diagonal of *A*. The trace of *A* is undefined if *A* is not a square matrix.

For an *n* matrix
$$A = [aij]$$
, $tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$

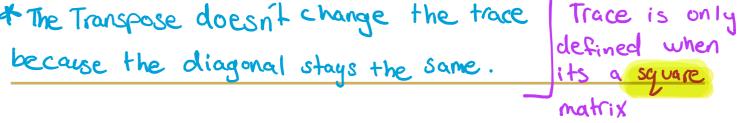
1-3 Example 11 & 12

Transpose: (AT)ij = (A)ij

 $A = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{vmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$

 $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 7 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & -8 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 7 & -3 \\ 4 & -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

AT = $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ 2x3 Tr(A) = 11 2x3 Trace is



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1-4 Properties of Matrix Operations

• For real numbers *a* and *b*, we always have *ab* = *ba*, which is called the *commutative law for multiplication*. For matrices, however, <u>*AB*</u> and *BA* need not be equal.

- Equality can fail to hold for three reasons:
 - The product *AB* is defined but *BA* is undefined.
 - AB and BA are both defined but have different sizes.
- It is possible to have *AB* BA even if both *AB* and *BA* are defined and have the same size.

العادة التبريمي (commutative Law -> العادة associative Law -> العانون عالترتيب Theorem 1.4.1 (Properties of Matrix Arithmetic)

- Assuming that the sizes of the matrices are such that the indicated operations can be performed, the following rules of matrix ★ أغلبهم
 لازم امشي
 على الترتيب arithmetic are valid.
- A + B = B + A (commutative law for addition)
- A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C (associative law for addition) A(BC) = (AB)C (associative law for multiplication)
- $\underline{A(B+C)} = \underline{AB} + \underline{AC}$ (left distributive law) (B + C)A = BA + CA (right distributive law)
- $A(B-C) = AB AC, \quad (B-C)A = BA CA$ $a(B+C) = aB + aC, \qquad a(B-C) = aB - aC$
- $(a+b)C = aC + bC, \qquad (a-b)C = aC bC 4$
 - a(bC) = (ab)C, a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)
- Note: the cancellation law is not valid for matrix multiplication!

1-4 Proof of A(B + C) = AB + AC

• show the same size

• show the corresponding entries are equal

1-4 Example 2
(1)
As an illustration of the associative law for matrix multiplication consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
Then

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
Thus,

$$(AB)C = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 \\ 20 & 13 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } BC = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
and

$$A(BC) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 15 \\ 46 & 39 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

so (AB)C = A(BC), as guaranteed by Theorem 1.4.1*c*.

1-4 Zero Matrices

- A matrix, all of whose entries are zero, is called a zero matrix
- A zero matrix will be denoted by 0
- If it is important to emphasize the size, we shall write
 0m× n for the *m×n* zero matrix.
- In keeping with our convention of using **boldface symbols** for matrices with one column, we will denote a zero matrix with one column by 0

0 -> zero matrix with one colum

1-4 Example 3

The cancellation law does not hold

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $AB = AC = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$
- $AD = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

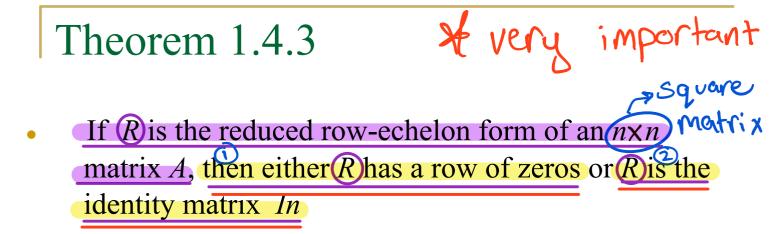
Theorem 1.4.2 (Properties of Zero Matrices)

- Assuming that the sizes of the matrices are such that the indicated operations can be performed ,the following rules of matrix arithmetic are valid
- $\bullet \qquad A+0=0+A=A$
- A-A=0
- $\bullet \qquad 0-A = -A$
- $\bullet \qquad A0 = 0; \quad 0A = 0$

1-4 Identity Matrices

- Asquare matrix with 1 s on the main diagonal and 0 s off the main diagonal is called an **identity matrix** and is denoted by I, or In for the $n \times n$ identity matrix
- If A is an $m \propto n$ matrix, then AIn = A and ImA = AExample 4

An identity matrix plays the same role in matrix arithmetic as the number (1) plays in the numerical relationships $a \cdot 1 =$ $1 \cdot a = a$



There is only one unique form for the reduced row echlon form

1-4 Invertible

If *A* is a square matrix, and if a matrix *B* of the same size can be found such that AB = BA = I, then *A* is said to be *invertible* and *B* is called an *inverse* of *A*. If no such matrix *B* can be found, then *A* is said to be *singular*.

