

OPMT 5701 Lecture Notes

1 Matrix Algebra

1. Gives us a shorthand way of writing a large system of equations.
2. Allows us to test for the existence of solutions to simultaneous systems.
3. Allows us to solve a simultaneous system.

DRAWBACK: Only works for linear systems. However, we can often convert non-linear to linear systems.

Example

$$y = ax^b$$
$$\ln y = \ln a + b \ln x$$

Matrices and Vectors

Given

$$y = 10 - x \Rightarrow x + y = 10$$
$$y = 2 + 3x \Rightarrow -3x + y = 2$$

In matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix of Coefficients Vector of Unknowns Vector of Constants

In general

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = d_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = d_2$$

.....

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

n-unknowns (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)

Matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \dots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \\ \vdots \\ d_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix shorthand

$$Ax = d$$

Where:

A= coefficient matrix or an array

x= vector of unknowns or an array

d= vector of constants or an array

Subscript notation

$$a_{ij}$$

is the coefficient found in the i-th row (i=1, ..., m) and the j-th column (j=1, ..., n)

1.1 Vectors as special matrices

The number of rows and the number of columns define the DIMENSION of a matrix.

A is m rows and n is columns or "m×n."

A matrix containing 1 column is called a "column VECTOR"

x is a n×1 column vector

d is a m×1 column vector

If x were arranged in a horizontal array we would have a row vector.

Row vectors are denoted by a prime

$$x' = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

A 1×1 vector is known as a scalar.

$$x = [4] \text{ is a scalar}$$

Matrix Operators

If we have two matrices, A and B, then

$$A = B \text{ iff } a_{ij} = b_{ij}$$

Addition and Subtraction of Matrices

Suppose A is an m×n matrix and B is a p×q matrix then A and B is possible only if m=p and n=q. Matrices must have the same dimensions.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (a_{11} + b_{11}) & (a_{12} + b_{12}) \\ (a_{21} + b_{21}) & (a_{22} + b_{22}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Subtraction is identical to addition

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (9-7) & (4-2) \\ (3-1) & (1-6) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar Multiplication

Suppose we want to multiply a matrix by a scalar

$$\begin{matrix} k & \times & A \\ 1 \times 1 & & m \times n \end{matrix}$$

We multiply every element in A by the scalar k

$$kA = \begin{bmatrix} ka_{11} & ka_{12} & \dots & ka_{1n} \\ ka_{21} & ka_{22} & \dots & ka_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ ka_{m1} & ka_{m2} & \dots & ka_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$\text{Let } k=3 \text{ and } A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

then kA=

$$kA = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 6 & 3 \times 2 \\ 3 \times 4 & 3 \times 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 6 \\ 12 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication of Matrices

To multiply two matrices, A and B, together it must be true that for

$$\begin{matrix} A & \times & B & = & C \\ m \times n & & n \times q & & m \times q \end{matrix}$$

That A must have the same number of columns (n) as B has rows (n).

The product matrix, C, will have the same number of rows as A and the same number of columns as B.

Example

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \times & B & = & C \\ (1 \times 3) & & (3 \times 4) & & (1 \times 4) \\ 1row & & 3rows & & 1row \\ 3cols & & 4cols & & 4cols \end{array}$$

In general

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} A & \times & B & \times & C & \times & D & = & E \\ (3 \times 2) & & (2 \times 5) & & (5 \times 4) & & (4 \times 1) & & (3 \times 1) \end{array}$$

To multiply two matrices:

- (1) Multiply each element in a given row by each element in a given column
- (2) Sum up their products

Example 1

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where:

$$c_{11} = a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} \text{ (sum of row 1 times column 1)}$$

$$c_{12} = a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \text{ (sum of row 1 times column 2)}$$

$$c_{21} = a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} \text{ (sum of row 2 times column 1)}$$

$$c_{22} = a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \text{ (sum of row 2 times column 2)}$$

Example 2

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (3 \times 1) & +(2 \times 3) & (3 \times 2) & +(2 \times 4) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 3

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (3 \times 2) & +(2 \times 1) & +(1 \times 4) \end{bmatrix} = [12]$$

12 is the inner product of two vectors.

