2.1 - Operations with Matricies

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are matricies of size $m \times n_1$ then their sum is the $m \times n$ matrix given by $A + B = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$.

Example:

If *c* is a scalar, then the scalar multiple of *A* by *c* is the $m \times n$ matrix given by $cA = [ca_{ij}]$.

Example:

 $2 * \begin{array}{c} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} 2 & 6 \\ -2 & 8 \end{array}$

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is an $m \times n$ matrix, and $B = [b_{ij}]$ is a $n \times p$ matrix, then the product A * Bwill be a $m \times p$ matrix $A * B = [c_{ij}]$

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i3} b_{kj} = a_{i2} + b_{ij} + a_{i3} b_{ij} + \ldots + a_{ij} b_{nj}$$

Example 1:

Example 2:

2.2 - Properties of Matrix Operations

If *A*, *B*, *C* are $m \times n$ matricies and *c* and *d* are scalars, then the following properties are true:

1. A + B = B + A2. A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C3. (c * d) * A = c * (d * A)4. 1 * A = A 5. c * (A + B) = cA + cB6. (c + d)A = cA + dA

If the size of those matricies are such that the given matrix products are defined, then:

1. A(BC) * (AB)C2. A(B+C) = AB + AC3. (A+B)C = AC + BC4. c(AB) = (cA)B = A(cB)

Example: Non-commutativity of matrix multiplication $AB \neq BA$ all the time.

$$A = \begin{cases} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{cases}$$
$$B = \begin{cases} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{cases}$$
$$AB = \begin{cases} 2 & 5 \\ 4 & -4 \end{cases}$$
$$BA = \begin{cases} 0 & 7 \\ 4 & -2 \end{cases}$$

Identity matrix of order 3:

- 1 0 0
- 0 1 0
- 0 0 1

For repeated multiplication of square matricies, $A^{k} = A * A...A$ (*k* factors) define $A^{0} = I_{n}$, $A^{j}A^{k} = A^{j+k}$; $(A^{j})^{k} = A^{jk}$

The transpose of a matrix is formed by switching the rows and columns of a matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$ then $A^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$ where $b_{ij} = a_{ij}$ $1 \quad 2 \\ 3 \quad 4 \qquad = \begin{array}{c} 1 \quad 3 \\ 2 \quad 4 \end{array}$ $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$ then $A^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$ where $b_{ij} = a_{ij}$ $1 \quad (A^T)^T = A$

2.
$$(A + B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T}$$

3. $(cA)^{T} = cA^{T}$
4. $(AB)^{T} = A^{T}B^{T}$
4. Proof
Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$
 $AB = C$
 $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ij}b_{kj}$
 $(AB)^{T} = D$
 $d_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk}b_{ki}$
 $B^{T}A^{T} = E$
 $e_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ki}a_{jk}$
Therefore $D = E$
So $(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$

If $A = A^T$, then A is called a symmetric matrix. Example: I_n is symmetric Let us prove that $B = A * A^T$ is symmetric. Proof: $B^T = (A * A^T)^T = (A^T)^T A^T = A * A^T = B$ Therefore, AA^T is symmetric.

2.3 - The Inverse of a Matrix

Definition:

An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible (or nonsingular) if there exists an $m \times n$ matrix B such that $AB = BA = I_n$.

B is called the inverse of *A*. A matrix that does not have an inverse is called noninvertible (or singular).

Note: Nonsquare matricies do not have inverses.

Uniqueness of an inverse matrix: If A is an invertable (nonsingular) matrix, then the inverse is unique.

The inverse of matrix A is denoted by A^{-1} or Inv(A).

Proof: Suppose A has 2 inverses, B & C. $AB = BA = I_n$ $AC = CA = I_n$ $A = I_n$ Multiply by C from the left \Rightarrow $CAB = CI_n = C$ $I_nB = C$ So B = C

 $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$

Example:

$$A = \begin{cases} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{cases}$$
$$B = \begin{cases} -2 & 1 \\ \frac{3}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$
$$AB = BA = I_2$$

Finding the inverse of a matrix by Gauss-Jordan elimination

Let A be a square matrix of order n.

