

# Linear algebra

## Basic Concepts

Development of engineering → use of computer + linear algebra

**Matrix:** rectangular array of numbers (**entries**) or functions (**elements**) enclosed in brackets

### Ex. 1 Coefficient Matrix

$$\begin{aligned} 5x - 2y + z &= 0 \\ 3x + 47z &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 47 \end{pmatrix}$$

**General notation:**  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}] = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{j1} & \cdots & a_{jk} \end{pmatrix}$

**Equality of matrices:**  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \Rightarrow a_{jk} = b_{jk}$

**Main diagonal:**  $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \dots, a_{nn}$

**Vectors:** row vector  $\mathbf{a} = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \cdots \ a_n]$  column vector  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$

**Transposition:**  $\mathbf{a}^T \rightarrow$  column vector,  $\mathbf{b}^T \rightarrow$  row vector

If  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$  then  $\mathbf{A}^T = [a_{kj}]$  and a  $m \times n$  matrix transposes into a  $n \times m$  one

## Different matrices

**Rectangular matrices:**  $m \times n$

**Square matrices:**  $n \times n$

**Symmetric matrix:**  $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$  (obviously  $n \times n$  matrix)

**Skew-symmetric matrix:**  $\mathbf{A}^T = -\mathbf{A} = [-a_{jk}]$

**Null matrix:**  $\mathbf{0} = [0_{jk}]$

**Identity matrix:**  $\mathbf{1} = [d_{jk}]$  where  $\delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = k \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}$  is **Kronecker delta**

## Operations

**Addition:**  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C} = [a_{jk} + b_{jk}]$  and  $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{B}^T$

**Scalar multiplication:**  $c\mathbf{A} = [ca_{jk}]$  and  $(c\mathbf{A})^T = c\mathbf{A}^T$

**General rules:**

Addition of matrices	Scalar multiplication
a) $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$	e) $c(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = c\mathbf{A} + c\mathbf{B}$
b) $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$	f) $(c + k)\mathbf{A} = c\mathbf{A} + k\mathbf{A}$
c) $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{A}$	g) $c(k\mathbf{A}) = (ck)\mathbf{A}$
d) $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$	h) $1\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}1 = \mathbf{A}$

## Matrix multiplication

Matrix multiplication  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ , where  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$  is  $m \times n$  matrix and  $\mathbf{B} = [b_{jk}]$  is a  $n \times p$  matrix, is defined if and only if  $n = r \Rightarrow \mathbf{C}$  is a  $m \times p$  matrix where:

$$c_{jk} = \sum_{l=1}^n a_{jl} b_{lk} \quad \begin{cases} j = 1, \dots, m \\ k = 1, \dots, p \end{cases}$$

Multiplication of rows of  $A$  by columns of  $B$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \boxed{a_{j1}} & \boxed{a_{j2}} & \cdots & \boxed{a_{jn}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & \boxed{b_{1k}} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & \boxed{b_{2k}} & \cdots & b_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & \boxed{b_{nk}} & \cdots & b_{np} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \cdots & c_{1k} & \cdots & c_{1p} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \cdots & c_{2k} & \cdots & c_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ c_{j1} & c_{j2} & \cdots & \boxed{c_{jk}} & \cdots & c_{jp} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & \cdots & c_{mk} & \cdots & c_{mp} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{C}$$

$$\text{Ex. } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{AB} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 3 & 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 4 \\ 1 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 3 & 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Transpose of product:**  $(\mathbf{AB})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$

## Consequences of the definition

a)  $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$

Order of multiplication is important:

**B Premultiplied** (multiplied from left) by **A**

**A Postmultiplied** (multiplied from right) by **B**

In the example above:  $\mathbf{BA} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 1 & 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 1 \\ 3 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 & 3 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 7 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$

b)  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{0} \not\Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{0}$

c)  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{AD} \not\Rightarrow \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{D}$

d)  $(k\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B} = k(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{A}(k\mathbf{B})$

e)  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C}$

f)  $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AC} + \mathbf{BC}$

g)  $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{CA} + \mathbf{CB} \neq (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C}$

### Special matrices

Upper triangular matrices: Ex.  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$  or  $\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$

Lower triangular matrices: Ex.  $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$  or  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 9 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 9 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

Transpose of Upper triangular = Lower triangular matrix:  $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{B}^T = \mathbf{A}$

**Diagonal matrices:** Ex.  $\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

**Scalar matrix:** Ex.  $\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{S}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{S} = c\mathbf{A}$

**Unit matrix:** Ex.  $\mathbf{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{A}$

**Inner product of vectors = dot product**

If  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are a row and column matrices then  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = [a_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n] \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{l=1}^n a_l b_l$

Multiplication of matrices: every entry of  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$  is an inner product  $c_{jk} = a_j \cdot b_k$

## Gauss elimination

Most important uses of matrices = solving linear systems of equations

Consider a system of  $m$  equations with  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

$$\begin{aligned}a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\a_{21}x_1 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\&\vdots \\a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m\end{aligned}$$

**Coefficients:**  $a_{jk}$  this is a matrix

**Solution is a vector:**  $\mathbf{x}$  components = solutions

**Trivial solution:**  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

**Matrix form:**  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

**Homogeneous:**  $b_k = 0$

**Augmented matrix:**  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = [a_{jk} \quad b_k]$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## Th. 1 Row-equivalent systems