Suppose

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } x' = [x_1 \ x_2]$$

therefore

$$\begin{aligned} x'x &= [x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [x_1^2 + x_2^2] \end{aligned}$$

However

xx' = 2 by 2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} [x_1 \ x_2] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 & x_1x_2 \\ x_2x_1 & x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 4

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 8 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ab = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \times 5) & + & (3 \times 9) \\ (2 \times 5) & + & (8 \times 9) \\ (4 \times 5) & + & (0 \times 9) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 32 \\ 82 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$Ax = d$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & x & d \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 6 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{array} \right] & = & \left[\begin{array}{c} 22 \\ 12 \\ 10 \end{array} \right] \\ (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) & & (3 \times 1) \end{array}$$

This produces

$$\begin{aligned} 6x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 &= 22 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 &= 12 \\ 4x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 &= 10 \end{aligned}$$

1.1.1 National Income Model

$$y = c + I_0 + G_0$$

$$C = a + bY$$

Arrange as

$$\begin{aligned} y - C &= I_0 + G_0 \\ -bY + C &= a \end{aligned}$$

Matrix form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & x & = & d \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -1 \\ -b & 1 \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{c} Y \\ C \end{array} \right] & = & \left[\begin{array}{c} I_0 + G_0 \\ a \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

1.1.2 Division in Matrix Algebra

In ordinary algebra

$$\frac{a}{b} = c$$

is well defined iff $b \neq 0$.

Now $\frac{1}{b}$ can be rewritten as b^{-1} , therefore $ab^{-1} = c$, also $b^{-1}a = c$.

But in matrix algebra

$$\frac{A}{B} = C$$

is not defined. However,

$$AB^{-1} = C$$

is well defined. BUT

$$AB^{-1} \neq B^{-1}A$$

B^{-1} is called the inverse of B

$$B^{-1} \neq \frac{1}{B}$$

In some ways B^{-1} has the same properties as b^{-1} but in other ways it differs. We will explore these differences later.

1.2 Linear Dependence

Suppose we have two equations

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + 2x_2 &= 1 \\ 3x_1 + 6x_2 &= 3\end{aligned}$$

To solve

$$\begin{aligned}3[-2x_2 + 1] - 6x_2 &= 3 \\ 6x_2 + 3 - 6x_2 &= 3 \\ 3 &= 3\end{aligned}$$

There is no solution. These two equations are linearly dependent. Equation 2 is equal to two times equation one.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$Ax = d$$

where A is a two column vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} U_1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_2 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Or A is two row vector

$$\begin{aligned}V'_1 &= [1 \quad 2] \\ V'_2 &= [3 \quad 6]\end{aligned}$$

Where column two is twice column one and/or row two is three times row one

$$2U_1 = U_2 \text{ or } 3V'_1 = V'_2$$

Linear Dependence Generally:

A set of vectors is said to be linearly dependent iff any one of them can be expressed as a linear combination of the remaining vectors.

Example:

Three vectors,

$$V_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad V_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \quad V_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

are linearly dependent since

$$3V_1 - 2V_2 = V_3$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

or expressed as

$$3V_1 - 2V_2 - V_3 = 0$$

General Rule

A set of vectors, V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n are linearly dependent if there exists a set of scalars ($i=1, \dots, n$). Not all equal to zero, such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n k_i V_i = 0$$

Note

$$\sum_{i=1}^n k_i V_i = k_1 V_1 + k_2 V_2 + \dots + k_n V_n$$

1.3 Commutative, Associative, and Distributive Laws

From Highschool algebra we know commutative law of addition,

$$a + b = b + a$$

commutative law of multiplication,

$$ab = ba$$

Associative law of addition,

$$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$$

associative law of multiplication,

$$(ab)c = a(bc)$$

Distributive law

$$a(b + c) = ab + ac$$

In matrix algebra most, but not all, of these laws are true.

1.3.1 I) Communicative Law of Addition

$$A + B = B + A$$

Since we are adding individual elements and $a_{ij} + b_{ij} = b_{ij} + a_{ij}$ for all i and j.

1.3.2 II) Similarly Associative Law of Addition

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

for the same reasons.

