### Chapter 4 - MATRIX ALGEBRA

## 4.1. Matrix Operations

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1j} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2j} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & \boxed{a_{ij}} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mj} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

• The entry in the *i*th row and the *j*th column of a matrix A is referred to as  $(A)_{ij}$ .

### EXAMPLE:

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• A zero matrix is a matrix, written 0, whose entries are all zero.

• A square matrix has the same number of rows than columns.

• In general  $(m \neq n)$ , matrices are **rectangular**.

• The (main) diagonal of a matrix, or its diagonal entries, are the entries

• A **diagonal matrix** has all its nondiagonal entries equal to zero.

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

• A matrix is **upper triangular** if all its elements under the diagonal are zero

 $\bullet$  A matrix is **lower triangular** if all its elements over the diagonal are zero

 $\bullet$  The set of all possible matrices of dimension  $(m\times n)$  whose entries are real numbers is refered to as  $\mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ 

• The set of all possible matrices of dimension  $(m\times n)$  whose entries are complex numbers is refered to as  $\mathbb{C}^{m\times n}$ 

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 7 & 1 \\ 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{K}^{3 \times 3}$
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# • OPERATIONS:

Only for matrices with the same dimensions:

• **Equality**. Two matrices are equal if and only if their corresponding entries are equal.

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

• Addition. A matrix whose entries are the sum of the corresponding entries of the matrices.

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

=

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 $A(B\mathbf{x}) =$ 

=

=

=

• Let A be an  $(m \times n)$  matrix and let B be an  $(n \times p)$ matrix with columns  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p$ . The **matrix product** of A by B is the  $(m \times p)$  matrix AB whose columns are  $A\mathbf{b}_1, A\mathbf{b}_2, \ldots, A\mathbf{b}_p$ .

That is,

$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix}$$

Warning: The dimensions of the matrices involved in a product must verify

=

B

C

A

• **Scalar Multiplication**. A matrix whose entries are the corresponding entries of the matrix multiplied by the scalar.

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

• PROPERTIES:

Let A, B and C be matrices of  $\mathbb{K}^{m \times n}$  and  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{K}$ :

 $\circ A + B = B + A \qquad \circ \lambda (A+B) = \lambda A + \lambda B$   $\circ A + (B+C) = (A+B) + C \qquad \circ (\lambda+\mu) A = \lambda A + \mu A$  $\circ A + 0 = A \qquad \circ \lambda (\mu A) = (\lambda \mu) A$ 

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 $\mathbb{K}^m$ 

#### **Matrix Multiplication**

 $\mathbb{K}^p$ 

One wonders:

Does C exist |  $C \mathbf{x} = A B \mathbf{x} \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{K}^p$ ?

 $\mathbb{K}^n$ 

**PROBLEM:** What dimensions would C have?

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If we write 
$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_p \end{bmatrix}$ , then:

 $B\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + x_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{b}_n$ 

# EXAMPLE:



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# **Row-Column Rule for computing** *AB*

Consider  $A \in \mathbb{K}^{m \times n}$ , and  $B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \dots \mathbf{b}_p] \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times p}$  such that  $(A)_{ik} = a_{ik}$ , and  $(B)_{kj} = b_{kj}$ .

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{b}_1 & \cdots & A\mathbf{b}_j & \cdots & A\mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\overbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} b_{1j} \\ b_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \star_1 \\ \vdots \\ \star_i \\ \vdots \\ \star_m \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow (AB)_{ij}$$

That is,



**PROBLEM:** Compute

EXAMPLE:



**PROBLEM:** Find the 2nd row of AB.

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 6 & -8 & -7 \\ -3 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ 7 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

### • PROPERTIES:

Let A be an  $(m\times n)$  matrix, and B and C matrices of appropriate dimensions:

 $\circ A(BC) = (AB)C$   $\circ A(B+C) = AB + AC$   $\circ (B+C)A = BA + CA$   $\circ \mu (AB) = (\mu A) B = A (\mu B) \quad \forall \mu \in \mathbb{K}$  $\circ \mathbb{I}_m A = A = A \mathbb{I}_n \quad \text{where } \mathbb{I}_k \text{ is the } (k \times k) \text{ identity matrix}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  4.3