Row-equivalent linear systems have same sets of solutions

Elementary row operations → produce **row-equivalent systems**

- a) Interchanges of 2 rows
- b) Addition of constant multiple of one row with another
- c) Multiplication of row by non zero constant

3 possible linear systems: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

1. **Overdetermined:** more equations than unknowns  $m > n$
2. **Determined:**  $m = n$
3. **Underdetermined:** less equations than unknowns  $m < n$

**Consistent system** → exist at least one solution

**Inconsistent system** → no solution

### Ex. 1 - overdetermined system

$$\begin{array}{rclcrcl} x_1 & -x_2 & +x_3 & = & 0 \\ -x_1 & +x_2 & -x_3 & = & 0 \\ & 10x_2 & +25x_3 & = & 90 \\ 20x_1 & +10x_2 & & = & 80 \end{array}$$

**Matrix form:**

$$\text{pivot } 1 = 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 25 & 90 \\ 20 & 10 & 0 & 80 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{row } 2 + \text{row } 1 \\ \text{row } 4 - 20\text{row } 1 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 25 & 90 \\ 0 & 30 & -20 & 80 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{pivot } 2 = 10 \\ \Rightarrow \text{row } 2 \xleftrightarrow{\leftarrow} \text{row } 3 \\ \text{row } 3 \xleftrightarrow{\leftarrow} \text{row } 4 \\ -3\text{row } 2 + \text{row } 3 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 25 & 90 \\ 0 & 30 & -20 & 80 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{pivot } 2 = 10 \\ \text{row } 3 - 3\text{row } 2 \\ \text{pivot } 3 = -95 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 25 & 90 \\ 0 & 0 & -95 & -190 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Back substitutions yield:

$$x_3 = \frac{-190}{-95} = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 10x_2 + 25x_3 = 90 \Rightarrow x_2 = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 - x_2 + x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 2$$

### Ex. 2 underdetermined system

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3.0 & 2.0 & 2.0 & -5.0 & 8.0 \\ 0.6 & 1.5 & 1.5 & -5.4 & 2.7 \\ 1.2 & -0.3 & -0.3 & 2.4 & 2.1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3.0 & 2.0 & 2.0 & -5.0 & 8.0 \\ 0 & 1.1 & 1.1 & -4.4 & 1.1 \\ 0 & -1.1 & -1.1 & 4.4 & -1.1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \text{pivot1} = 3.0 \\ -0.2\text{row1} + \text{row2} \\ -0.4\text{row1} + \text{row3} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3.0 & 2.0 & 2.0 & -5.0 & 8.0 \\ 0 & 1.1 & 1.1 & -4.4 & 1.1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \text{pivot2} = 1.1 \\ \text{row2} + \text{row3} \end{array}$$

Undetermined  $\rightarrow$  infinity of solutions

### Echelon form

$$\begin{array}{rcccccl} a_{11}x_1 & +a_{12}x_2 & +\cdots & +a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1 \\ & c_{22}x_2 & +\cdots & +c_{2n}x_n & = & b_2 \\ & & & & & \vdots \\ & +k_{rr}x_r & +\cdots & +k_{rn}x_n & = & \tilde{b}_r \\ & & & & & 0 = \tilde{b}_{r+1} \\ & & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & & 0 = \tilde{b}_m \end{array}$$

**No solution**  $\Rightarrow r < m$  and one of number  $\tilde{b}_{r+1}, \dots, \tilde{b}_m \neq 0$

**Precisely one solution**  $\Rightarrow r = n$  and  $\tilde{b}_{r+1}, \dots, \tilde{b}_m = 0$  if present

**Infinitely many solutions**  $\Rightarrow r < n$  and  $\tilde{b}_{r+1}, \dots, \tilde{b}_m = 0$  if present

## Rank of Matrix, linear independence and vector space

**Linear combination:** given any set  $m$  of vector  $\mathbf{a}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{(m)}$  with the same number of components a linear combination is of the form  $c_1\mathbf{a}_{(1)} + \dots + c_m\mathbf{a}_{(m)}$

Considering equation:  $c_1\mathbf{a}_{(1)} + \dots + c_m\mathbf{a}_{(m)} = \mathbf{0}$

The vectors are linearly independent if the coefficients  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_m = 0$

$$\mathbf{a}_{(1)} = [3 \quad 0 \quad 2 \quad 2]$$

Ex. 1  $\mathbf{a}_{(2)} = [-6 \quad 42 \quad 24 \quad 54]$

$$\mathbf{a}_{(3)} = [21 \quad -21 \quad 0 \quad -15]$$

Linearly dependent because:  $6\mathbf{a}_{(1)} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}_{(2)} - \mathbf{a}_{(3)} = \mathbf{0}$

However,  $c_1\mathbf{a}_{(1)} + c_2\mathbf{a}_{(2)} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow c_1 = c_2 = 0$

**Rank of matrix**  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$  = maximum number of linearly independent row vectors forming the matrix  $\rightarrow$  Rank  $\mathbf{A} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$

### Th. 1 Rank in terms of column vectors

Rank of  $\mathbf{A}$  equals the maximum number of linearly independent column vectors forming  $\mathbf{A}$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^T$  have the same rank

**Vector space**: non empty set  $\mathbf{V}$  of vectors such that with any vectors  $\mathbf{a}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{(m)}$  in  $\mathbf{V}$  all their linear combinations  $c_1\mathbf{a}_{(1)} + \dots + c_m\mathbf{a}_{(m)}$  are elements of  $\mathbf{V}$  and satisfy laws of Matrix

