Introduction to Linear Algebra

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September 22, 2020

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Previously we have seen how to solve a very simple system of equations, namely a linear system with 2 equations and 2 unknowns.

The way these systems are solved are quite straight forward. However, when we have systems of 3,4,... or *n* equations we need a more systematic way to solve them.

In this sense is crucial to understand the notation at hand. We will consider a system of **m** equations and **n** unknowns  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ :

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$
  

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$
  
.....  

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$
(1)

Where  $a_{11}, a_{12}, ..., a_{mn}$  are the coefficients of the system, and  $b_1, ..., b_m$  are called the right-hand sides.

#### Note:

- 1. The equations are linear in the unknowns
- 2. One or more coefficients might be 0

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A solution to (1) is a list of numbers  $s_1, s_2, ..., s_n$  that satisfy all the equations simultaneously where  $x_1 = s_1, x_2 = s_2, ..., x_n = s_n$ .

The system is called

• Consistent if it has at least 1 solution

- **Determined:** if it has only one solution
- **Undetermined:** if it has infinitely many solutions
- Inconsistent if it has no solution

#### **Example:**

T. Haavelmo devised a model of the US economy for the years 1929-1941 based on the following equations:

(*i*) 
$$c = 0.712y + 95.05$$
 (*ii*)  $x = 0.158(c + x) - 34.3$ 

(*iii*) 
$$y = c + x - s$$
 (*iv*)  $x = 93.53$ 

Here *x* denotes total investment, *y* is disposable income, *s* is the total saving by firms, and *c* is total consumption. Write the system of equations in the form of (1) when the variables appear in the order *x*, *y*, *s*, and *c*. Then find the solution of the system.

#### **Example:**

С	—	0.712 <i>y</i>				= 95.05
0.158 <i>c</i>			_	0.842 <i>x</i>		= 34.3
С	_	у	+	x	_	\$ = 0
				x		= 93.53

# VECTORS

**Vectors** are just a collection of number disposed in rows (row vector) or columns (column vector). Thus if **a** is a  $n \times 1$  vector, we write

$$\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n)$$

The numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are called the **components or coordinates** of the vector, which is referred to as the *n*-vector.

For example a 3-dimensional vector might be represented in the 3-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

## VECTORS VECTOR OPERATIONS

Let **a** and **b** be two *n*-dimensional vectors and *s* and *t* two scalars, then we can perform the following operations

- summation:  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \cdots, a_n + b_n)$
- Scalar product:  $c = t\mathbf{a} = (ta_1, ta_2, \cdots, ta_n)$

Joining both operations together is said to be a **linear combination**, in symbols

$$t\begin{pmatrix}a_1\\a_2\\\vdots\\a_n\end{pmatrix}+s\begin{pmatrix}b_1\\b_2\\\vdots\\b_n\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}ta_1+sb_1\\ta_2+sb_2\\\vdots\\ta_n+sb_n\end{pmatrix}$$

Vectors can be multiply between them. However this is a special operation that goes beyond intuition, in this way we define the inner product

Vectors can be multiply between them. However this is a special operation that goes beyond intuition, in this way we define the inner product

The **inner product** of the *n*-vectors  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$  is defined as

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \dots + a_n b_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$$

**Example:** because vectors are just a collection of numbers we can regard **p** as a vector with listed prices of some commodities and **x** as the list of quantities bought of those commodities. What will we obtain if we perform the inner product?

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**Solution:** The total amount spent  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$ 

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Question: What is the maximum that we can spend?

**Answer:** Total income *I*, i.e.  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i \le I$ 

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## VECTORS RULES OF INNER PRODUCT

If **a**, **b** and **c** are *n*-vectors and  $\alpha$  is a scalar, then

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

$$\bullet \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$$

$$(\alpha \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} (\alpha \mathbf{b}) = \alpha (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})$$

$$\blacktriangleright a \cdot a > 0 \iff a \neq 0$$

A **matrix** is a rectangular array of numbers considered as one mathematical object. Matrices are composed of m rows and n columns, the are normally noted in bold letters such as **A**, **B**, etc. In general, they take the form:

$$\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$
(2)