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<b>WARNING:</b> In general, $AB = AC \neq A$	$\Rightarrow  B = C$
ROTATION $\pi/2$ PROJECTION in X	1st ROTATION + 2nd PROJECTION
$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$AB = \begin{bmatrix} & & \end{bmatrix}$
REFLECTION $x + y = 0$ PROJECTION in X	1st REFLECTION + 2nd PROJECTION
$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$AC = \begin{bmatrix} & & \end{bmatrix}$
REFLECTION $x + y = 0$ PROJECTION in X $C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	1st REFLECTION + 2nd PROJECTION $AC = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \end{bmatrix}$

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WARNING:	In general,	$A^{2} = 0$	$\Rightarrow$	A = 0	
$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1\\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\bigg], \qquad A = \bigg[$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\Rightarrow$	$A^2 = \left[ \right]$	]

• If two square matrices verify that AB = BA, we say that A and B commute with each other.

• The *k*th **power** of a matrix is defined:

$$A^k = \underbrace{A \, A \, A \cdots A}_{k \text{ times}}$$

This only makes sense if A is a \_\_\_\_\_ matrix and k is a nonnegative integer.

• The transpose of an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A is the  $(n \times m)$ 

 $(A^{T})_{ii} = (A)_{ii}$ 

• For convenience, we define  $A^0 = \mathbb{I}$ .

matrix  $A^T$  whose columns are the rows of A.

 $B = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad B^T =$ 

• A symmetric matrix verifies  $A^T = A$ .

• An antisymmetric matrix verifies  $A^T = -A$ .

**PROBLEM:** Provide examples of (anti)symmetric matrices.

#### **PROBLEM:** Compute

Transpose of a Matrix

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That is,

**EXAMPLE:** 

**EXAMPLE:** 

### • PROPERTIES:

Let A and B be matrices of appropriate dimensions and  $\mu \in \mathbb{K}$ :

$$\circ \ (A^T)^T = A \qquad \circ \ (A + B)^T = A^T + B^T \\ \circ \ (\mu A)^T = \mu \left( A^T \right) \qquad \circ \ (AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

**Proof:** Let be  $A \in \mathbb{K}^{m \times n}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times q}$ 

 $\left((AB)^T\right)_{ij} =$ 

**PROBLEM:** Prove that  $(ABC)^T = C^T B^T A^T$ .

 $\rightarrow$  4.7

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# Conjugate Transpose of a Matrix

• The conjugate transpose of an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A is the  $(n \times m)$  matrix  $A^*$ , or  $A^H$ , whose elements verify:

$$(A^*)_{ij} = \overline{(A)_{ji}}.$$

**EXAMPLE:** 

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2-i \\ i & 3 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad B^* =$$

$$A = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_n ] \quad \Rightarrow \quad A^* =$$

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# • PROPERTIES:

Let A and B be matrices of appropriate dimensions and  $\mu \in \mathbb{K}$ :

$$\circ \ (A^*)^* = A$$

 $\circ (A+B)^* = A^* + B^*$ 

$$\circ \ (\mu A)^* = \bar{\mu} (A^*)$$

$$\circ \ (AB)^* = B^* A^*$$

- $\circ A^* = A^T$  if and only if A is a real matrix.
- A Hermitian matrix verifies  $A^* = A$ .
- An antihermitian matrix verifies  $A^* = -A$ .

**PROBLEM:** Provide examples of (anti)Hermitian matrices.

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## 4.2. Inverse of a Matrix

 $\bullet$  A square  $(n\times n)$  matrix A is invertible, or nonsingular, if there exists a matrix B such that

 $AB = \mathbb{I}_n$ 

• A noninvertible or singular matrix has no inverse.

**EXAMPLE:** This matrix is invertible:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Because 
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 verifies  $AC = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ 



Thus,  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$ 

**EXAMPLE:** Matrix *B* has no inverse and is, therefore, a singular matrix:



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Theorem 4.1.	If $A$ is an invertible $(n \times n)$ matrix, th	en the
equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$	has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} \!=\! A^{-1}  \mathbf{b}, \; \; \forall  \mathbf{b}$	$\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{K}^n$ .