1.3.3 III) Matrix Multiplication

Matrix multiplication is not commutative

$$IB \neq BA$$

Example 1

Let A be 2×3 and B be 3×2

$$\begin{matrix} A & \times & B & = & C & \text{whereas} & B & \times & A & = & C \\ (2 \times 3) & & (3 \times 2) & & (2 \times 2) & & (3 \times 2) & & (2 \times 3) & & (3 \times 3) \end{matrix}$$

Example 2

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \times 0) + (2 \times 6) & (1 \times -1) + (2 \times 7) \\ (3 \times 0) + (4 \times 6) & (3 \times -1) + (4 \times 7) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 13 \\ 24 & 25 \end{bmatrix}$$

But

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} (0)(1) - (1)(3) & (0)(2) - (1)(4) \\ (6)(1) + (7)(3) & (6)(2) + (7)(4) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -4 \\ 27 & 40 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, we realize the distinction of post multiply and pre multiply. In the case

$$AB = C$$

B is pre multiplied by A, A is post multiplied by B.

1.3.4 IV) Associative Law

Matrix multiplication is associative

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

as long as their dimensions conform to our earlier rules of multiplication.

$$\begin{matrix} A & \times & B & \times & C \\ (m \times n) & & (n \times p) & & (p \times q) \end{matrix}$$

1.3.5 V) Distributive Law

Matrix multiplication is distributive

$$\begin{aligned} A(B + C) &= AB + AC && \text{Pre multiplication} \\ (B + C)A &= BA + CA && \text{Post multiplication} \end{aligned}$$

1.4 Identity Matrices and Null Matrices

1.4.1 Identity matrix:

is a square matrix with ones on its principal diagonals and zeros everywhere else.

$$I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix in scalar algebra we know

$$1 \times a = a \times 1 = a$$

In matrix algebra the identity matrix plays the same role

$$IA = AI = A$$

Example 1

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$IA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \times 1) + (0 \times 2) & (1 \times 3) + (0 \times 4) \\ (0 \times 1) + (1 \times 2) & (0 \times 3) + (1 \times 4) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$IA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = A \{I_2 \text{ Case}\}$$

$$AI = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = A \{I_3 \text{ Case}\}$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{matrix} AIB & = & (AI)B & = & A(IB) & = & AB \\ (m \times n)(n \times p) & & & & & & (m \times n)(n \times p) \end{matrix}$$

1.4.2 Null Matrices

A null matrix is simply a matrix where all elements equal zero.

$$0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad 0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(2×2) (2×3)

The rules of scalar algebra apply to matrix algebra in this case.

Example

$$a + 0 = a \Rightarrow \{scalar\}$$

$$A + 0 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = A \quad \{matrix\}$$

$$A \times 0 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

1.5 Idiosyncracies of matrix algebra

1) We know $AB \neq BA$

2) $ab=0$ implies a or $b=0$

In matrix

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

1.5.1 Transposes and Inverses

1) Transpose: is when the rows and columns are interchanged.

Transpose of $A=A'$ or A^T

Example

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 8 & -9 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 8 & 0 \\ -9 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B' = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetrix Matrix

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 4 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } A' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 4 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

A is a symmetric matrix.

Properties of Transposes

1) $(A')' = A$

2) $(A+B)' = A' + B'$

3) $(AB)' = B'A'$

Inverses and their Properties

In scalar algebra if

$$ax = b$$

then

$$x = \frac{b}{a} \text{ or } ba^{-1}$$

In matrix algebra

if

$$Ax = d$$

then

$$x = A^{-1}d$$

where A^{-1} is the inverse of A .

Properties of Inverses

1) Not all matrices have inverses

non-singular: if there is an inverse

singular: if there is no inverse

2) A matrix must be square in order to have an inverse. (Necessary but not sufficient)

3) In scalar algebra $\frac{a}{a} = 1$, in matrix algebra $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$

4) If an inverse exists then it must be unique.