**Dimension** of  $\mathbf{V}$  : number of linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbf{V}$

**Basis**: linearly independent set of vectors in  $\mathbf{V}$  consisting of maximum possible of number of vectors  $\Rightarrow$  number of vectors of a basis for  $\mathbf{V}$  equals dimension of  $\mathbf{V}$

**Span** of  $\mathbf{V}$  : set of all linear combinations of given vectors  $\mathbf{a}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{(p)}$  with same number of components  $\Rightarrow$  span = vector space

**Subspace**: non empty subset of  $\mathbf{V}$  that itself form a vector space

**Ex. 2** The span of the 3 vectors in example 1 is a vector space of dimension 2, and a basis is  $\mathbf{a}_{(1)}, \mathbf{a}_{(2)}$ , for instance, or  $\mathbf{a}_{(1)}, \mathbf{a}_{(3)}$  etc.

**Row space** of  $\mathbf{A}$  : span of row vectors

**Column space** of  $\mathbf{A}$  : span of column vectors

### Th. 2 row space and column space

Row space and column space of  $\mathbf{A}$  have same dimension = rank of  $\mathbf{A}$

### Th. 3 row-equivalent matrices

Row-equivalent matrices have the same rank

To determine rank of  $\mathbf{A}$  reduce  $\mathbf{A}$  to echelon form

### Ex. 3

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ -6 & 42 & 24 & 54 \\ 21 & -21 & 0 & -15 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{row2} + 2\text{row1} \\ \text{row3} - 7\text{row1} \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 42 & 28 & 58 \\ 0 & -21 & -14 & -29 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 42 & 28 & 58 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \\ \\ \text{row3} + \frac{1}{2}\text{row2} \end{matrix}$$

Rank of  $\mathbf{A}$  is 2

**Th. 4 linear dependence and independence**

$p$  vectors  $\mathbf{x}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{(p)}$  (with  $n$  components each) are linearly independent if the matrix with row vectors  $\mathbf{x}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{(p)}$  has rank  $p$ ; they are linearly dependent if that rank is less than  $p$

**Th. 5**

$p$  vectors with  $n < p$  components are always linearly dependent

For instance, 3 or more vectors in a plane are always linearly dependent. Similarly, four or more vectors in space are linearly dependent

**Th. 6**

The vector space  $R^n$  consisting of all vectors with  $n$  components has dimension  $n$

## Solutions of linear systems: existence, uniqueness, general form

**Submatrix** of  $\mathbf{A}$ : matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{A}$  by omitting some rows or columns (or both) – this includes  $\mathbf{A}$  itself

### Th. 1 Fundamental theorem for linear systems

- Existence**: a linear system of  $m$  equations with  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  has a solution if and only if the coefficient matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and augmented matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$  have the same rank
- Uniqueness**: the system has precisely one solution if and only if this common rank  $k = n$
- Infinitely many solutions**: if rank  $r < n \Rightarrow$  infinitely many solutions
- Gauss elimination**: if solution exists it can be obtained by Gauss elimination  $\Rightarrow$  such elimination can reveal the rank

### Th. 2 homogenous linear systems

- An homogenous linear system has one trivial solution  $x_1 = 0, \dots, x_n = 0$
- Non trivial solutions exist if and only if rank  $\mathbf{A} < n$
- If rank  $\mathbf{A} = r < n$  these solutions plus the trivial one form a vector space of dimension  $n - r \Rightarrow$  **solution space**
- In particular any linear combination of solution vectors is also a solution

Solution space of  $\mathbf{A}$  also called the **null space**, because  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{rank } \mathbf{A} = \text{nullity } \mathbf{A} = n$$

### Th. 3 homogenous linear systems with fewer equations than unknowns

This system always has nontrivial solutions

### Th. 4 nonhomogenous linear systems

If such a system has solutions, then all these solutions are of the form  $x = x_0 + x_h$  where  $x_0$  is any fixed solution and  $x_h$  runs through all solution of corresponding homogeneous system

## Determinants and Cramer's rule

Originally introduced to solve linear system

Turned out to be impractical in computation (Gauss elimination method used instead)

Application fundamental for eigenvalue problems

**Nth-order determinant**: expression associated with  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$

$$\mathbf{2}^{\text{nd}} \text{ order determinant: } D = \det \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

### Ex. 1 Cramer's rule for linear systems of 2 equations

For a linear system of 2 equations with 2 unknowns:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

$$\text{Eliminating } x_2 \Rightarrow (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21})x_1 = b_1a_{22} - a_{12}b_2$$

$$\text{Eliminating } x_1 \Rightarrow (a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21})x_2 = a_{11}b_2 - b_1a_{21}$$

This is equivalent to:

$$x_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} \\ b_2 & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}}{D} \text{ and } x_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & b_2 \end{vmatrix}}{D}$$

### Ex. 1

$$\begin{array}{l} 4x_1 + 3x_2 = 12 \\ 2x_1 + 5x_2 = -8 \end{array} \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 12 & 3 \\ -8 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{84}{14} = 6 \text{ and } \Rightarrow x_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 12 \\ 2 & -8 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-56}{14} = -4$$

If the system is homogeneous and  $D \neq 0$  it has only the trivial solution  $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ , and if  $D = 0$ , it also has non trivial solutions (eigenvalue problem)