1. Write the $n \times 2n$ matrix that consists of the given matrix *A* on the left and the $n \times n$ identity matrix I_n on the right to obtain $[A|I_n]$

2. If possible, row reduce *A* to I_n using elementary row operations on the entire matrix $[A|I_n]$. The result will be the matrix $[I_n|A^{-1}]$. If this is not possible, then the matrix has no inverse and *A* is not invertable.

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1 -1 0
Example: A = 1 0 -1

-6 2 3
1 -1 0 1 0 0
1. 1 0 -1 0 1 0
-6 2 3 0 0 1
(2) = -1(1) + (2)

(3) = 6(1) + (3)
1 -1 0 1 0 0

0 1 -1 -1 1 0

(3) = 4(2) + (3)
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$$(3) = -(3)$$

$$1 -1 0 1 0 0$$

$$0 1 -1 -1 1 0$$

$$0 0 1 -2 -4 -1$$

$$(2) = (3) + (2)$$

$$1 -1 0 1 0 0$$

$$0 1 0 -3 -3 -1$$

$$0 0 1 -2 -4 -1$$

$$(1) = (2) + (1)$$

$$1 0 0 -2 -3 -1$$

$$0 0 1 -2 -4 -1$$

$$So A^{-1} is$$

$$-2 -3 -1$$

$$-3 -3 -1$$

$$-2 -4 -1$$

$$1 2 1 0$$

$$3 4 0 1$$

$$(2) = -3(1) + (2)$$

$$1 2 1 0$$

$$0 -2 -3 1$$

$$(1) = (2) + (1)$$

$$1 0 -2 1$$

$$0 -2 -3 1$$

$$(2) = -\frac{1}{2}(2)$$

$$1 0 -2 1$$

$$0 1 \frac{3}{2} -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{-2 1}{\frac{3}{2} -\frac{1}{2}}$$

Properties of the inverse:

If \vec{A} is an invertable matrix, and k is a positive integer, and c is a scalar, then:

1. $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ 2. $(A^{k})^{-1} = A^{-1} * A^{-1} \dots A^{-1}$ (k times) 3. $(cA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}A^{-1}$ for $c \neq 0$ 4. $(A^{T})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{T}$

Theorem: If *A* and *B* are invertable matrices of size *n*, then *AB* is invertable and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

Proof: $AB * B^{-1}A^{-1}$ $B * B^{-1} = I$ $AB * B^{-1}A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$ $B^{-1}A^{-1} * AB = B^{-1}IB = B^{-1}B = I$

Cancellation Properties: If *C* is an invertable matrix, then 1. If AC = BC then A = BProof: AC = BC implies $ACC^{-1} = BCC^{-1}$ 2. If CA = CB then A = B

Systems of equations with unique solutions:

If *A* is an invertable matrix, then the system of linear equations Ax = b has a unique solution given by $x = A^{-1}b$

Example:

x + 2y = 5 3x + 4y = -2 $1 \quad 2 \qquad x \qquad 5$ $3 \quad 4 \qquad y \qquad -2$ $x \qquad A^{-1} \quad 5$ $y \qquad -2$ Ax = bIf A is invertable, then x = Ab

2.4 - Elementary Matrices

Definition: An $n \times n$ matrix is called an *elementary matrix* if it can be obtained from I_n by a single elementary row operation

 1
 0
 0

 Example:
 0
 3
 0
 is an elementary matrix

 0
 0
 1

 1
 0
 1
 0
 -1

 2
 1
 0
 0
 2

Look at the following multiplication

LU (Lower/Upper) Factorization

Example:

Lower:	1 3	0 1	1 2 3	0 5 4	0 0 6	
Upper:	1 0	2 3	1	2	3	
			0	4	5	
			0	0	6	

If we can write A = LU where L is lower triangular and U is upper triangular, then LUx = b

Let Ux = ySo Ly = bWe solve for *y* easily using forward substitution. So we go back to Ux = y and solve easily using back substitution.

$$x + 2y = 3$$

$$x = 4$$

$$\frac{1}{1} \frac{2}{0} \times \frac{x}{y} = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{1} \frac{2}{0} (2) = -1(1) + 2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{0} \frac{2}{-2}$$

Shortcut:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } (ad-bc \neq 0)$$

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