

Introduction to matrices¹

An $m \times n$ **matrix** (“over \mathbb{R} ”) is a rectangular array or table of elements of \mathbb{R} arranged with m rows and n columns. It is usually written:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Matrices generalize vectors. A row vector of length n is a $1 \times n$ matrix. A column vector of length n is a $n \times 1$ matrix.

Basic definitions

The $(i, j)^{th}$ **entry** of A is a_{ij} . The i^{th} **row of A** is

$$(a_{i1} \quad a_{i2} \quad \cdots \quad a_{in}) \quad (1 \leq i \leq m)$$

The j^{th} **column of A** is

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1 \leq j \leq n)$$

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix as above, the **transpose matrix**² ${}^T A$ is the $n \times m$ matrix, but with the rows of A written as columns and columns of A written as rows:

$${}^T A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & a_{2m} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Addition and scalar multiplication for matrices is just as for vectors.

The matrix A can be regarded as a column of row vectors,

$$(1) \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_m \end{pmatrix}$$

where the i^{th} row of A is

¹Written by David Joyner, wdj@usna.edu.

²This is sometimes denoted as A^t or A^* . To avoid confusion with powers of a matrix, we use the notation ${}^T A$.

$$\mathbf{r}_i = (a_{i1} \quad a_{i2} \quad \cdots \quad a_{in}) \quad (1 \leq i \leq m).$$

If

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix},$$

then the matrix times vector product is defined by

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \cdot^T \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \cdot^T \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_m \cdot^T \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example 1. *The 2×2 system*

$$\begin{cases} ax + by = r_1, \\ cx + dy = r_2, \end{cases}$$

may be visualized as two lines in a plane. Geometrically speaking, these lines could

- intersect at a point (unique solution),
- be the same line written twice (infinitely many solutions)³,
- be parallel lines (no solutions)⁴

Algebraically, this can be written as a matrix equation: $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r}$, which in the 2×2 case becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Linear systems of equations arise in many areas.

Example 2. *Consider the general form of the partial fraction decomposition,*

$$\frac{1}{(x-1)(x-2)(x+1)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x-2} + \frac{C}{x+1},$$

for some constants A, B, C . Derive three equations in the three unknowns A, B, C .

We cross multiply to clear denominators,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= A(x-2)(x+1) + B(x-1)(x+1) + C(x-1)(x-2) \\ &= (A+B+C)x^2 + (-A-3C)x + (-2A-B+2C). \end{aligned}$$

Identifying like terms gives

$$A + B + C = 0, \quad -A - 3C = 0, \quad -2A - B + 2C = 1,$$

or

³For example, the system $x + y = 1$, $2x + 2y = 2$ has infinitely many solutions.

⁴For example, the system $x + y = 1$, $x + y = 2$ has no solutions since those equations imply $1 = 2$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & -3 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix A can also be regarded as a row of column vectors,

$$(2) \quad A = (\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n),$$

where the j th column of A is

$$\mathbf{c}_j = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1 \leq j \leq n).$$

Note that

$${}^T A = \begin{pmatrix} {}^T \mathbf{c}_1 \\ {}^T \mathbf{c}_2 \\ \vdots \\ {}^T \mathbf{c}_m \end{pmatrix}$$

is a column of row vectors and

$${}^T A = ({}^T \mathbf{r}_1, {}^T \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, {}^T \mathbf{r}_n),$$

is a row of column vectors.

A matrix A times a matrix B is defined similarly, when we think of B as a row of column vectors. If A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$ and if B is a row of column vectors

$$B = (\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p),$$

then

$$AB = (A\mathbf{b}_1, A\mathbf{b}_2, \dots, A\mathbf{b}_p),$$

which is a $m \times p$ matrix.

Types of matrices

A matrix having as many rows as it has columns ($m = n$) is called a **square matrix**. The entries a_{ii} of an $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ are called the **diagonal entries**, the entries a_{ij} with $i > j$ are called the **lower diagonal entries**, and the entries a_{ij} with $i < j$ are called the **upper diagonal entries**. An $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ all of whose lower diagonal entries are zero is called an **upper triangular matrix**. This terminology is logical if the matrix is a square matrix but both the matrices below are called upper triangular

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 10 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

whether they look triangular or not! A similar definition holds for *lower* triangular matrices. The square $n \times n$ matrix with 1's on the diagonal and 0's elsewhere,

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

is called the $n \times n$ **identity matrix** and denoted I or I_n . This is both upper triangular and lower triangular. In general, any square matrix which is both upper triangular and lower triangular is called a **diagonal matrix**. A diagonal matrix of the form aI_n , for $a \in \mathbb{R}$, is called a **scalar matrix**. Note all the diagonal entries of a scalar matrix are the same.