**3<sup>rd</sup> order determinant:**  $D = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$

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

### Ex. 2 Cramer's rule for linear systems of 3 equations

For a linear system of 3 equations with 3 unknowns:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13} = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23} = b_2$$

$$a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33} = b_3$$

$$x_1 = \frac{D_1}{D} \quad x_2 = \frac{D_2}{D} \quad x_3 = \frac{D_3}{D}$$

Where:

$$D_1 = \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ b_3 & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad D_2 = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & b_3 & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad D_3 = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

## nth order determinant

$$D = \det \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

For  $n = 1$ ,  $D = a_{11}$

For  $n \geq 2$

$$D = a_{j1}C_{j1} + a_{j2}C_{j2} + \dots + a_{jn}C_{jn} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

or using the columns:

$$D = a_{1k}C_{1k} + a_{2k}C_{2k} + \dots + a_{nk}C_{nk} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Where  $C_{jk} = (-1)^{j+k} M_{jk} = \mathbf{cofactor}$  of  $a_{jk}$  in  $D$

Where  $M_{jk}$  is the determinant of  $n-1$  order = the **minor** of  $a_{jk}$  in  $D$

**IMPORTANT:** we may expand  $D$  using any row or column

Alternative notation:

$$D = \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{j+k} a_{jk} M_{jk}$$

$$D = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{j+k} a_{jk} M_{jk}$$

**Ex. 3** for  $D = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \Rightarrow M_{21} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, M_{22} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, M_{23} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$

**Ex. 4** for  $D = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 4 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -12$

## General properties of determinants

### Th. 1 Behavior of determinant under elementary row operations

- a) Interchange of 2 rows  $\Rightarrow -1D$
- b) Add multiple of one row to another  $\Rightarrow D$
- c) Multiplication of one row by  $c \Rightarrow cD$

**Simplification:** since determinant of triangular matrix = multiplication of diagonal terms  
 $\Rightarrow$  reducing matrix to triangular form simplify calculation

### Th. 2 Further properties

- d)  $D(\mathbf{A}^T) = D$
- e) Matrix with a zero row or column  $\Rightarrow D = 0$
- f) Proportional (or equal) rows or columns  $\Rightarrow D = 0$

### Th. 3 Rank in terms of determinants

An  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$  has rank  $r \geq 1$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A}$  has an  $r \times r$  submatrix with nonzero determinant

In particular, if  $\mathbf{A}$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix, rank  $\mathbf{A} = n$  if and only if  $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$

## Cramer's rule

### Th. 4 Cramer's theorem (solution of linear systems by determinants)

- a) If a linear system of  $n$  equations of  $n$  unknowns has a non zero coefficient determinant, the system has precisely one solution:

$$x_1 = \frac{D_1}{D}, x_2 = \frac{D_2}{D}, \dots, x_n = \frac{D_n}{D}$$

Where  $D_k$  = determinants obtained by replacing the  $k^{\text{th}}$  column by the entries:

$$b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$$

- b) If the system is homogenous and  $D \neq 0$  then the only solution is the trivial one  
c) If  $D = 0$  there also exist a non trivial solution (eigenvalue problem)

## Inverse of Matrix and Gauss-Jordan elimination

Works only for  $n \times n$  matrices

$$\text{Inverse of } \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

**Nonsingular matrix**  $\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1}$  exists and is unique

### Th.1 existence of inverse

The inverse exists if and only if rank of  $\mathbf{A} = n \Rightarrow D \neq 0$

## Gauss-Jordan method

We start with  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ , hence to solve  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{I}$  we can apply Gauss elimination to  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = [\mathbf{A}\mathbf{I}] \Rightarrow [\mathbf{U}\mathbf{H}]$  where  $\mathbf{U}$  is upper triangular

Gauss-Jordan elimination reduces  $\mathbf{U}$  to diagonal form  $\mathbf{I}$  transforming  $\mathbf{H}$  into  $\mathbf{K}$  such that  $\Rightarrow [\mathbf{I}\mathbf{K}]$  which is the augmented matrix  $\mathbf{I}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{K} \Rightarrow \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$

**Ex. 1**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

First transformation

$$\begin{array}{l} r_2 + 3r_1 \\ r_3 - r_1 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Second transformation

$$r_3 - r_2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 & -4 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Reducing  $\mathbf{U}$  to  $\mathbf{I}$

$$\begin{array}{l} -r_1 \\ 0.5r_2 \\ -0.2r_3 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3.5 & 1.5 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} r_1 + 2r_3 \\ r_2 - 3.5r_3 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0.6 & 0.4 & -0.4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1.3 & -0.2 & 0.7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$r_1 + r_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -0.7 & 0.2 & 0.3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1.3 & -0.2 & 0.7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.7 & 0.2 & 0.3 \\ -1.3 & -0.2 & 0.7 \\ 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Useful formulas for inverses

### Th. 2 Inverse of non singular $n \times n$ matrix

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{D} [A_{jk}]^T \text{ where } A_{jk} \text{ is the cofactor of } a_{jk} \text{ in } D$$

### 2 x 2 matrices

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow D = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} \text{ and } A_{jk} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{21} \\ -a_{12} & a_{11} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} (A_{jk})^T = \frac{1}{D} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

### Diagonal matrices

$$A = [a_{jk}] \text{ where } a_{jk} = 0 \text{ for } j \neq k$$

The inverse exists if and only if  $a_{jk} \neq 0$  then  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  diagonal with entries  $\frac{1}{a_{11}}, \dots, \frac{1}{a_{nn}}$