> if A is not invertible it is called singular

- <u>Remark:</u>
- The inverse of A is denoted as A-1
 - Not every (square) matrix has an inverse
- An inverse matrix has exactly one inverse

1-4 Example 5 & 6
Verify the inverse requirements

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{3} Determinant = zero$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is singular}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is singular}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is singular}$$

1-4 Theorems (An inverse matrix has exactly one inverse) Theorem 1.4.4 (inverse) ما بصبر المطب A ge A منبي المطب الم

- If B and C are both inverses of the matrix A, then B = C

Theorem 1.4.5 The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible if $ad - bc \neq 0$, in which case the inverse is given by The matrix the formula

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 1.4.6

• If *A* and *B* are invertible matrices of the same size ,then *AB* is invertible and (AB)-1 = B-1A-1 (AB)' = B'A'

• Example 7 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

1-4 Powers of a Matrix

If A is a square matrix, then we define the nonnegative integer powers of A to be

$$A^{0} = I \quad A^{n} = \underbrace{\text{Free}}_{n \text{ factors}} (n > 0)$$

• If A is invertible, then we define the negative integer powers to be

$$A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n = (A^{-1})^n = (n > 0)$$

• Theorem 1.4.7 (Laws of Exponents) • If A is a square matrix and r and s are integers, then ArAs = Ar+s, (Ar)s = Ars $A^rA^s = A^{r+s}$ $A^rA^s = A^{r+s}$ $A \rightarrow square matrix$

Theorem 1.4.8 (Laws of Exponents)

- If *A* is an invertible matrix, then:
- A-1 is invertible and (A-1)-1 = A
- An is invertible and (An)-1 = (A-1)n for n = 0, 1, 2, ...
- For any nonzero scalar k, the matrix kA is invertible and (kA)-1 = (1/k)A-1

1-4 Example 8

• Powers of matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A3 = ?$$

$$A^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 8 \\ 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{3} = A^{2} * A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 8 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 30 \\ 15 & 41 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A-3 = ?$$

$$A^{-3} = ?$$

$$A^{-3} = \frac{1}{45} \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-3} = \frac{1}{45} \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-4 Polynomial Expressions Involving Matrices

If A is a square matrix, say m m, and if

 $p(x) = a0 + a1x + \ldots + anxn$

is any polynomial, then we define p(A) = a0I + a1A' + ... + anAn

where I is the m m identity matrix.

That is, p(A) is the *m* matrix that results when *A* is substituted for *x* in the above equation and *a*0 is replaced by *a*0*I*

1-4 Example 9 (Matrix Polynomial)

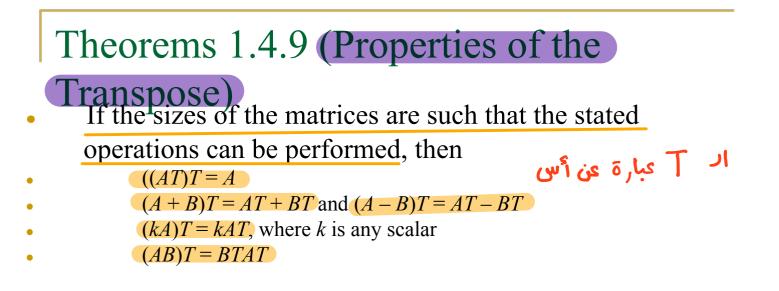
 $p(x) = 2x^2 - 3x + 4$ and $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

then

If

$$p(A) = 2A^{2} - 3A + 4I = 2\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{2} - 3\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + 4\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 8\\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6\\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0\\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2\\ 0 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$
(constant)
$$e_{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 8\\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6\\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0\\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2\\ 0 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$
(constant)
$$e_{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 8\\ 0 & 18 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6\\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0\\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2\\ 0 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$