#### **Proof:**

 $\circ$  That  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1} \mathbf{b}$  is a solution  $\forall \, \mathbf{b}$  can be checked by a mere substitution:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \circ \mbox{ As it has a solution } \forall \mbox{ b } \Rightarrow & A \mbox{ must have a pivot in every row.} \\ A \mbox{ square } & & No \mbox{ free variables } \\ \Rightarrow & & \Rightarrow \end{array}$ 

Warning:

**Theorem 4.2.** Let A and B be  $(n \times n)$  matrices. Then:  $AB = \mathbb{I} \iff BA = \mathbb{I}$  **Proof:**  $(AB = \mathbb{I} \Rightarrow BA = \mathbb{I})$   $\circ$  Suppose that BA = X  $\circ$  Let's define  $M = \mathbb{I} - X = [\mathbf{m}_1 \ \mathbf{m}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{m}_n].$ As That is,  $\circ$  But now, Leading to

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**Theorem 4.3.** If A is an invertible matrix, then  $A^{-1}$  is invertible and  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A.$ 

**Proof:** 

**Theorem 4.4.** If exists, the inverse of a matrix is unique.

**Proof:** Let A be an invertible matrix, and B a matrix such that  $AB = \mathbb{I}$  (that is,  $B = A^{-1}$ ). Suppose there exists C such that  $AC = \mathbb{I}$  (in other words, suppose that A has another inverse).

**Theorem 4.5.** If A is invertible,  $A^T$  is also invertible and  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$ .

**Theorem 4.6.** If A is invertible,  $A^*$  is also invertible and  $(A^*)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^*$ .

Proof:

### EXAMPLE:

$\begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1+2i \\ -1 & -1-i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1-i & -1-2i \\ 1 & 1+i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & -1-2i \\ -1 & -1-i \end{bmatrix}$		]
then, $\begin{bmatrix} -1+i & 1\\ -1+2i & 1-i \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	]	
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Theorem 4.7.	If $A$ and $B$ a	re invertible $(n \times n)$ matrices,
then $AB$ is inve	ertible and	$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}.$

**Proof:** 

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the linear transformations:

 $A = \boxed{\texttt{ROTATE}} \qquad B = \boxed{\texttt{EXPAND}}$ 

Then,



(in this order!) and the inverse is

**PROBLEM:** If A, B and C are nonsingular matrices of equal size, show that  $(ABC)^{-1} = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}$ .

ightarrow 4.11

• An **elementary matrix** is one that is obtained by performing <u>one</u> elementary row operation on an identity matrix.

#### EXAMPLE:



Notice: These matrices have a clear geometrical interpretation. They correspond to

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**Theorem 4.8.** If an elementary row operation if performed on an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A, the resulting matrix can be written as EA, where E is the  $(m \times m)$  elementary matrix created by performing the same operation on  $\mathbb{I}_m$ .

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the 
$$(3 \times 2)$$
 matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\circ \ \mathbb{I} \sim E_1 \quad (r_3 \to 5 r_3)$$

$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\circ \ \mathbb{I} \sim E_2 \quad (r_2 \leftrightarrow r_3)$$

$$E_2 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\circ \ \mathbb{I} \sim E_3 \quad (r_2 \to r_2 - 4r_1)$$

$$E_3 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$



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**Theorem 4.9.** Every elementary matrix E is invertible and its inverse  $E^{-1}$  is the elementary matrix corresponding to the row operation that transforms E back into  $\mathbb{I}$ .

**EXAMPLE:** The matrix  $E_1$  multiplies the 3rd row by five:

$$E_1 = \left[ \begin{array}{rrr} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{array} \right]$$

Its inverse  $E_1^{-1}$  is the matrix that <u>divides</u> the 3rd row by five:

$$E_1^{-1} = \left[ \right]$$

*Check:*  $E_1 E_1^{-1} = \cdots = \mathbb{I}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  4.12 **PROBLEM:** Find the matrices  $E_2^{-1}$  and  $E_3^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 4.10.** An  $(n \times n)$  matrix A is invertible if and only if A is row equivalent to  $\mathbb{I}_n$ . In this case, any sequence of elementary row operations that transforms A into  $\mathbb{I}_n$  also transforms  $\mathbb{I}_n$  in  $A^{-1}$ .

#### **Proof:**

 $A \text{ invertible } \Leftrightarrow$ 

 $\Rightarrow$ 

Then,  $A^{-1} = E_p E_{p-1} \dots E_2 E_1$  and, in fact,

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## An Algorithm for finding $A^{-1}$

- Construct the matrix  $[A \ \mathbb{I}]$
- $\circ\,$  Find its reduced echelon form.
- $\circ$  If this matrix has the form  $[\,{\mathbb I}\,\,B\,]$  , then  $\ A^{-1}=B$  . Otherwise, A does not have an inverse.