### Inverse of products

$$(\mathbf{AC})^{-1} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \text{ or } (\mathbf{ABC...PQ})^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \dots \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

### Th. 3 Cancellation law

Let  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{C}$  be  $n \times n$  matrices

- If  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = n$  then  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{AC} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$
- If  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = n$  then  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$
- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is singular so are  $\mathbf{BA}$  and  $\mathbf{AB}$

### Determinant of products

$$\det(\mathbf{AB}) = \det \mathbf{A} \cdot \det \mathbf{B}$$

## Matrix Eigenvalue problems

Let  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$  a  $n \times n$  matrix

Vector equation:  $\mathbf{Ax} = I\mathbf{x}$

**Eigenvalue (characteristic):**  $I$  = value for which  $\mathbf{Ax} = I\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{x}$  is an **eigenvector**

Set of eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  = **spectrum** of  $\mathbf{A}$

Largest of absolute eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  = **spectral radius**

The set of all eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0}$  = **vector space**

### Ex. 1

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Ax} = I\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = I \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow -5x_1 + 2x_2 &= Ix_1 & \Rightarrow (-5 - I)x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow 2x_1 - 2x_2 &= Ix_2 & \Rightarrow 2x_1 + (-2 - I)x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalent to  $\Rightarrow (\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

By Cramer's rule (page 18 - part b), if  $D(\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I}) = 0$  the system has a non trivial solution

$$D(I) = D(\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -5-I & 2 \\ 2 & -2-I \end{vmatrix} = I^2 + 7I + 6 = 0$$

where  $D(I)$  is the **characteristic determinant** and  $D(I) = 0$  is the **characteristic equation**

Solving  $D(I) = 0 \rightarrow$  Eigenvalues:  $I = -1$  and  $I = -6$

To find eigenvectors: substitute eigenvalues in  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ :

$$\text{For } \lambda_1 = -1 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} -4x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \\ 2x_1 - x_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x_2 = 2x_1, \text{ choosing } x_1 = 1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{For } \lambda_1 = -6 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x_2 = -\frac{1}{2}x_1, \text{ choosing } x_1 = 2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

### Th. 1 Eigenvalues

Eigenvalues of square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are the roots of the characteristic equation  $D(\lambda) = 0$

Hence  $n \times n$  matrix has at least one eigenvalue and at most  $n$  numerically different eigenvalues

### Th. 2 Eigenvectors

If  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  so is  $k\mathbf{x}$  with  $k \neq 0$

**Ex. 2**

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A - I\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 - I & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 - I & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & -I \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow D(A - I\mathbf{I}) = (-2 - I) \begin{vmatrix} 1 - I & -6 \\ -2 & -I \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -6 \\ -1 & -I \end{vmatrix} - 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 - I \\ -1 & -2 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow D(I) = 0 = -I^3 - I^2 + 21I + 45 = 0 \Rightarrow I_1 = 5 \quad I_2 = I_3 = -3$$

Applying Gauss elimination to  $(\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  with  $I_1 = 5 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\text{For } I_2 = -3 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I}) = \mathbf{A} + 3\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 2 & 4 & -6 \\ -1 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Which reduces to  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  a rank 1 matrix

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = -2x_2 + 3x_3$$

$$\text{Choosing } x_2 = 1 \text{ and } x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Choosing } x_2 = 0 \text{ and } x_3 = 1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Algebraic multiplicity:** order  $M_I$  of eigenvalue as a root of characteristic polynomial

**Geometric multiplicity:** number  $m_I$  of linear independent eigenvector  $\Rightarrow m_I = \text{dimension of eigenspace}$

Since the characteristic polynomial has degree  $n$ , **sum of all algebraic multiplicity** =  $n$  the degree of the polynomial

In Ex. 2, for  $I = -3 \Rightarrow m_I = M_I = 2$ , but in general  $m_I \leq M_I$

Difference = **defect:**  $\Delta I = M_I - m_I$

Ex. for  $I = -3 \Rightarrow \Delta I = 0$

In general  $\Delta I > 0$

### Ex. 3

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -I & 1 \\ 0 & -I \end{vmatrix} = I^2 = 0$$

Hence  $I = 0$  is eigenvalue with  $M_I = 2$  but  $m_I = 1$ , since eigenvectors result from  $-0x_1 + x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta_0 = 1$

### Ex. 4

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(\mathbf{A} - I\mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -I & 1 \\ -1 & -I \end{vmatrix} = I^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = i \text{ and } I_2 = -i$$

eigenvectors result from  $-ix_1 + x_2 = 0$  and  $ix_1 + x_2 = 0$ , choosing  $x_1 = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$$

## Applications

### Ex. 1 stretching of elastic membrane

Elastic membrane in  $x_1x_2$  - plane with boundary conditions  $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$  is stretched so that a point  $P: (x_1, x_2)$  goes over into the point  $Q: (y_1, y_2)$  as given by:

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Stretching**  $\rightarrow$  simple transformation of coordinates  $P: (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow Q: (y_1, y_2)$

**Principal direction** = vector  $\mathbf{x}$  of P  $\rightarrow$  same or exactly opposite direction as  $\mathbf{y}$  in Q