Example

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{6} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ by factoring } \left\{ \frac{1}{6} \text{ is a scalar} \right\}$$

Post Multiplication

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{6} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{6} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Pre Multiplication

$$A^{-1}A = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Further properties

If A and B are square and non-singular then:

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

2) $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

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

Solving a linear system

Suppose

$$\begin{matrix} A & x & = & d \\ (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) & & (3 \times 1) \end{matrix}$$

then

$$\begin{matrix} A^{-1} & A & x & = & A^{-1} & d \\ (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) & & (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} I & x & = & A^{-1} & d \\ (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) & & (3 \times 3) & (3 \times 1) \end{matrix}$$

$$x = A^{-1}d$$

Example

$$Ax = d$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad d = \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 12 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{52} \begin{bmatrix} 18 & -16 & -10 \\ -13 & 26 & 13 \\ -17 & 18 & 21 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{52} \begin{bmatrix} 18 & -16 & -10 \\ -13 & 26 & 13 \\ -17 & 18 & 21 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 12 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1^* = 2 \quad x_2^* = 3 \quad x_3^* = 1$$

1.6 Linear Dependence and Determinants

Suppose we have the following

1. $x_1 + 2x_2 = 1$
2. $2x_1 + 4x_2 = 2$

where equation two is twice equation one. Therefore, there is no solution for x_1, x_2 .

In matrix form:

$$Ax = d$$

$$\begin{matrix} A & x & d \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} & = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

The determinant of the coefficient matrix is

$$|A| = (1)(4) - (2)(2) = 0$$

a determinant of zero tells us that the equations are linearly dependent. Sometimes called a "vanishing determinant."

In general, the determinant of a square matrix, A is written as $|A|$ or $\det A$.

For two by two case

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

where k is unique

any $k \neq 0$ implies linear independence

Example 1

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A| = (3 \times 5) - (1 \times 2) = 13 \quad \{\text{Non-singular}\}$$

Example 2

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 8 & 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|B| = (2 \times 24) - (6 \times 8) = 0 \quad \{\text{Singular}\}$$

Three by three case

$$\text{Given } A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$|A| = (a_1b_2c_3) + (a_2b_3c_1) + (b_1c_2a_3) - (a_3b_2c_1) - (a_2b_1c_3) - (b_3c_2a_1)$$

Cross-diagonals

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use visio to display cross diagonals

Multiple along the diagonals and add up their products

⇒The product along the BLUE lines are given a positive sign

⇒The product of the RED lines are negative.

1.7 Using Laplace expansion

⇒ The cross diagonal method does not work for matrices greater than three by three

⇒ Laplace expansion evaluates the determinant of a matrix, A, by means of subdeterminants of A.

Subdeterminants or Minors

Given A= $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$

By deleting the first row and first column, we get

$$|M_{11}| = \begin{bmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant of this matrix is the minor element a_1 .

$|M_{ij}| \equiv$ is the subdeterminant from deleting the i-th row and the j-th column.

Given A= $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$

then

$$M_{21} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad M_{31} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

1.7.1 Cofactors

A cofactor is a minor with a specific algebraic sign.

$$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} |M_{ij}|$$

therefore

$$C_{11} = (-1)^2 |M_{11}| = |M_{11}|$$

$$C_{21} = (-1)^3 |M_{21}| = -|M_{21}|$$

The determinant by Laplace

Expanding down the first column

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A| = a_{11} |C_{11}| + a_{21} |C_{21}| + a_{31} |C_{31}| = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_{i1} |C_{i1}|$$

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

Note: minus sign $(-1)^{(1+2)}$

$$|A| = a_{11} [a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}] - a_{21} [a_{12}a_{33} - a_{13}a_{32}] + a_{31} [a_{12}a_{23} - a_{13}a_{22}]$$

Laplace expansion can be used to expand along any row or any column.

Example

Third row

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

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(1) Expand the first column

$$|A| = 8 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} - 4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 6 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$|A| = (8 \times 0) - (4 \times 3) + (6 \times 1) = -6$$

(2) Expand the second column

$$|A| = -1 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 6 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 8 & 3 \\ 6 & 3 \end{vmatrix} - 0 \begin{vmatrix} 8 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$|A| = (-1 \times 6) + (0) - (0) = -6$$

Suggestion: Try to choose an easy row or column to expand. (i.e. the ones with zero's in it.)

1.8 Rank of a Matrix

Definition

The rank of a matrix is the maximum number linearly independent rows in the matrix.

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then the rank of A is

$$r(A) \leq \min [m, n]$$

Read as: the rank of A is less than or equal to the minimum of m or n.

Using Determinants to Find the Rank

- (1) If A is $n \times m$ and $|A|=0$
- (2) Then delete one row and one column, and find the determinant of this new $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix.
- (3) Continue this process until you have a non-zero determinant.