### EXAMPLE:





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**PROBLEM:** If exists, find the inverse of the matrix



Check:  $C C^{-1} =$ 

Theorem 4.11. (The Square Matrix Theorem) If  $A \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$ , the following statements are equivalent: 1. A is an invertible matrix. 2. There exists  $C \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$  such that  $AC = \mathbb{I}_n$ . 3. There exists  $D \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$  such that  $DA = \mathbb{I}_n$ . 4. A is row equivalent to  $\mathbb{I}_n$ . 5. A has n pivots. 6. The equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution. 7. The columns/rows of A are linearly independent. 8. The equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a (unique) solution  $\forall \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{K}^n$ . 9. The columns/rows of A span  $\mathbb{K}^n$ . 10. The columns/rows of A form a basis of  $\mathbb{K}^n$ 11.  $A^T$  is invertible. 12.  $A^*$  is invertible. 13. The linear transformation  $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow A\mathbf{x}$  is bijective. 14. Col  $A = \operatorname{Row} A = \mathbb{K}^n$ 15. dim Col  $A = \dim \operatorname{Row} A = n$ 16. rank A = n17. Nul  $A = \{0\}$ 18. dim Nul A = 0

• A transformation  $T: \mathbb{K}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{K}^n$  is called **invertible** if there exists a transformation  $S: \mathbb{K}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{K}^n$  such that

$$\begin{cases} S(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x} \\ T(S(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x} \end{cases} \quad \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{K}^n.$$

The transformation S is called the **inverse** of T.

**Theorem 4.12.** Let  $T : \mathbb{K}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{K}^n$  be a linear transformation and A its canonical matrix. T is invertible if and only if A is nonsingular. In this case,  $S(\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ .

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# 4.3. Partitioned (or Block) Matrices



**EXAMPLE:** Social web of 6 persons in 3 groups



### **EXAMPLE:** Jefferson High School



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## **EXAMPLE:** Trade share matrix between countries



FIG. 3 (color online). The trade share matrix  $S_{ij} = M_{ij}/(\sum_{m=1}^{N} M_{im} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} M_{jn})$  after hierarchical clustering between countries in 2007. We can see clearly several modules:

### • PROPERTIES:

• Addition: Matrices of equal size and identical partition can be summed block by block:

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} & B_{13} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} & B_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & &$$

• Scalar Multiplication:

$$\lambda A = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### • Transpose of a matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{T} & A_{21}^{T} \\ A_{12}^{T} & A_{22}^{T} \\ A_{13}^{T} & A_{23}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{T} & A_{22}^{T} \\ A_{13}^{T} & A_{23}^{T} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### • Conjugate transpose of a matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^* = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^* & A_{21}^* \\ A_{12}^* & A_{22}^* \\ A_{13}^* & A_{23}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 8 \\ 1 & -5 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \implies A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 & -2 \\ \hline 8 & 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

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• **Multiplication of partitioned matrices:** Two matrices Aand B of respective dimensions  $(m \times n)$  and  $(n \times p)$  are conformable for block multiplication when the number of columns of each partition of A is equal to the number of rows of the corresponding partition of B.

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - 3 & 1 & | & 0 - 4 \\ 1 & 5 - 2 & 3 - 1 \\ \hline 0 - 4 - 2 & | & 7 - 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 \\ -3 & 7 \\ \hline -1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}A_{12} \\ A_{21}A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} \\ B_{21} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

(Attention:

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Concentrate on the dimensions of the blocks:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc} (3 \times 5) \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{cc} (5 \times 2) \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} (2 \times 3) & ( & & ) \\ ( & ) & ( & & ) \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{cc} ( & & ) \\ ( & & ) \end{array} \right] =$$

 $= \begin{bmatrix} (2 \times 3)(3 \times 2) + ( & )( & ) \\ ( & )( & ) + ( & )( & ) \end{bmatrix} =$ 

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (2 \times 2) + ( & ) \\ ( & ) + ( & ) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ( & ) \\ ( & ) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ( & ) \\ ( & ) \end{bmatrix}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Let A be a block upper triangular matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Assuming that A is invertible,  $A_{11}$  is  $(p \times p)$  and  $A_{22}$  is  $(q \times q)$ , find a formula for  $A^{-1}$ .