Theorem 1.4.10 (Invertibility of a Transpose) $(BA)^{T} = A^{T}B^{T}$

• If A is an invertible matrix, then AT is also invertible and $(AT)-1 = (A-1)T \quad (A^{T})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{T} \qquad A A^{-1} = I = A^{-1} A$ $A A^{-1} = I = A^{-1} A$ $(A A^{-1})^{T} = I^{T} = (A^{-1}A)^{T}$ $(A^{-1})^{T} A^{T} = I = A^{T} (A^{-1})^{T}$ $(A^{-1})^{T} A^{T} = I = A^{T} (A^{-1})^{T}$ $(A^{-1})^{T} A^{T} = I = A^{T} (A^{-1})^{T}$ $(A^{-1})^{T} A^{T} = I = A^{T} (A^{-1})^{T}$

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1-5 Elementary Row Operation

- An elementary row operation (sometimes called just a row operation) on a matrix A is any one of the following three types of operations:
 - Interchange of two rows of A
 - Replacement of a row \mathbf{r} of A by $c\mathbf{r}$ for some number c = 0
 - Replacement of a row $\mathbf{r}1$ of A by the sum $\mathbf{r}1 + c\mathbf{r}2$ of that

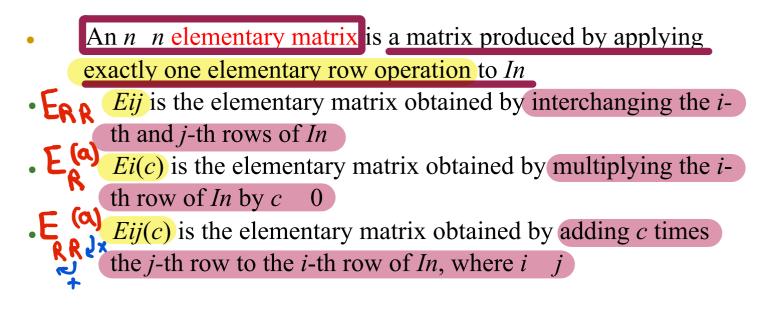
row and a multiple of another row r2 of A

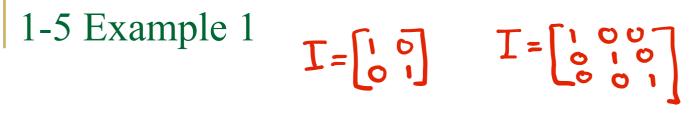
Whenever you want to do any elementary matrix

you should go back to the identity (I)

I=000

1-5 Elementary Matrix





• Elementary Matrices and Row Operations

Listed below are four elementary matrices and the operations that produce them.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Multiply the second and fourth rows of I_4 .
Add 3 times the third row of I_3 to the first row.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-5 Elementary Matrices and Row Operations

- Theorem 1.5.1
- Suppose that E is an $m \times m$ elementary matrix produced by applying a particular elementary row operation to Im, and that A is an $m \times n$ matrix. Then EA is the matrix that results from applying that same elementary row operation to A

1-5 Example 2 (Using Elementary Matrices)

Consider the matrix

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

and consider the elementary matrix

which results from adding 3 times the first row of I_3 to the third row. The product EA is

$$EA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is precisely the same matrix that results when we add 3 times the first row of A to the third row.