$\rightarrow$  Need to find eigenvectors

$\rightarrow$  Characteristic equations:  $(5 - I)^2 - 9 = 0 \Rightarrow I_1 = 8$  and  $I_2 = 2$

For  $I_1 = 8 \Rightarrow -3x_1 + 3x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$  and  $3x_1 - 3x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 = 1$

For  $I_2 = 2 \Rightarrow 3x_1 + 3x_2 = 0$  and  $3x_1 + 3x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = -x_2$  choosing  $x_1 = 1 \Rightarrow x_2 = -1$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

First = vector at  $45^\circ$  -- other = vector at  $135^\circ$

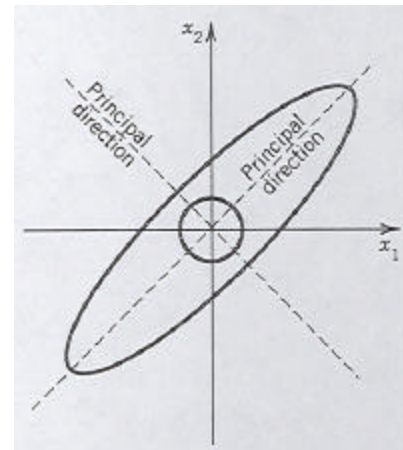
Along principal directions  $\rightarrow$  membrane stretches by factor 8 and 2 respectively

Choosing principal directions as direction of new  $\mathbf{m}_1\mathbf{m}_2$

Cartesian system of coordinates  $\mathbf{m}_1 = r \cos \mathbf{j}$  and

$\mathbf{m}_2 = r \sin \mathbf{j} \Rightarrow$  Unstretched boundary  $\cos \mathbf{j}$  and  $\sin \mathbf{j}$

After stretching boundaries  $z_1 = 8 \cos \mathbf{j}$  and  $z_2 = 2 \sin \mathbf{j}$



Deformed boundary = ellipse:  $\frac{z_1^2}{8^2} + \frac{z_2^2}{2^2} \rightarrow$  principal semi-axes 8 and 2 in principal direction

### Ex. 2 vibrating system of 2 masses on two springs

$$y_1'' = -5y_1 + 2y_2$$

$$y_2'' = 2y_1 - 2y_2$$

$$\text{Equivalent to } \mathbf{Y}'' = \begin{bmatrix} y_1'' \\ y_2'' \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Trying } \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}e^{wt} \Rightarrow \mathbf{y}'' = w^2 \mathbf{x}e^{wt} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}e^{wt}$$

$$\text{Putting } w^2 = I \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = I\mathbf{x}$$

$$\text{For } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow (-5 - I)(-2 - I) - 4 = I^2 + 7I + 6 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = -1 \Rightarrow w = \sqrt{-1} = \pm i \text{ and } I_2 = -6 \Rightarrow w = \sqrt{-6} = \pm i\sqrt{6}$$

$$\text{Eigenvectors (section 6.1 Ex. 1): } \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4 complex solutions:

$$\mathbf{x}_1 e^{\pm it} = \mathbf{x}_1 (\cos t \pm i \sin t)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_2 e^{\pm i\sqrt{6}t} = \mathbf{x}_2 (\cos \sqrt{6}t \pm i \sin \sqrt{6}t)$$

Physically only real solutions are meaningful

$$\text{General solution: } \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_1 (a_1 \cos t + b_1 \sin t) + \mathbf{x}_2 (a_2 \cos \sqrt{6}t + b_2 \sin \sqrt{6}t)$$

Describe harmonic oscillation of two masses

## Symmetric, Skew-Symmetric and Orthogonal matrices

**Symmetric** matrix:  $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$

**Skew-Symmetric** matrix:  $\mathbf{A}^T = -\mathbf{A}$

**Orthogonal** matrix:  $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$

### Th. 1 Eigenvalues of symmetric and skew-symmetric matrix

- a) Eigenvalues of symmetric matrix are real
- b) Eigenvalues of skew-symmetric matrix are pure imaginary or zero

**Orthogonal transformation:**  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$  for each  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $R^n \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$  in  $R^n$

Ex. Matrix of rotation:  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \mathbf{q} & -\sin \mathbf{q} \\ \sin \mathbf{q} & \cos \mathbf{q} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$

### Th. 2 Invariance of inner product

Orthogonal transformations preserve values of inner product

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}$$

→ preserves **norm** of vector:  $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$

### Th. 3 Orthogonality of column and row vectors

A real  $n \times n$  matrix is orthogonal if and only if the column vectors form an orthogonal system

$$a_j \cdot a_k = a_j^T a_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } j \neq k \\ 1 & \text{for } j = k \end{cases}$$

**Th. 4 Determinant of orthogonal matrix**

$$D = \pm 1$$

**Th. 5 Eigenvalues of orthogonal matrix**

Eigenvalues of orthogonal matrix are real or complex conjugates in pair with absolute value 1

**Complex matrices, Hermitian, Skew-Hermitian, Unitary**

Applications: numerous in quantum mechanics

**Complex conjugate matrix:**  $\bar{\mathbf{A}} = [\bar{a}_{jk}]$

**Conjugate transpose:**  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = [\bar{a}_{kj}]$

**Ex. 1**

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3+4i & -5i \\ -7 & 6-2i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 3-4i & 5i \\ -7 & 6+2i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{A}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 3-4i & -7 \\ 5i & 6+2i \end{pmatrix}$$