Call 
$$B = A^{-1}$$
. Partition B in such a way that we can write:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{I} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The dimensions of the matrices involved are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} (p \times p) ( \ ) \\ ( \ ) (q \times q) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} ( \ ) ( \ ) \\ ( \ ) ( \ ) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ( \ ) ( \ ) \\ ( \ ) ( \ ) \end{bmatrix}$$

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The equation can be written:

· ]	Γ	$\mathbb{I}$	0	]
	= [	0	$\mathbb{I}$	] .

Equating components, we obtain:

(a)	=	$\mathbb{I}$
(b)	=	0
(c)	=	0
(d)	=	$\mathbb{I}$

We have to solve 4 matrix equations, which represent a linear system of  $(p+q)^2$  equations with  $(p+q)^2$  unknowns.

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• (d)

• (a)

• (b)



**Theorem 4.13.** A block diagonal matrix is invertible if and only if each of the diagonal blocks is invertible.

**Proof:** The case of two blocks follows from the above result when  $A_{12} = 0$ .



**Theorem 4.14.** A diagonal matrix is invertible if and only if none of its diagonal elements is zero.



**PROBLEM:** Determine under what conditions the following matrix is invertible and, in that case, find its inverse:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I}_m & 0 \\ A & \mathbb{I}_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

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## 4.4. Determinants

• Given an  $(m \times n)$  matrix A, we define the **minor**  $A_{ij}$  as the  $((m-1) \times (n-1))$  matrix obtained by removing the *i*th row and the *j*th column of the matrix A.

**EXAMPLE:** [1]

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

• Let A be an  $(n \times n)$  matrix whose entry  $(A)_{ij} = a_{ij}$ . We define the **determinant** of A as

$$\det A = |A| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{j+1} a_{1j} \det A_{1j} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1j} C_{1j},$$

where  $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}$  is referred to as the *ij* cofactor of A.

**Theorem 4.15.** The determinant of a square matrix A can be expressed as the cofactor expansion along <u>any</u> row of the matrix

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{k+j} a_{kj} \det A_{kj} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{kj} C_{kj} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \text{along the} \\ k\text{th row} \end{pmatrix}$$



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EXAMPLE:



1st row:

=

#### 2nd row:

=

**Theorem 4.16.** If A is an  $(n \times n)$  triangular matrix, its determinant is the product of its diagonal entries.

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \star & a_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \star & \star & a_{33} & 0 & 0 \\ \star & \star & \star & a_{44} & 0 \\ \star & \star & \star & \star & a_{55} \end{bmatrix} =$$

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<b>Theorem 4.17.</b> Let A be an $(n \times n)$ matrix.
If we obtain a matrix $B$ ,
$\circ$ By adding to a row of $A$ the multiple of another row,
$\det B = \det A.$
$\circ$ By multiplying <u>one</u> row of A by $\lambda$ ,
$\det B = \lambda  \det A.$
$\circ$ By interchanging two rows of $A$ ,
$\det B = -\det A.$

#### EXAMPLE:

**Theorem 4.18.** Let A be a square matrix and U an echelon matrix obtained from A by adding multiples of rows and r row interchanges (but without multiplying any row by a scalar!). Then,

 $\det A = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } A \text{ is not invertible} \\ (-1)^r \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \text{product of} \\ \text{the pivots} \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } A \text{ is invertible} \end{cases}$ 

**Proof:** 

 $\rightarrow$  4.20



19. The determinant of A is nonzero.

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WARNING: In general,

 $A \sim B \quad \not\Rightarrow \quad \det A = \det B.$ 

Check theorem 4.17!

#### WARNING: In general,

 $\det(A+B) \neq \det A + \det B.$ 

EXAMPLE: If it was true,	all	determinants	would	be	zero:
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$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \det \left( \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

**Theorem 4.19.** If A and B are square matrices, det(AB) = det A det B.

Theorem 4.20. If A is a square matrix,  $|A^T| = |A| \quad \text{and} \quad |A^*| = \overline{|A|}$ 

#### Proof:

• For elementary matrices, it's easy to see that  $|E| = |E^T|$ .

 $\circ$  If we obtain an echelon form of a matrix A:

#### Leading to

• Now, as U is a triangular matrix,  $|U^T| = |U|$  and, consequently

ightarrow 4.23

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