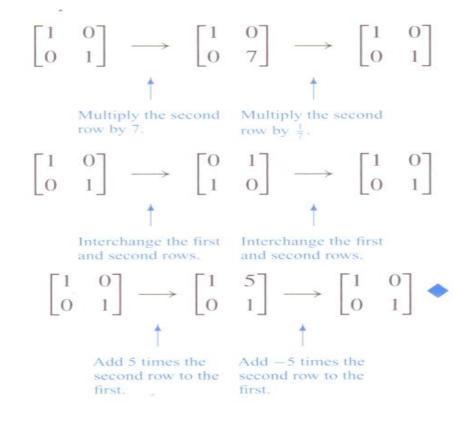
1-5 Inverse Operations

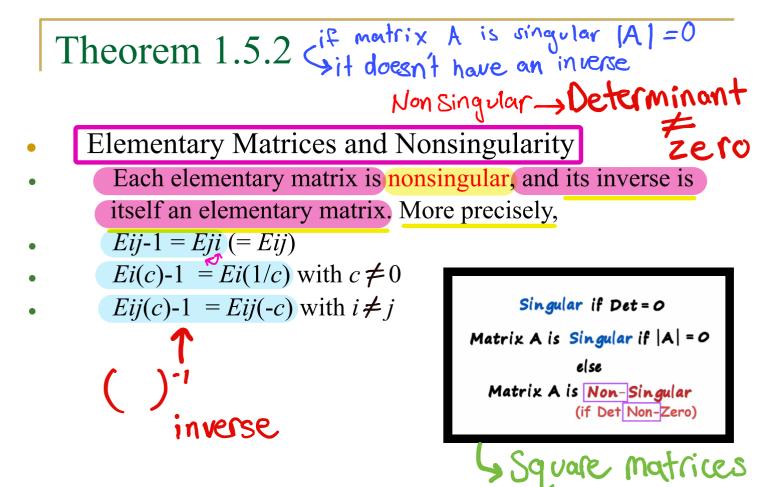
If an elementary row operation is applied to an identity matrix *I* to produce an elementary matrix *E*then there is a second row operation that, when applied to *E*, produces *I* back again (I) ↔ (E)

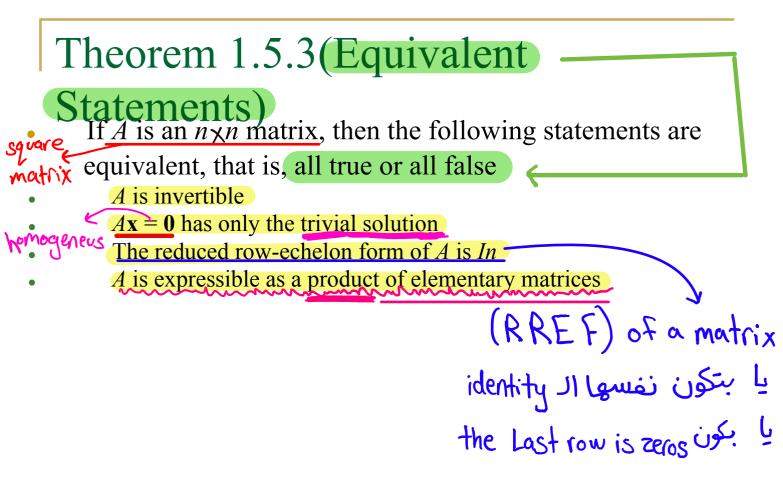
Row operation on I That produces E I→E	Row operation on E That produces I I ← E
Multiply row i by c≠0	Multiply row i by 1/c
Interchange row i and j	Interchange row i and j
Add c times row i to row j	Add -c times row i to row j

1-5 Inverse Operations

• Examples







1-5 A Method for Inverting Matrices

- To find the inverse of an invertible matrix A, we must find a sequence of elementary row operations that reduces A to the identity and then perform this same sequence of operations on In to obtain A-1
- Remark
 - Suppose we can find elementary matrices *E*1, *E*2, ..., *Ek* such that

$$Ek \dots E2 E1 (A) = (n)$$

then

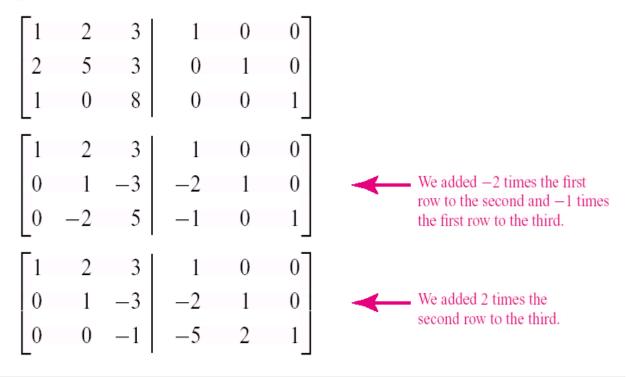
$$(A-1) = Ek \dots E2 E1(In)$$

1-5 Example 4 (Using Row Operations to Find A-1) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- Find the inverse of
- To find the inverse of (A) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$
 - Solution:
 - To accomplish this we shall adjoin the identity matrix to the right side of A, thereby producing a matrix of the form $[A \mid I]$ We shall apply row operations to this matrix until the left side is reduced to I; these operations will convert the right side to A-1, so that the final matrix will have the form [I | A-1]

1-5 Example 4

The computations are as follows:



1-5 Example 4 (continue)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & | & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & | & -14 & 6 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} We \text{ added } 3 \text{ times the third} \text{ row to the second and } -3 \text{ times the third row to the first.} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} We \text{ added } -2 \text{ times the second row to the first.} \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9\\ 13 & -5 & -3\\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Apply the procedure of example 4 to find A-1

