

Math 314

Topics for first exam

Chapter 1: Linear systems of equations

§1: Some examples

Systems of linear equations:

$$2x - 3y - z = 6$$

$$3x + 2y + z = 7$$

Goal: find simultaneous solutions: all x, y, z satisfying both equations.

Most general type of system:

$$a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

...

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

Example: input-output models

§2: Notations and a review of numbers

Set notation: $A \cup B$, $A \cap B$, $A \setminus B$

Number systems: natural, integers, rational, reals, complex

Some complex arithmetic:

$i = \sqrt{-1}$, pretend i behaves like a real number

complex numbers: standard form $z = a + bi$; addition, subtraction, multiplication

division: complex conjugate $\bar{z} = a - bi$

$$\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}; \quad \overline{zw} = \bar{z}\bar{w}$$

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = a^2 + b^2 \text{ (real!)}; \quad z_1/z_2 = (z_1 \cdot \bar{z}_2)/(z_2 \cdot \bar{z}_2)$$

Polar coordinates:

$$z = a + bi \text{ (complex number)} = (a, b) \text{ (point in plane)} =$$

$$(r, \theta) \text{ (distance from origin and angle with (positive) x-axis)}$$

$$z = a + bi = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = re^{i\theta}, \quad w = c + di = s(\cos \phi + i \sin \phi) = se^{i\phi}, \text{ then}$$

$$zw = rs(\cos(\theta + \phi) + i \sin(\theta + \phi)) = (rs)e^{i(\theta + \phi)}. \quad \text{setting } z = w \text{ yields}$$

$$z^n = r^n e^{i(n\theta)} \quad \text{(DeMoivre's formula)}$$

Think backwards; solve $z^n = w$

$$\text{Need: } r^n = s, \quad \cos(n\theta) = \cos \phi, \quad \sin(n\theta) = \sin \phi; \text{ i.e.}$$

$$r = s^{1/n}, \quad n\theta = \phi + 2k\pi, \text{ i.e., } \theta = \phi/n + 2k\pi/n$$

So $z^n = w$ has n distinct solutions, coming from $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$

§3: Gaussian elimination: basic ideas

$$3x + 5y = 2$$

$$2x + 3y = 1$$

Idea use $3x$ in first equation to eliminate $2x$ in second equation. How? Add a multiply of first equation to second. Then use y -term in new second equation to remove $5y$ from first!

The point: a solution to the original equations **must** also solve the new equations. The **real** point: it's much easier to figure out the solutions of the new equations!

Streamlining: keep only the essential information; throw away unneeded symbols!

$$\begin{array}{ll} 3x+5y=2 & \text{replace} \\ 2x+3y=1 & \text{with} \end{array} \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 3 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

We get an (**augmented**) **matrix** representing the system of equations. We carry out the same operations we used with equations, but do them to the rows of the matrix.

Three basic operations (elementary row operations):

- E_{ij} : switch i th and j th rows of the matrix
- $E_{ij}(m)$: add m times j th row to the i th row
- $E_i(m)$: multiply i th row by m

Terminology: first non-zero entry of a row = **leading entry**; leading entry used to zero out a column = **pivot**.

Basic procedure (Gauss-Jordan elimination): find non-zero entry in first column, switch up to first row (E_{1j}) (pivot in (1,1) position). Use $E_1(m)$ to make first entry a 1, then use $E_{1j}(m)$ operations to zero out the other entries of the first column. Then: find leftmost entry in remaining rows, switch to second row, use as a pivot to clear out the entries in the column below it. Continue (forward solving). When done, use pivots to clear out entries in column above the pivots (back-solving).

Variable in linear system corresponding to a pivot = **bound** variable; other variables = **free** variables

§4: **Gaussian elimination: general procedure**

The big fact: After elimination, the new system of linear equations have the exact **same solutions** as the old system. Because: row operations are reversible!

Reverse of E_{ij} is E_{ij} ; reverse of $E_{ij}(m)$ is $E_{ij}(-m)$; reverse of $E_i(m)$ is $E_i(1/m)$

So: you can get old equations from new ones; so solution to new equations **must** solve old equations **as well**.

Reduced row form: apply elementary row operations so turn matrix A into one so that

- (a) each row looks like $(000 \dots 0 * * \dots *)$; first $*$ = leading entry
- (b) leading entry for row below is further to the right

Reduced row **echelon** form: in addition, have

- (c) each leading entry is = 1
- (d) each leading entry is the only non-zero number in its column.