**Hermitian matrix:**  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A} \Rightarrow [\bar{a}_{kj}] = [a_{jk}]$

**Skew-Hermitian matrix:**  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = -\mathbf{A} \Rightarrow [\bar{a}_{kj}] = [-a_{jk}]$

**Unitary matrix:**  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$

## Ex. 2 Hermitian, Skew-Hermitian and unitary

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1-3i \\ 1+3i & 7 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 3i & 2+i \\ -2+i & -i \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}i & \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} & \frac{1}{2}i \end{pmatrix}$$

### Consequences

If  $\mathbf{A}$  Hermitian  $\Rightarrow \bar{a}_{jj} = a_{jj} \Rightarrow$  real

If  $\mathbf{A}$  Skew-Hermitian  $\Rightarrow \bar{a}_{jj} = -a_{jj} \Rightarrow$  pure imaginary or zero

If a Hermitian matrix is real then  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A} \Rightarrow$  symmetric

If a skew-Hermitian matrix is real then  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A}^T = -\mathbf{A} \Rightarrow$  skew-symmetric

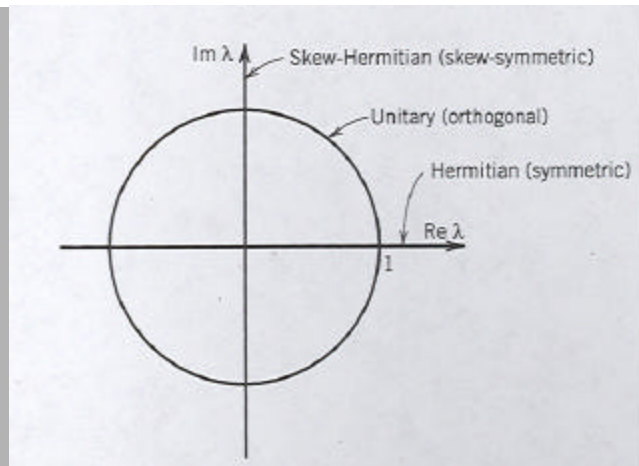
If an unitary matrix is real then  $\bar{\mathbf{A}}^T = \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \Rightarrow$  orthogonal

**Hermitian, Skew-Hermitian and Unitary matrices generalize symmetric, skew-symmetric and orthogonal matrices respectively**

### Eigenvalues

#### Th. 1 Eigenvalues

- Eigenvalues of Hermitian matrix (symmetric matrix) are **real**
- Eigenvalues of skew-Hermitian matrix (skew-symmetric) are **pure imaginary** or zero
- Eigenvalues of unitary matrix (orthogonal matrix) have **absolute value 1**



### Ex. 3

$$\text{Hermitian: } \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1-3i \\ 1+3i & 7 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow I^2 - 11I + 18 = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} I_1 = 9 \\ I_2 = 2 \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{Skew-Hermitian: } \begin{pmatrix} 3i & 2+i \\ -2+i & -i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow I^2 - 2iI + 8 = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} I_1 = 4i \\ I_2 = -2i \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{Unitary: } \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}i & \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} & \frac{1}{2}i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow I^2 - iI - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} I_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{2}i \\ I_2 = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{2}i \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{The absolute value of the last eigenvalues: } \left| \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{2}i \right|^2 = \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = 1$$

### Forms

$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$  = form in the components  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  = coefficient matrix

For  $n = 2$

$$[\bar{x}_1 \quad \bar{x}_2] \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = [\bar{x}_1 \quad \bar{x}_2] \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= a_{11}\bar{x}_1x_1 + a_{12}\bar{x}_1x_2 + a_{21}\bar{x}_2x_1 + a_{22}\bar{x}_2x_2$$

In general:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{jk} \bar{x}_j x_k \rightarrow \text{a sum of } n^2 \text{ terms}$$

$$\text{For } \mathbf{x} \text{ and } \mathbf{A} \text{ real: } \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{jk} x_j x_k \rightarrow \text{quadratic form}$$

Coefficient matrix must be symmetric  $\rightarrow$  we can takeoff diagonal terms together in pairs and write the results as a sum of 2 equal terms

**Ex. 4**  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{Ax} = [x_1 \quad x_2] \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 3x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 + 6x_2x_1 + 2x_2^2 = 3x_1^2 + 10x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2$

Coefficient matrix can be rewritten as:  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  which is symmetric

If coefficient matrix Hermitian  $\rightarrow$  **Hermitian form**

If coefficient matrix Skew-Hermitian  $\rightarrow$  **Skew-Hermitian form**

### Th. 2 Hermitian and Skew-Hermitian forms

For every choice of vector  $\mathbf{x}$  the value of Hermitian form is real and value of Skew-Hermitian form is pure imaginary or zero

**Ex. 5**

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+i \\ 2i \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2-i \\ 2+i & 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{Ax} = [1-i \quad -2i] \begin{pmatrix} 3(1+i) + (2-i)2i \\ (2+i)(1+i) + 4 \cdot 2i \end{pmatrix} = 34$$

## Properties of Unitary matrices and complex vector space

For complex vector space  $C^n$  inner product  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \mathbf{b}$

Length or **norm**  $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{\bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{\bar{a}_1 a_1 + \dots + \bar{a}_n a_n} = \sqrt{|a_1|^2 + \dots + |a_n|^2}$

Note: for real vector  $\rightarrow$  reduces to usual norms

### Th. 3 Invariance of inner product

A unitary transformation  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  with a unitary matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  preserves the value of the inner product hence of the norm