1-5 Example 6

• According to example 4, A is an invertible matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_{1} + 2x_{2} + 3x_{3} = 0$$

$$2x_{1} + 5x_{2} + 3x_{3} = 0$$

$$x_{1} + + 8x_{3} = 0$$

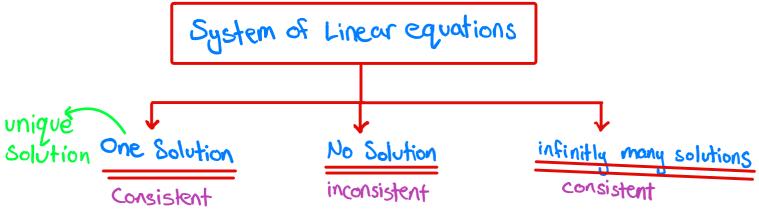
has only trivial solution $Ax = 0$
A is non-singular $[A] \neq Zerce$
(determinant)
have an inverse (A^{-1})

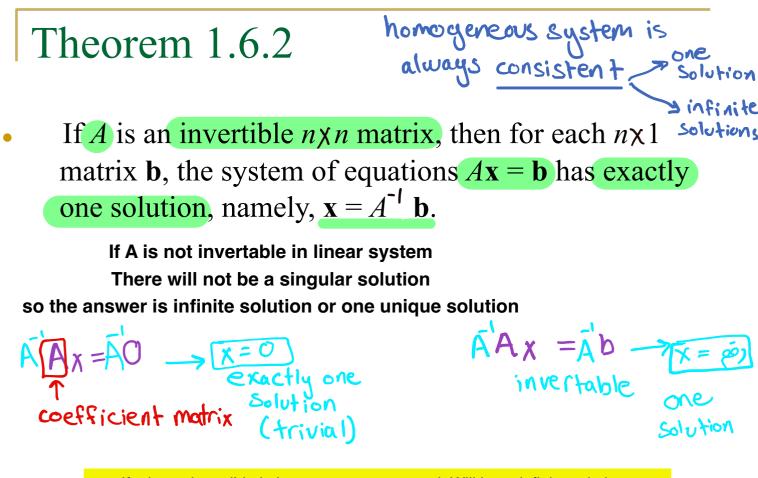
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Theorems 1.6.1

• Every system of linear equations has either no solutions, exactly one solution, or in finitely many solutions.





If a is not invertible in homogeneous system it Will have infinite solutions

Theorem 1.6.2

• If *A* is an invertible *n n* matrix, then for each *n* 1 matrix **b**, the system of equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has exactly one solution, namely, $\mathbf{x} = A-1\mathbf{b}$.

 $A x = b \longrightarrow x \text{ is any solution}$ $A^{-}_{A} X = A^{-1} b$ $T x = A^{-1} b$ $X = A^{-1} b$

1-6 Example 1

Consider the system of linear equations

if AB is invertable
uations
$$0$$
 it is square
 $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 5$
 $2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = 3$
 $x_1 - + 8x_3 = 17$

if

In matrix form this system can be written as $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

In Example 4 of the preceding section we showed that A is invertible and

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9\\ 13 & -5 & -3\\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

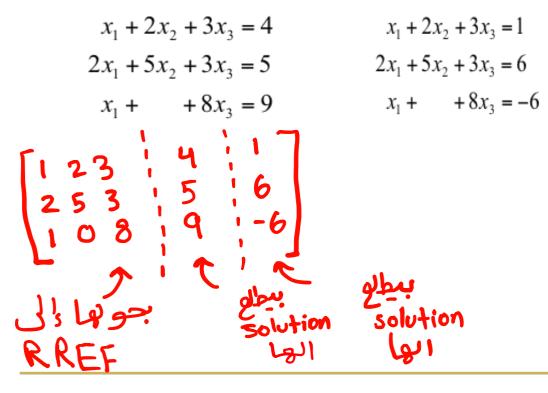
By Theorem 1.6.2 the solution of the system is $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{array}{c}1\\-1\\2\end{array}$ 3 or $x_1 = 1, x_2 = -1, x_3 = 2$.

1-6 Linear Systems with a Common Coefficient Matrix

- To solve a sequence of linear systems, $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\mathbf{1}$, $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\mathbf{1}$, ..., $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}k$, with common coefficient matrix A
- If A is invertible, then the solutions x1 = A-1b1, x2 = A-1b2, ..., xk = A-1bk $X = A^{-1}b_h$
- A more efficient method is to form the matrix [*A*|**b**1|**b**2|...|**b***k*]
- By reducing it to reduced row-echelon form we can solve all *k* systems at once by Gauss-Jordan elimination.

