MATH 304 Linear Algebra

Lecture 6: Diagonal matrices. Inverse matrix.

Matrices

Definition. An **m-by-n matrix** is a rectangular array of numbers that has *m* rows and *n* columns:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Notation: $A = (a_{ij})_{1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m}$ or simply $A = (a_{ij})$ if the dimensions are known.

Matrix algebra: linear operations

Addition: two matrices of the same dimensions can be added by adding their corresponding entries.

Scalar multiplication: to multiply a matrix A by a scalar r, one multiplies each entry of A by r.

Zero matrix O: all entries are zeros.

Negative: -A is defined as (-1)A.

Subtraction: A - B is defined as A + (-B).

As far as the linear operations are concerned, the $m \times n$ matrices can be regarded as *mn*-dimensional vectors.

Matrix algebra: matrix multiplication

The product of matrices A and B is defined if the number of columns in A matches the number of rows in B.

Definition. Let $A = (a_{ik})$ be an $m \times n$ matrix and $B = (b_{kj})$ be an $n \times p$ matrix. The **product** AB is defined to be the $m \times p$ matrix $C = (c_{ij})$ such that $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$ for all indices i, j.

That is, matrices are multiplied row by column.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \hline a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \hline \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \hline a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_m \end{pmatrix}$$
$$B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{np} \end{pmatrix} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_p)$$
$$\implies AB = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{w}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{w}_p \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{w}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{w}_p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_m \cdot \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{v}_m \cdot \mathbf{w}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_m \cdot \mathbf{w}_p \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonal matrices

If $A = (a_{ij})$ is a square matrix, then the entries a_{ii} are called **diagonal entries**. A square matrix is called **diagonal** if all non-diagonal entries are zeros.

Example.
$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
, denoted diag $(7, 1, 2)$.

Let
$$A = \text{diag}(s_1, s_2, ..., s_n)$$
, $B = \text{diag}(t_1, t_2, ..., t_n)$.
Then $A + B = \text{diag}(s_1 + t_1, s_2 + t_2, ..., s_n + t_n)$,
 $rA = \text{diag}(rs_1, rs_2, ..., rs_n)$.

Example.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem Let $A = \operatorname{diag}(s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$, $B = \operatorname{diag}(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$.

Then
$$A + B = \text{diag}(s_1 + t_1, s_2 + t_2, \dots, s_n + t_n),$$

 $rA = \text{diag}(rs_1, rs_2, \dots, rs_n).$
 $AB = \text{diag}(s_1t_1, s_2t_2, \dots, s_nt_n).$

In particular, diagonal matrices always commute (i.e., AB = BA).

Example.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7a_{11} & 7a_{12} & 7a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 2a_{31} & 2a_{32} & 2a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem Let $D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_m)$ and A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the matrix DA is obtained from A by multiplying the *i*th row by d_i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_m \end{pmatrix} \implies DA = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \\ d_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \vdots \\ d_m \mathbf{v}_m \end{pmatrix}$$

Example.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7a_{11} & a_{12} & 2a_{13} \\ 7a_{21} & a_{22} & 2a_{23} \\ 7a_{31} & a_{32} & 2a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem Let $D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n)$ and A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the matrix AD is obtained from A by multiplying the *i*th column by d_i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$:

$$A = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n)$$

$$\implies AD = (d_1 \mathbf{w}_1, d_2 \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, d_n \mathbf{w}_n)$$

Identity matrix

Definition. The **identity matrix** (or **unit matrix**) is a diagonal matrix with all diagonal entries equal to 1. The $n \times n$ identity matrix is denoted I_n or simply I.

$$I_1 = (1), \quad I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In general, $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

Theorem. Let A be an arbitrary $m \times n$ matrix. Then $I_m A = A I_n = A$.

Inverse matrix

Let $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ denote the set of all $n \times n$ matrices with real entries. We can **add**, **subtract**, and **multiply** elements of $\mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$. What about **division**?

Definition. Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$. Suppose there exists an $n \times n$ matrix B such that

$$AB = BA = I_n.$$

Then the matrix A is called **invertible** and B is called the **inverse** of A (denoted A^{-1}).

A non-invertible square matrix is called **singular**.

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

Examples

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

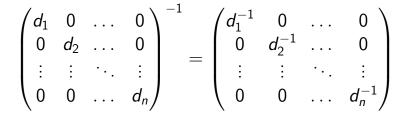
$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$C^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
Thus $A^{-1} = B, \quad B^{-1} = A, \text{ and } C^{-1} = C.$

Inverting diagonal matrices

Theorem A diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_n)$ is invertible if and only if all diagonal entries are nonzero: $d_i \neq 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. If D is invertible then $D^{-1} = \text{diag}(d_1^{-1}, \ldots, d_n^{-1})$.



Inverting diagonal matrices

Theorem A diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_n)$ is invertible if and only if all diagonal entries are nonzero: $d_i \neq 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

If D is invertible then $D^{-1} = \operatorname{diag}(d_1^{-1}, \ldots, d_n^{-1}).$

Proof: If all $d_i \neq 0$ then, clearly, $\operatorname{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \operatorname{diag}(d_1^{-1}, \ldots, d_n^{-1}) = \operatorname{diag}(1, \ldots, 1) = I$, $\operatorname{diag}(d_1^{-1}, \ldots, d_n^{-1}) \operatorname{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_n) = \operatorname{diag}(1, \ldots, 1) = I$. Now suppose that $d_i = 0$ for some *i*. Then for any $n \times n$ matrix *B* the *i*th row of the matrix *DB* is a

zero row. Hence $DB \neq I$.

Inverting 2×2 matrices

Definition. The **determinant** of a 2×2 matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is det A = ad - bc.

Theorem A matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible if and only if det $A \neq 0$.

If det $A \neq 0$ then $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$

Problem. Solve a system
$$\begin{cases} 4x + 3y = 5, \\ 3x + 2y = -1. \end{cases}$$

This system is equivalent to a matrix equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

We have det $A = -1 \neq 0$. Hence A is invertible.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \implies A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} \implies (A^{-1}A)\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$
$$\implies \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}.$$

Conversely, $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} \implies A\mathbf{x} = A(A^{-1}\mathbf{b}) = (AA^{-1})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ 19 \end{pmatrix}$$

System of *n* linear equations in *n* variables:

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \dots \dots \dots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n \end{cases} \iff A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem If the matrix A is invertible then the system has a unique solution, which is $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.