And we say that **A** is of a  $m \times n$  order

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A matrix with one column or one row is called a vector.

row vector:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

#### column vector:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

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#### **Examples:**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 8 & 5\\ 7 & 6\\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{5} & \frac{5}{4} & -7000 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\ \pi\\ -\ln\sqrt{3}\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Where **A** is a 4 × 2 matrix and  $a_{32} = 6$ , **r** is a 1 × 5 row vector and  $r_4 = 1$ , and **c** is a 4 × 1 column vector and  $c_2 = \pi$ 

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**Exercise:** Construct a 4 × 3 matrix such that  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{4\times 3}$  with  $a_{ij} = 2i - j$ 

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Solution:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 \\ 7 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Only matrices of the same order can be summed

if 
$$\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$$
 and  $\mathbf{B} = (b_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , then the sum of  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$  is  
 $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n} + (b_{ij})_{m \times n} = (a_{ij} + b_{ij})_{m \times n}$ 

**Exercise:** If matrices are of different order they are said to be **non-conformable** for summation. What pair of matrices are conformable and non-conformable?

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 8 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 4 & -7 \\ \sqrt{2} & \pi \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 4 & -7 \\ 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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#### Solution:

- ► A-B and A-C are non-conformable
- ► B-C are conformable

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**Exercise:** Sum the following matrices into **A** + **B** = **C** 

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 8 & 5\\ 7 & 6\\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3\\ 4 & -7\\ 7 & 0\\ \sqrt{2} & \pi \end{pmatrix}$$

**Exercise:** Sum the following matrices into **A** + **B** = **C** 

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2\\ 8 & 5\\ 7 & 6\\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3\\ 4 & -7\\ 7 & 0\\ \sqrt{2} & \pi \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5\\ 12 & -2\\ 14 & 6\\ 1 + \sqrt{2} & 1 + \pi \end{pmatrix}$$

#### MATRICES AND MATRIX OPERATIONS SCALAR MULTIPLICATION

when a matrix **A** is multiplied by a scalar  $\alpha$ , every entry is multiplied by this scalar:

$$\alpha \mathbf{A} = \alpha \left( a_{ij} \right)_{m \times n} = \left( \alpha a_{ij} \right)_{m \times n}$$

**Exercise:** work out  $\alpha A$  for

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = -3$$
$$\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 \\ 7 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

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**Exercise:** work out  $\alpha \mathbf{A}$  for **Solution:** 

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = -3$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 \\ 7 & 6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 & 3 \\ -9 & -6 & -3 \\ -15 & -12 & -9 \\ -21 & -18 & -15 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Rules for matrix addition and multiplication by a scalar

- (A+B) + C = (A+B+C)
- $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$
- $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{A}$
- $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$
- $(\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{A} = \alpha \mathbf{A} + \beta \mathbf{A}$
- $\mathbf{P} \quad \alpha \left( \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} \right) = \alpha \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{B}$

Note that because previous definitions of addition and scalar multiplication  $3\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$ 

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Gaussian elimination is a method for solving systems of equations, which uses the method of elimination already seen in a systematic manner.

#### **METHOD:**

- 1. Make a staircase with 1 as the coefficient for each non-zero leading entry
- 2. produce 0's above each leading entry
- 3. General solution: expressing the unknowns that occur as leading entries in terms of those unknowns that do not.

In order to use this method we can:

- Interchange rows
- Multiply any row by an scalar
- Add or subtract any row from any other

Example: Solve the following system by Gaussian elimination,

$$2x_2 - x_3 = -7$$
  

$$x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 2$$
  

$$-3x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_3 = -10$$

#### Solution:

1. put the system in matrix form:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & 2 & -1 & -7 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ -3 & 2 & 2 & -10 \end{array}\right)$$

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2. Interchange  $1^{st}$  and  $2^{nd}$  rows

3. Sum to the  $3^{rd}$  row 3 times the  $1^{st}$ 

4. Divide the  $2^{nd}$  by 2

5. subtract to the  $3^{rd}$  row 5 times the  $2^{nd}$ 

6. Multiply the  $3^{rd}$  by  $\frac{2}{27}$ 

7. Sum to the  $2^{nd}$  row  $\frac{1}{2}$  times the  $3^{rd}$  and subtract from the  $1^{st}$  3 times the  $3^{rd}$ .