RRF can be achieved by forward solving; RREF by back-solving and $E_i(m)$'s

Elimination: every matrix can be put into RREF by elementary row operations.

Big Fact: If a matrix A is put into RREF by two different sets of row operations, you get the **same matrix**.

RREF of an augmented matrix: can read off solutions to linear system.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right) \text{ means } \begin{array}{l} x_4=3, x_2=1-x_3 \\ x_1=2-2x_3 \quad ; x_3 \text{ is free} \end{array}$$

Inconsistent systems: row of zeros in coefficient matrix, followed by a non-zero number (e.g., 2). Translates as $0=2$! System has no solutions.

Rank of a matrix = $r(A)$ = number of non-zero rows in RREF = number of pivots in RREF.

Nullity of a matrix = $n(A)$ = number of columns without a pivot = # columns - # pivots

rank = number of bound variables, nullity = number of free variables

rank \leq number of rows, number of columns (at most one pivot per row/column!)

rank + nullity = number of columns = number of variables

A = coefficient matrix, \tilde{A} = augmented matrix ($A = m \times n$ matrix)

system is consistent if and only if $r(A) = r(\tilde{A})$

$r(A)=n$: unique solution ; $r(A)< n$: infinitely many solutions

Chapter 2: Matrix algebra

§1: Matrix addition and scalar multiplication

Idea: take our ideas from vectors. Add entry by entry. Constant multiple of matrix: multiply entry by entry.

$\mathbf{0}$ = matrix all of whose entries are 0

Basic facts:

$A+B$ makes sense only if A and B are the same size ($m \times n$) matrix

$$A+B = B+A$$

$$(A+B)+C = A+(B+C)$$

$$A+\mathbf{0} = A$$

$$A+(-1)A = \mathbf{0}$$

cA has the same size as A

$$c(dA) = (cd)A$$

$$(c+d)A = cA + dA$$

$$c(A+B) = cA + cB$$

$$1A = A$$

§2: Matrix multiplication

Idea: **don't** multiply entry by entry! We want matrix multiplication to allow us to write a system of linear equations as $Ax=b$

Basic step: a row of A , times x , equals an **entry** of Ax . (row vector (a_1, \dots, a_n) times column vector (x_1, \dots, x_n) is $a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n$ ) This leads to:

In AB , each row of A is 'multiplied' by each column of B to obtain an entry of AB . Need: the length of the rows of A (= number of columns of A) = length of columns of B (= number of rows of B). I.e, in order to multiply, A must be $m \times n$, and B must be $n \times k$; AB is then $m \times k$.

Formula: (i,j)th entry of AB is $\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}$

I = identity matrix; square matrix ($n \times n$) with 1's on diagonal, 0's off diagonal

Basic facts:

$$AI = A = IA$$

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

$$c(AB) = (cA)B = A(cB)$$

$$(A+B)C = AC + BC$$

$$A(B+C) = AB + AC$$

In general, however it is **not** **not** true that AB and BA are the same; they are almost always different! ****

§3: Applications of matrix arithmetic

$Ax=b$; A m -by- n matrix. Think: x =vector=variable (size n), Ax = vector = image of x (size m)

i.e., A takes vectors in R^n and spits out vectors in R^m ; it's a function (which we call T_A) from R^n to R^m . More than that, it's a **linear** function:

$$T_A(ax+by) = aT_A(x) + bT_A(y)$$

With this new notation, matrix multiplication **becomes** composition of functions.

What do we **do** with matrix multiplication? Solve equations!

$Ax=b$; basic idea, try to find a matrix B with $BA=I$, so then $x = Ix = (BA)x = B(Ax) = Bb$ **solves** the equation. (How to **find** B ? Wait.....)

Another application: Markov chains

Idea: in any give month, a fixed percentage people using one product switch to another.

$$a_1 = .3a_0 + .4b_0 + .2c_0, b_1 = .4a_0 + .5b_0 + .6c_0, c_1 = .3a_0 + .1b_0 + .2c_0$$

New distribution, given initial distribution x , is Ax , where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} .3 & .4 & .2 \\ .4 & .5 & .6 \\ .3 & .1 & .2 \end{pmatrix}$$

More generally, a Markov chain consists of an (initial) probability distribution vector (entries are ≥ 0 and add up to 1) and a transition matrix A (entries are ≥ 0 and each column adds up to 1). The distribution evolves by multiplication by A . E.g, after 20 iterations, initial vector x evolves into $A^{20}x$.