1-6 Example 2

• Solve the system



Theorems 1.6.3

• Let *A* be a square matrix

- If *B* is a square matrix satisfying BA = I, then B = A-1
- If *B* is a square matrix satisfying AB = I, then B = A-1

* مو شرط دائها اذا عنربت
* مو شرط دائها اذا عنربت
$$X = I$$

 $Z_{2x3} = 2x2$ * Z matrices
 $Z_{x2} = 2x2$ $X = 2$ matrices
 $Z_{x2} = 2x2$ $Z_{x2} = 2x2$
 $Z_{x2} = 2x2$ ناب المول يكونو
عمان يكونو
عمان يكونو inverse
 $Z_{x3} = 2x2$

Theorem 1.6.4 (Equivalent

Statements)

- If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the following statements are
- square equivalent $|A| \neq 0$
 - $\mathbf{M} \bullet \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{i} \times A \text{ is invertible}$
 - $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution
 - The reduced row-echelon form of *A* is *In*
 - *A* is expressible as a product of elementary matrices
 - $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent for every $n \times 1$ matrix \mathbf{b}
 - $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has exactly one solution for every $n \times 1$ matrix \mathbf{b}

Theorem 1.6.5

• Let *A* and *B* be square matrices of the same size. If *AB* is invertible, then *A* and *B* must also be invertible.

• Let A be a fixed $m \times n$ matrix. Find all $m \times 1$ matrices b such that the system of equations Ax=b is consistent.



1-6 Example 3

Find b1, b2, and b3 such that the system of equations is consistent. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0_2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 0_2 \end{bmatrix}$ $x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 = b_1$ $x_1 + x_3 = b_2$ $2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = b_3$ ألإضرة (b,,b2,b3) $b_2 = b$ depend the system i.e. if $b_3 \neq b_2 + b_1$ that means system فبصير homogeneous (consistent) (consistent) (consistent) is (not consistent)

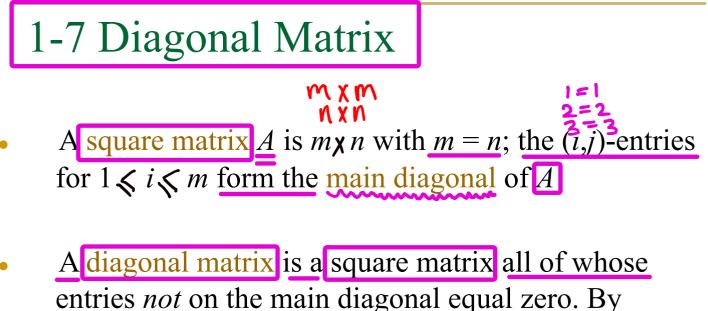
1-6 Example 4

• Find b1, b2, and b3 such that the system of equations is consistent.

 $\begin{array}{c} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = \mathbf{b}_1 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 + 3x_3 = \mathbf{b}_2 \end{array} \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{3} \\ \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{3} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{8} \end{bmatrix}$ $x_1 + + 8x_3 = b_3$ rif A is invertable the system will always be consistent $\begin{bmatrix}
1 2 3 & 1 0 0 \\
2 5 3 & 0 1 0 \\
1 0 8 & 0 0 1
\end{bmatrix}$ [A] I $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ [I|A']

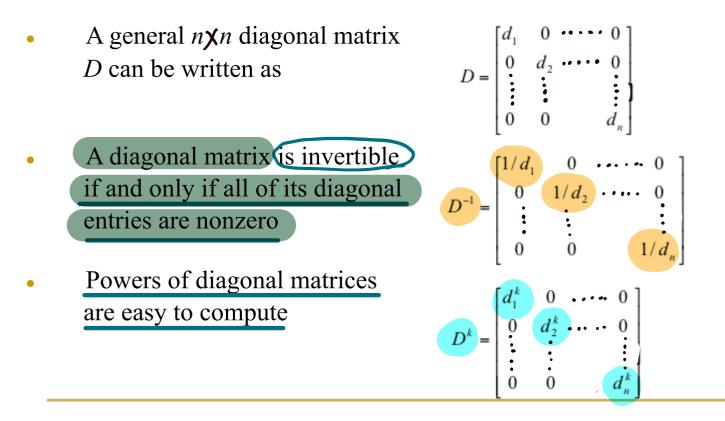
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- Further Results on Systems of Equations and Invertibility
- Diagonal, Triangular, and Symmetric Matrices



diag(d1, ..., dm) is meant the $m \nvDash m$ diagonal matrix whose (i,i)-entry equals di for $1 \leq i \leq m$