(	1	1	0	-1	
	0	1	0	-3	
l	0	0	1	1	J

8. subtrac the  $2^{nd}$  from the  $1^{st}$ 

$$\left( egin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & -3 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} 
ight)$$

9. Sum to the  $2^{nd}$  row  $\frac{1}{2}$  times the  $3^{rd}$  and subtract from the  $1^{st}$  3 times the  $3^{rd}$ .

ſ	1	0	0	2	
	0	1	0	-3	
	0	0	1	1	J

The final solution being the vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) = (2, -3, 1)$
**Matrix multiplication** is less intuitive than the previous rules since "normal" operations do not apply.

Suppose that  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$  and that  $\mathbf{B} = (b_{ij})_{n \times p}$ . Then the product  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$  is the  $m \times p$  matrix  $\mathbf{C} = (c_{ij})_{m \times p}$ , whose element in the *i*th row and *j*th column is the **dot (inner) product**:

$$c_{ij} = \mathbf{a_i b_j} = \sum_{r=1}^n a_{ir} b_{rj} = a_{i1} b_{1j} + a_{i2} b_{2j} + \dots + a_{ik} b_{kj} + \dots + a_{in} b_{nj}$$

of the *i*th row of **A** and the *j*th column of **B**.

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#### More graphically:

( a <sub>11</sub>	 $a_{1k}$	 <i>a</i> <sub>1<i>n</i></sub>		( b <sub>11</sub>	 $b_{1j}$	 <sup>b</sup> 1p		c <sub>11</sub>	 $c_{1j}$	 <i>c</i> <sub>1<i>p</i></sub>
:	÷	÷		:	:	÷		:	÷	÷
<i>a</i> <sub><i>i</i>1</sub>	 a <sub>ik</sub>	 $a_{in}$	•	<i>b</i> <sub>k1</sub>	 $b_{kj}$	 $b_{kp}$	=	$c_{i1}$	 $c_{ij}$	 $c_{ip}$
	÷	:		÷	:	÷		:	÷	÷
<i>a</i> <sub>m1</sub>	 $a_{mk}$	 a <sub>mn</sub>	)	<i>b</i> <sub>n1</sub>	 $b_{nj}$	 bnp		<i>c</i> <sub>m1</sub>	 $c_{mj}$	 c <sub>mp</sub>

**Exercise:** for matrices to be **conformable** under multiplication the number of columns of **A** needs to be the same as the number of rows of **B**. Are these matrices conformable? operate if they are.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 7 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 8 \\ 3 & 9 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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#### Solution:

- ► **AB** is not conformable
- BA is conformable

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#### Solution:

- ► **AB** is not conformable
- BA is conformable

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 56 & 35\\ 63 & 45\\ 14 & 30 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Exercise:** a very special property of matrices is that the **commutative property does not hold**. Multiply the following matrices in both ways, i.e. **AB** and **BA**:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Exercise:** a very special property of matrices is that the **commutative property does not hold**. Multiply the following matrices in both ways, i.e. **AB** and **BA**:

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Solution:

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2\\ 17 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{BA} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -2\\ 4 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thanks to this newly introduced notation we can write complex systems of equations in matrix form. Consider the system of equations given in (1):

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$
  

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$
  
.....  

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

We can write the previous system of equations as

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{x}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}}$$

Hence as

Ax = b

#### Which is much more compact.

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(3)

Exercise: Write the following system of equations in matrix form

Exercise: Write the following system of equations in matrix form

#### Solution:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

### MATRIX MULTIPLICATION RULES

Rules of Matrix Multiplication

- Associative: (AB) C = A(BC)
- Left distributive law: A(B + C) = AB + AC
- Right distributive law:  $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}$
- Associative Scalar multiplication:  $(\alpha \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} (\alpha \mathbf{B}) = \alpha (\mathbf{AB})$
- **NO** commutative:  $AB \neq BA$

### MATRIX MULTIPLICATION POWER MATRIX

The most important family of matrices are those that are **square**, in other words the ones that have the same number of rows and columns m = n.