1.9 Matrix Inversion

Given an $n \times n$ matrix, A , the inverse of A is

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \bullet AdjA$$

where $AdjA$ is the adjoint matrix of A . $AdjA$ is the transpose of matrix A 's cofactor matrix. It is also the adjoint, which is an $n \times n$ matrix

Cofactor Matrix (denoted C)

The cofactor matrix of A is a matrix whose elements are the cofactors of the elements of A

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } C = \begin{bmatrix} |C_{11}| & |C_{12}| \\ |C_{21}| & |C_{22}| \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{21} \\ -a_{12} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow |A| = -2$$

Step 1: Find the cofactor matrix

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} |C_{11}| & |C_{12}| \\ |C_{21}| & |C_{22}| \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 2: Transpose the cofactor matrix

$$C^T = AdjA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 3: Multiply all the elements of $AdjA$ by $\frac{1}{|A|}$ to find A^{-1}

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \bullet AdjA = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 4: Check by $AA^{-1} = I$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} (3)(0) + (2)(\frac{1}{2}) & (3)(1) + (2)(-\frac{3}{2}) \\ (1)(0) + (0)(\frac{1}{2}) & (1)(1) + (0)(-\frac{3}{2}) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

1.10 Cramer's Rule

Suppose:

$$\text{Equation 1 } a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = d_1$$

$$\text{Equation 2 } b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 = d_2$$

or

$$\begin{matrix} A & x & = & d \\ \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

where

$$A = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \neq 0$$

Solve for x_1 by substitution

From equation 1

$$x_2 = \frac{d_1 - a_1x_1}{a_2}$$

and equation 2

$$x_2 = \frac{d_2 - b_1x_1}{b_2}$$

therefore:

$$\frac{d_1 - a_1x_1}{a_2} = \frac{d_2 - b_1x_1}{b_2}$$

Cross multiply

$$d_1b_2 - a_1b_2x_1 = d_2a_2 - b_1a_2x_1$$

Collect terms

$$d_1b_2 - d_2a_2 = (a_1b_2 - b_1a_2)x_1$$

$$x_1 = \frac{d_1b_2 - d_2a_2}{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2}$$

The denominator is the determinant of $|A|$

The numerator is the same as the denominator except d_1d_2 replaces a_1b_1 .

Cramer's Rule

$$x_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} d_1 & a_2 \\ d_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{d_1b_2 - d_2a_2}{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2}$$

Where the d vector replaces column 1 in the A matrix

To find x_2 replace column 2 with the d vector

$$x_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & d_1 \\ b_1 & d_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{a_1d_2 - d_1b_1}{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2}$$

Generally: to find x_i , replace column i with vector d; find the determinant.

$x_i =$ the ratio of two determinants

$$x_i = \frac{|A_i|}{|A|}$$

1.10.1 Example: The Market Model

$$\text{Equation 1 } Q^d = 10 - P \quad \text{Or} \quad Q + P = 10$$

$$\text{Equation 2 } Q^s = P - 2 \quad \text{Or} \quad -Q + P = 2$$

Matrix form

$$\begin{matrix} A & x & = & d \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} Q \\ P \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$$|A| = (1)(1) - (-1)(1) = 2$$

Find Q^e

$$Q^e = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 10 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{2} = \frac{10 - 2}{2} = 4$$

Find P^e

$$P^e = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 10 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix}}{2} = \frac{2 - (-10)}{2} = 6$$

Substitute P and Q into either equation 1 or equation 2 to verify

$$\begin{aligned} Q^d &= 10 - P \\ 10 - 6 &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

1.10.2 Example: National Income Model

$$Y = C + I_0 + G_0 \quad \text{Or} \quad Y - C = I_0 + G_0$$

$$C = a + bY \quad \text{Or} \quad -bY + c = a$$

In matrix form $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -b & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y \\ C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_0 + G_0 \\ a \end{bmatrix}$

Solve for Y^e

$$Y^e = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} I_0 + G_0 & -1 \\ a & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -b & 1 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{I_0 + G_0 + a}{1 - b}$$

Solve for C^e

$$C^e = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & I_0 + G_0 \\ -b & a \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -b & 1 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{a + b(I_0 + G_0)}{1 - b}$$