

MATH 304
Linear Algebra

Lecture 8:
Elementary matrices.
Transpose of a matrix.
Determinants.

General results on inverse matrices

Theorem 1 Given an $n \times n$ matrix A , the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) A is invertible;
- (ii) $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is the only solution of the matrix equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$;
- (iii) the matrix equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution for any n -dimensional column vector \mathbf{b} ;
- (iv) the row echelon form of A has no zero rows;
- (v) the reduced row echelon form of A is the identity matrix.

Theorem 2 Suppose that a sequence of elementary row operations converts a matrix A into the identity matrix.

Then the same sequence of operations converts the identity matrix into the inverse matrix A^{-1} .

Row echelon form of a square matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \square & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ & \square & * & * & * & * & * \\ & & \square & * & * & * & * \\ & & & \square & * & * & * \\ & & & & \square & * & * \\ & & & & & \square & * \\ & & & & & & \square \end{pmatrix}$$

invertible case

$$\begin{pmatrix} \square & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ & \square & * & * & * & * & * \\ & & \square & * & * & * & * \\ & & & \square & * & * & * \\ & & & & \square & * & * \\ & & & & & \square & * \\ & & & & & & \square \end{pmatrix}$$

noninvertible case

A convenient way to compute the inverse matrix A^{-1} is to merge the matrices A and I into one matrix $(A | I)$, and apply elementary row operations to this new matrix.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(A | I) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & -2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0.6 & 0 & 0.4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0.4 & 0 & 0.6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -0.6 & 1 & -0.4 \end{array} \right) = (I | A^{-1})$$

Why does it work?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ 2b_1 & 2b_2 & 2b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1+3a_1 & b_2+3a_2 & b_3+3a_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proposition Any elementary row operation can be simulated as left multiplication by a certain matrix.

Elementary matrices

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & \\ & & & r & & & \\ & & & & 1 & & \\ & 0 & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ row } \#i$$

To obtain the matrix EA from A , multiply the i th row by r . To obtain the matrix AE from A , multiply the i th column by r .

Elementary matrices

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & & & \\ \vdots & \ddots & & & & & & \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & & & & & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & & & & \\ 0 & \cdots & r & \cdots & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & & \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 1 & \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \text{row \#}i \\ \\ \text{row \#}j \end{array}$$

To obtain the matrix EA from A , add r times the i th row to the j th row. To obtain the matrix AE from A , add r times the j th column to the i th column.

Why does it work? (continued)

Assume that a square matrix A can be converted to the identity matrix by a sequence of elementary row operations. Then $E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1 A = I$, where E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k are elementary matrices simulating those operations.

Applying the same sequence of operations to the identity matrix, we obtain the matrix

$$B = E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1 I = E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1.$$

Thus $BA = I$. Besides, B is invertible since elementary matrices are invertible (why?). It follows that $B^{-1}(BA) = B^{-1}I$, then $A = B^{-1}$, so that $B = A^{-1}$.

Transpose of a matrix

Definition. Given a matrix A , the **transpose** of A , denoted A^T , is the matrix whose rows are columns of A (and whose columns are rows of A). That is, if $A = (a_{ij})$ then $A^T = (b_{ij})$, where $b_{ij} = a_{ji}$.

Examples.
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}^T = (7, 8, 9), \quad \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Properties of transposes:

- $(A^T)^T = A$
- $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- $(rA)^T = rA^T$
- $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
- $(A_1 A_2 \dots A_k)^T = A_k^T \dots A_2^T A_1^T$
- $(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$

Definition. A square matrix A is said to be **symmetric** if $A^T = A$.

For example, any diagonal matrix is symmetric.

Proposition For any square matrix A the matrices $B = AA^T$ and $C = A + A^T$ are symmetric.

Proof:

$$B^T = (AA^T)^T = (A^T)^T A^T = AA^T = B,$$

$$C^T = (A + A^T)^T = A^T + (A^T)^T = A^T + A = C.$$

Determinants

Determinant is a scalar assigned to each square matrix.

Notation. The determinant of a matrix

$A = (a_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ is denoted $\det A$ or

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Principal property: $\det A \neq 0$ if and only if a system of linear equations with the coefficient matrix A has a unique solution. Equivalently, $\det A \neq 0$ if and only if the matrix A is invertible.

Definition in low dimensions

Definition. $\det(a) = a$, $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - \\ - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32}.$$

$$+ : \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{*} & * & * \\ * & \boxed{*} & * \\ * & * & \boxed{*} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} * & \boxed{*} & * \\ * & * & \boxed{*} \\ \boxed{*} & * & * \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} * & * & \boxed{*} \\ \boxed{*} & * & * \\ * & \boxed{*} & * \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$- : \begin{pmatrix} * & * & \boxed{*} \\ * & \boxed{*} & * \\ \boxed{*} & * & * \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} * & \boxed{*} & * \\ \boxed{*} & * & * \\ * & * & \boxed{*} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{*} & * & * \\ * & * & \boxed{*} \\ * & \boxed{*} & * \end{pmatrix}.$$

Examples: 2×2 matrices

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = -12,$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -2 & 5 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -6, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 14,$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 1, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 8 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Examples: 3×3 matrices

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 + (-2) \cdot 1 \cdot (-2) + 0 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 - \\ - 0 \cdot 0 \cdot (-2) - (-2) \cdot 1 \cdot 0 - 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 = 4 - 9 = -5,$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 + 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 0 + 6 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 - \\ - 6 \cdot 2 \cdot 0 - 4 \cdot 0 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 5 \cdot 0 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 6.$$