The determinant as a measure of parallelepiped volume

The determinant is a function that attached to each square matrix, say A , with real entries, a real number, $\det(A)$. This number measures the volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the row vectors of A . For example, if $\mathbf{r}_1 = (a, b)$ and $\mathbf{r}_2 = (c, d)$ are the row vectors of a 2×2 matrix A and if P is the parallelogram formed by $\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2$ (see Figure 1), then

$$(3) \quad \text{area}(P) = |\det(A)|.$$

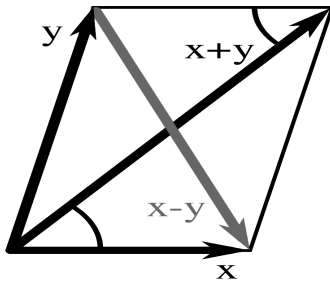


FIGURE 1. Parallelogram spanned by $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r}_1$ and $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{r}_2$.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parallelogram_law.

Likewise, if $\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3$, are the row vectors of a 3×3 matrix A and if P is the parallelepiped formed by $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{r}_3$ (see Figure 2), then the 3-dimensional analog of (3), (4), holds:

$$(4) \quad \text{vol}(P) = |\det(A)|.$$

While interesting, this isn't a practical method of computing $\det(A)$.

The determinant cofactor expansion

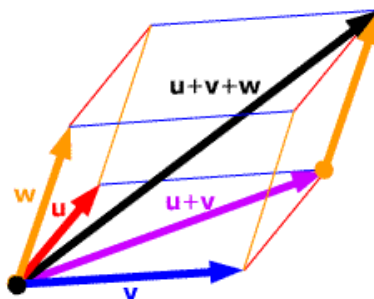


FIGURE 2. Parallelopiped spanned by \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} .
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parallelogram_law.

For any $n \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{i,j})_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$, let $A_{i,j}$ denote the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix obtained by removing the i th row and j th column of A . The expression $\det(A_{i,j})$ is called the (i, j) -minor of A and $(-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{i,j})$ is called the (i, j) -cofactor of A .

The determinant formula

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

is called the *cofactor expansion down the j th column*. The formula

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

is called the *cofactor expansion along the i th row*.

In the 2×2 case, this becomes the formula:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

In the 3×3 case, this becomes the formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} &= a \det \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{pmatrix} - b \det \begin{pmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{pmatrix} + c \det \begin{pmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \\ &= aei - ahf - bdi + bfg + cdh - cge. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3. Let A, B be an $n \times n$ matrix. The following statements are true.

- $\det(A^k) = \det(A)^k$.
- $\det({}^T A) = \det(A)$ (where ${}^T A$ is the transpose of A).
- $\det(A) \det(B) = \det(AB)$.
- If we write A as a column of row vectors,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

then the elementary row operation $R_i + cR_j \rightarrow R_i$ does not change the value of the determinant:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_i + c\mathbf{r}_j \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- If we write as as a column of row vectors,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

then the elementary row operation $cR_i \rightarrow R_i$ does changes the value of the determinant by a factor of c :

$$c \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \vdots \\ c\mathbf{r}_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem 4. Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with $\det(A) \neq 0$. The following statements are true.

- $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.
- The system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.
- The system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution (namely, $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$).
- The rank of A is n .
- $rref(A) = I_n$.
- $rref(A, I) = (I, A^{-1})$.
- $rref(A, \mathbf{b}) = (I, A^{-1}\mathbf{b})$.

Cramer's Rule: Write A as a vector of column vectors:

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

where

$$\mathbf{c}_j = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1 \leq j \leq n).$$

Then the i th coordinate of the solution \mathbf{x} to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is

$$x_i = \frac{\det(\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{i-1}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n)}{\det(\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{i-1}, \mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{c}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n)}, \quad (1 \leq i \leq n).$$

Exercise 1: Compute the determinant of

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 2 & -6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Exercise 2: Compute the determinant of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & -2 \\ 2 & -6 & -4 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

What is the volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the columns of A ?

Exercise 3: Compute the determinant of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -2017 & -2018 \\ 0 & -4 & 2019 \\ 0 & 0 & -101 \end{pmatrix}.$$