§4: Special matrices and transposes

Elementary matrices:

A row operation (E_{ij} , $E_{ij}(m)$, $E_i(m)$) applied to a matrix A corresponds to multiplication (on the left) by a matrix (also denoted E_{ij} , $E_{ij}(m)$, $E_i(m)$) The matrices are obtained by applying the row operation to the identity matrix I_n . E.g., the 4×4 matrix $E_{13}(-2)$ looks like I , except it has a -2 in the (1,3)th entry.

The idea: if $A \rightarrow B$ by the elementary row operation E , then $B = EA$.

So if $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ by elementary row operations, then $C = E_2E_1A \dots$

Row reduction **is** matrix multiplication!

A scalar matrix A has the same number c in the diagonal entries, and 0's everywhere else (the idea: $AB = cB$)

A diagonal matrix has all entries zero off of the (main) diagonal

A upper triangular matrix has entries $=0$ below the diagonal, a lower triangular matrix is 0 above the diagonal. A triangular matrix is either upper or lower triangular.

A strictly triangular matrix is triangular, and has zeros **on** the diagonal, as well. They come in upper and lower flavors.

The **transpose** of a matrix A is the matrix A^T whose columns are the rows of A (and vice versa). A^T is A reflected across the main diagonal. $(a_{ij})^T = (a_{ji})$; $(m \times n)^T = (n \times m)$

Basic facts:

$$(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

$$(cA)^T = cA^T$$

$$(A^T)^T = A$$

Transpose of an elementary matrix is elementary:

$$E_{ij}^T = E_{ij}, E_{ij}(m)^T = E_{ji}(m), E_i(m)^T = E_i(m)$$

A matrix A is **symmetric** if $A^T = A$

An occasionally useful fact: AE , where E is an elementary matrix, is the result of an elementary **column** operation on A .

The transpose and rank:

For any pair of compatible matrices, $r(AB) \leq r(A)$

Consequences: $r(A^T) = r(A)$ for any matrix A ; $r(AB) \leq r(B)$, as well.

§5: Matrix inverses

One way to solve $Ax=b$: find a matrix B with $BA=I$. When is there such a matrix?

(Think about square matrices...) A an n -by- n matrix; $n=r(I)=r(BA) \leq r(A) \leq n$ implies that $r(A)=n$. This is necessary, and it is also sufficient!

$r(A)=n$, then the RREF of A has n pivots in n rows and columns, so has a pivot in every row, so the RREF of A is I . But! this means we can get to I from A by row operations, which correspond to multiplication by elementary matrices. *So* multiply A (on the left) by the right elementary matrices and you get I ; call the product of those matrices B and you get $BA=I$!

It turns out (by using the transpose) that $AB=I$ as well!

A matrix B is an **inverse** of A if $AB=I$ and $BA=I$; it turns out, the inverse of a matrix is always unique. We call it A^{-1} (and call A invertible).

Finding A^{-1} : row reduction! (of course...)

Build the "super-augmented" matrix $(A|I)$ (the matrix A with the identity matrix next to it). Row reduce A , and carry out the operations on the entire row of the S-A matrix (i.e., carry out the identical row operations on I). When done, if invertible+ the left-hand side of the S-A matrix will be I ; the right-hand side will be A^{-1} !

I.e., if $(A|I) \rightarrow (I|B)$ by row operations, then $I=BA$.

Basic facts:

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

if A and B are invertible, then so is AB , and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

$$(cA)^{-1} = (1/c)A^{-1}$$

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

If A is invertible, and $AB = AC$, then $B = C$; if $BA = CA$, then $B = C$.

Inverses of elementary matrices:

$$E_{ij}^{-1} = E_{ij}, E_{ij}(m)^{-1} = E_{ij}(-m), E_i(m)^{-1} = E_i(1/m)$$

Highly useful formula: for a 2-by-2 matrix,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } D=ad-bc, \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{D} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

(Note: need $D=ad-bc \neq 0$ for this to work....)

Some conditions for/consequences of invertibility: the following are all equivalent ($A = n$ -by- n matrix).

1. A is invertible,
2. $r(A) = n$.
3. The RREF of A is I_n .
4. Every linear system $Ax=b$ has a unique solution.
5. For one choice of b , $Ax=b$ has a unique solution (i.e., if one does, they all do...).
6. The equation $Ax=0$ has only the solution $x=0$.
7. There is a matrix B with $BA=I$.

The equivalence of 4. and 6. is sometimes stated as **Fredholm's alternative**: Either every equation $Ax=b$ has a unique solution, or the equation $Ax=0$ has a **non-trivial** solution (and only one of the alternatives can occur).