1-7 Properties of Diagonal Matrices



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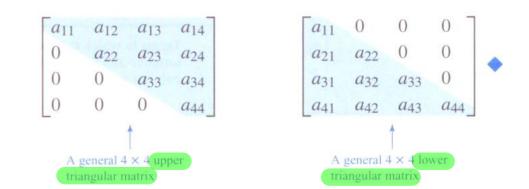
• Matrix products that involve diagonal factors are especially easy to compute

$$\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1a_{11} & d_1a_{12} & d_1a_{13} & d_1a_{14} \\ d_2a_{21} & d_2a_{22} & d_2a_{23} & d_2a_{24} \\ d_3a_{31} & d_3a_{32} & d_3a_{33} & d_3a_{34} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1a_{11} & d_2a_{12} & d_3a_{13} \\ d_1a_{21} & d_2a_{22} & d_3a_{23} \\ d_1a_{31} & d_2a_{32} & d_3a_{33} \\ d_1a_{41} & d_2a_{42} & d_3a_{43} \end{bmatrix}$$

1-7 Triangular Matrices

- A *m n* lower-triangular matrix L satisfies (L)ij = 0 if i < j, for 1 *i m* and 1 *j n*
- A *m n* upper-triangular matrix U satisfies (U)ij = 0if i > j, for 1 *i m* and 1 *j n*
- A unit-lower (or –upper)-triangular matrix *T* is a lower (or upper)-triangular matrix satisfying (T)ii = 1for 1 *i* min(*m*,*n*)

1-7 Example 2 (Triangular Matrices)



- The diagonal matrix
- both upper triangular and lower triangular
- A square matrix in row-echelon form is upper triangular

Theorem 1.7.1

- The transpose of a lower triangular matrix is upper triangular, and the transpose of an upper triangular matrix is lower triangular
- The product of lower triangular matrices is lower triangular, and the product of upper triangular matrices is upper triangular
- A triangular matrix is invertible if and only if its diagonal entries are all nonzero
- The inverse of an invertible lower triangular matrix is lower triangular, and the inverse of an invertible upper triangular matrix is upper triangular

1-7 Example 3

• Consider the upper triangular matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-7 Symmetric Matrices

- A (square) matrix A for which $A^{T} = A$, so that $A^{ij} = A^{ij}$ for all *i* and *j*, is said to be symmetric.
- Example 4 $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \times 2 & 3 \times 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Theorem 1.7.2 If (A) and (B) are symmetric matrices with the same size, and

- if k is any scalar, then
- AT is symmetric
- A + B and A B are symmetric
- kA is symmetric
- Remark

The product of two symmetric matrices is symmetric if and only if the matrices commute, i.e., AB = BA

Example 5

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 3 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

AT=A حطا في الطباعة

 $(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T} = BA$

 $(AB)^{T} = AB$ only if AB = BA

Theorem 1.7.3

• If A is an invertible symmetric matrix, then A^{-1} is symmetric. if A is symmetric \therefore (A = A⁻¹) $(A^{-1})^{T} = (A^{T})^{-1} = A^{-1}$

- Remark:
- In general, a symmetric matrix needs not be invertible. The products AA^{T} and $A^{T}A$ are always symmetric

 $(AA^{T})^{T} = A^{T}_{X}A^{T} = AA^{T}$: so its symmetric $(A^{T}A)^{T} = A^{T}A^{T}^{T} = A^{T}A$: so its symmetric

1-7 Example 6

Let A be the 2×3 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -2 & -11 \\ -2 & 4 & -8 \\ -11 & -8 & 41 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$AA^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 & -17 \\ -17 & 34 \end{bmatrix}$$

Observe that $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ are symmetric as expected.

Theorem 1.7.4

• If *A* is an invertible matrix, then *AA*⁺ and *A*⁺*A* are also invertible

Since A is invertable so A^{T} is invertable by the theorem $(A^{T})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{T}$ that AA^{T} and $A^{T}A$ are invertible since they are the Products of invertible matrix