Complex analog of an orthonormal system of real vectors is a unitary system defined as

$$\mathbf{a}_j \cdot \mathbf{a}_k = \bar{\mathbf{a}}_j^T \mathbf{a}_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } j \neq k \\ 1 & \text{for } j = k \end{cases}$$

### Th. 4 Unitary systems of column and row vectors

A square matrix is unitary if and only if its column vectors (and row vectors) form a unitary system

### Th. 5 Determinant of unitary matrix

The determinant of a unitary matrix has absolute value 1

### Ex. 6

For  $\mathbf{a}^T = [1 \quad i]$  and  $\mathbf{b}^T = [3i \quad 2+i]$   $\Rightarrow \bar{\mathbf{a}}^T \mathbf{b} = 3i - i(2+i) = 1+i$

For  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.6i & 0.8 \\ 0.8 & 0.6i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.4i \\ 0.2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.2 + 0.8i \\ -0.6 + 3.6i \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow (\bar{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{a}})^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} = 1+i$  the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is unitary:  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}_1^T \mathbf{a}_1 = \bar{\mathbf{a}}_2^T \mathbf{a}_2 = 1$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}_1^T \mathbf{a}_2 = 0$

$\rightarrow$  determinant = -1

## Similarity of matrices, basis of eigenvectors and diagonalization

Eigenvectors of  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  may (or may not) form a basis for  $R^n$  or  $C^n$

If they do they can be used to diagonalize  $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow$  eigenvalues on the main diagonal

### Similarity of matrices

An  $n \times n$  matrix  $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$  is similar to  $\mathbf{A}$  if  $\hat{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}$  (similarity transformation) for some nonsingular  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{P}$

#### Th. 1 Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of similar matrices

If  $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$  similar to  $\mathbf{A}$  then the eigenvalues are the same

Furthermore if  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  then  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$  corresponding to same eigenvalues

#### Th. 2 Linear independence of eigenvectors

Let  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$  be distinct eigenvalues of a  $n \times n$  matrix. Then corresponding eigenvectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$  form a linearly independent set

#### Th. 3 Basis of eigenvectors

If an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $n$  distinct eigenvalues then  $\mathbf{A}$  has a basis of eigenvectors for  $C^n$  or  $R^n$

Actually, basis of eigenvectors exist under more general conditions than those given in Th. 3

#### Th. 4 Basis of eigenvectors

A Hermitian, Skew-Hermitian or Unitary matrix has a basis of eigenvectors for  $C^n$  that is a Unitary system

A symmetric matrix has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors for  $R^n$

A basis of eigenvectors of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is of great advantage for transformation  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

Writing in terms of basis  $\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{x}_n$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}(c_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{x}_n) = c_1 \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_n = c_1 \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

Decomposed action of  $\mathbf{A}$  on  $\mathbf{x}$  into simple multiplication by scalar (eigenvalues) on eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$

## Diagonalization

### Th. 5 Diagonalization of matrix

If a  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  has a basis of eigenvectors then  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}$  is diagonal with eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  as the entries on main diagonal

$\mathbf{X}$  is a matrix with eigenvectors as column vectors

Also  $\mathbf{D}^m = \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^m \mathbf{X}$  ( $m = 2, 3, \dots$ )

### Ex. 7

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{eigenvectors: } \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ hence } \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = -\frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.2 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 24 & 1 \\ 6 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Ex. 8

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 7.3 & 0.2 & -3.7 \\ -11.5 & 1.0 & 5.5 \\ 17.7 & 1.8 & -9.3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Characteristic determinant = characteristic equation

$$-\lambda^3 - \lambda^2 + 12\lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = -4, \lambda_3 = 0$$

Eigenvalues + Gauss elimination to  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = 0 \rightarrow$  eigenvectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow X = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Gauss-Jordan elimination} \rightarrow \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.7 & 0.2 & 0.3 \\ -1.3 & -0.2 & 0.7 \\ 0.8 & 0.2 & -0.2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Transformation of forms to principal axis

Quadratic form:  $Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

Since  $\mathbf{A}$  symmetric  $\rightarrow$  has orthonormal basis of eigenvectors

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{X}^T \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^{-1} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^T$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Putting  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \Rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$

Furthermore:  $(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{X}) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{x})^T = \mathbf{y}^T$

$$\Rightarrow Q = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{y} = I_1 y_1^2 + I_2 y_2^2 + \dots + I_n y_n^2$$

### Th. 6 principal axes theorem

$$Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{jk} x_j x_k$$

Substitution  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$  transform quadratic form into principal axes form where  $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n$  are the eigenvalues of the symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{X}$  is an orthogonal matrix with corresponding eigenvectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  as column vectors

**Ex. 9**

$$Q = 17x_1^2 - 30x_1x_2 + 17x_2^2 = 128$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \text{ where } \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 17 & -15 \\ -15 & 17 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Characteristic equation: } (17 - \lambda)^2 - 15^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 2 \text{ and } \lambda_2 = 32$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = 2y_1^2 + 32y_2^2 = 128$$

$$\text{Ellipse: } \frac{y_1^2}{8^2} + \frac{y_2^2}{2^2} = 1$$

To find the direction of principal axis  $\rightarrow$  normalized eigenvectors

$$\text{Solving } (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x} = 0 \text{ with two eigenvalues } \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hence } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ this is a rotation by } 45^\circ$$