## MATRIX MULTIPLICATION POWER MATRIX

The most important family of matrices are those that are **square**, in other words the ones that have the same number of rows and columns m = n.

**Power of Matrices:** if **A** is a square matrix, the associative law allows us to write AA as  $A^2$ . In general,

 $\mathbf{A}^n = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\cdots\mathbf{A}$  (n times)

POWER MATRIX

**Exercise:** Let  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Compute  $A^2$ ,  $A^3$ ,  $A^4$ . Then guess the general rule  $A^n$  and prove it by induction.

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POWER MATRIX

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#### Solution:

$$\mathbf{A}^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

POWER MATRIX

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#### Solution:

$$\mathbf{A}^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Induction step

$$\mathbf{A}^{k+1} = \mathbf{A}^{k}\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -k \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -k-1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since this is also true for n = 1 it completes the proof.

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## MATRIX MULTIPLICATION IDENTITY MATRIX

The **Identity Matrix** is the matrix of order *n*, denoted by  $I_n$  or I having ones along the main diagonal and zeros elsewhere:

$$\mathbf{I}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Which has the property that

$$\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}$$

#### And that corresponds to 1 in the real number system

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## THE TRANSPOSE

The transpose of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}'$  is a matrix whose rows and columns have been swapped. Particularly

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}' = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & a_{2m} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

So  $A' = (a'_{ij})$  where  $a'_{ij} = a_{ji}$ 

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## THE TRANSPOSE SYMMETRIC MATRIX

Another important kind of matrix are the square ones that are **symmetric** along the main diagonal. They have the property that are equal to its own transpose:

The matrix **A** is sysmmetric  $\iff$  **A** = **A**'

**Example:** 

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \\ 5 & 8 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## THE TRANSPOSE RULES

Rules of transposition:

- $\blacktriangleright (A')' = A$
- $\blacktriangleright (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})' = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{B}'$
- $\blacktriangleright (\alpha \mathbf{A})' = \alpha \mathbf{A}'$
- $\blacktriangleright (\mathbf{AB})' = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}'$

## THE TRANSPOSE RULES

**Exercise:** For what values of *a* is the matrix *A* symmetric? **Example:** 

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & a^2 - 1 & -3 \\ a + 1 & 2 & a^2 + 4 \\ -3 & 4a & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## THE TRANSPOSE RULES

**Exercise:** For what values of *a* is the matrix *A* symmetric? **Example:** 

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & a^2 - 1 & -3 \\ a + 1 & 2 & a^2 + 4 \\ -3 & 4a & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution: There are two conditions

1.  $a+1 = a^2 - 1 \iff a+1 = (a+1)(a-1)$  and there are two cases:

- $a = 1 \Rightarrow 2 = 0$  and there is contradiction
- $a \neq 1 \Rightarrow a = 2$  and this one is a candidate

2. 
$$4a = a^2 + 4 \iff a^2 - 4a + 4 = 0 \iff (a - 2)^2 = 0 \Rightarrow a = 2$$

The only one option that coincides in both conditions is a = 2, which is the solution.

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 Determinants rules
 Inverse of a Matrix

# DETERMINANTS

Determinants are important in many are areas that are of interest for economist.

Basically, the determinant is the **area expansion** of the transformation induced by a matrix, or in other words is the incremental factor that a volume experiences when multiplied by a matrix.

The main feature of the determinant is that it will allow us to rapidly know if a system of equations has solution or not.

## DETERMINANTS GEOMETRY

**Example** of the area expansion caused by a matrix transformation Consider the vector and the matrix

 $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1)$  $\mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

And apply the matrix transformation of **T** to **v** in order to have the new vector v'

$$T \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}' \iff \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot (1, 1) = (2, 1)$$

Because the volume (area in this case) between the origin and the vector has doubled the determinant will be 2.

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# DETERMINANTS

GEOMETRY

#### Graphically



Area of vector v

Area under the transformation

Consider the following system of equations

$$\begin{array}{l} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2 \end{array}, \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
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Solving the system yields (make sure you do it!!!)

$$x_1 = \frac{b_1 a_{22} - b_2 a_{12}}{a_{11} a_{22} - a_{21} a_{12}}, \quad x_2 = \frac{b_2 a_{11} - b_1 a_{21}}{a_{11} a_{22} - a_{21} a_{12}}$$

Both solutions have common denominator **D** =  $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$ .

For the system (4) to have a solution  $D \neq 0$ , in this sense *D* determines the solvability of the system, hence the **determinant**.

The determinant of **A** is denoted by  $det(\mathbf{A})$  or  $|\mathbf{A}|$ , thus

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$$
(5)

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## 2 ORDER DETERMINANTS CALCULATION

Consider the  $det(\mathbf{A})$  in (5).

 $egin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & a_{12} \ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{array}$ 

The following steps are valid to work out determinants of a square matrix of order 2:

- 1. Multiply the elements of the main diagonal
- 2. Multiply the elements of the off-diagonal elements
- 3. subtract the second step from the first

#### Consider the system of three linear equations in three unknowns

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 = b_1$$
  

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 = b_2$$
  

$$a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 = b_3$$

The solutions to this system  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  will have a **common denominator**, namely the determinant.

#### Computation

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11}a_{12}a_{13} \\ a_{21}a_{22}a_{23} \\ a_{31}a_{32}a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{cases} a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} \\ -a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{31}a_{22}a_{31} \end{vmatrix}$$

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#### Exercise: Work out the determinant of the following matrix

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#### Solution:

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -3 + 0 + 6 - 0 + 4 - 4 = 3$$

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# DETERMINANTS RULES

The generalisation of determinant for  $n \times n$  matrices is not straight forward and we will not see it. However, the next rules apply for the matrix  $A_n$ 

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- If  $\alpha$  is a real number,  $|\alpha \mathbf{A}| = \alpha^n |\mathbf{A}|$

In the real number system, for every non-zero number *a* there is another number such that  $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1$ . We call this number  $a^{-1}$  the inverse of *a*.

The simile to 1 in the matrix system is the identity matrix  $I_n$ , in this sense we say that **X** is the inverse of **A** if the next relation applies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \tag{6}$$

Then **A** is said to be invertible.

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The inverse of a matrix is unique, indeed assuming that **Y** and **X** are inverses of **A** and by (6)

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{I}\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A})\,\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\,(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{X}$$

provided it exists

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#### INVERSE OF A MATRIX INVERSE PROPERTIES

Let **A** and **B** be invertible  $n \times n$  matrices. Then:

- $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  is invertible, and  $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$
- **AB** is invertible, and  $(AB)^{-1} = (B)^{-1} (A)^{-1}$
- The transpose  $\mathbf{A}'$  is invertible, and  $(\mathbf{A}')^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})'$
- $(c\mathbf{A})^{-1} = c^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  whenever *c* is a number  $\neq 0$

Suppose we have a matrix **A**, then we need to find a matrix **B** such that  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = I$ . An efficient way to look for **B**, provided it exists, is

- 1. From the  $n \times 2n$  matrix (**A** : **I**)
- 2. Apply elementary operations to transform it into an  $n \times 2n$  matrix (**I** : **B**)
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**Example:** Find the inverse of

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

FINDING THE INVERSE

#### Solution:

1.

(	1	3	3	1	0	0	١
	1	3	4	0	1	0	
l	1	4	3	0	0	1	)

2. Interchange the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> rows

ſ	1	3	3   1	0	0 `
	1	4	3   0	0	1
l	1	3	$4 \mid 0$	1	0

3. Subtract the 1<sup>st</sup> row from 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> rows

4. Subtract 3 times the  $2^{nd}$  and  $3^{rd}$  rows from the  $1^{st}$  row

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### INVERSE OF A MATRIX IMPORTANCE

The most important feature of the inverse is that it will allow us to solve complex systems of equations such as (1)

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$
  
$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2$$
  
.....

 $a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$ 

#### IMPORTANCE

As before you can write this system in matrix form like in (3)

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}}$$

Hence as

Ax = b

Taking the inverse of **A** we would have solved the system in just one step:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

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