A useful way to test new ideas in matrix algebra, or to make conjectures, is to make calculations with matrices selected at random. Checking a property for a few matrices does not prove that the property holds in general, but it makes the property more believable. Also, if the property is actually false, making a few calculations may help to discover this.

36. [**M**] Write the command(s) that will create a 5×6 matrix with random entries. In what range of numbers do the entries lie? Tell how to create a 4×4 matrix with random integer entries between -9 and 9. [*Hint:* If x is a random number such that $0 < x < 1$, then $-9.5 < 19(x - .5) < 9.5$.]

37. [**M**] Construct random 4×4 matrices A and B to test whether $AB = BA$. The best way to do this is to compute $AB - BA$ and check whether this difference is the zero matrix. Then test $AB - BA$ for three more pairs of random 4×4 matrices. Report your conclusions.

38. [**M**] Construct a random 5×5 matrix A and test whether $(A + I)(A - I) = A^2 - I$. The best way to do this is to compute $(A + I)(A - I) - (A^2 - I)$ and verify that this difference is the zero matrix. Do this for three random matrices. Then test $(A + B)(A - B) = A^2 - B^2$ the same way for three pairs of random 4×4 matrices. Report your conclusions.

39. [**M**] Use at least three pairs of random 4×4 matrices A and B to test the equalities $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$ and $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$, as well as $(AB)^T = A^T B^T$. (See Exercise 37.) Report your conclusions. [*Note*: Most matrix programs use A' for A^T.]

40. [**M**] Let

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute S^k for $k = 2, \ldots, 6$.

41. [**M**] Describe in words what happens when A^5, A^{10}, A^{20}, and A^{30} are computed for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1/4 & 1/2 & 1/4 \\ 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/6 \\ 1/4 & 1/6 & 7/12 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. $A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. So $(A\mathbf{x})^T = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Also,

$$\mathbf{x}^T A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The quantities $(A\mathbf{x})^T$ and $\mathbf{x}^T A^T$ are equal, by Theorem 3(d). Next,

$$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 15 \\ 15 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = [\,25 + 9\,] = 34$$

A 1×1 matrix such as $\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x}$ is usually written without the brackets. Finally, $A^T\mathbf{x}^T$ is not defined, because $\mathbf{x}^T$ does not have two rows to match the two columns of A^T.

2. The fastest way to compute $A^2\mathbf{x}$ is to compute $A(A\mathbf{x})$. The product $A\mathbf{x}$ requires 16 multiplications, 4 for each entry, and $A(A\mathbf{x})$ requires 16 more. In contrast, the product A^2 requires 64 multiplications, 4 for each of the 16 entries in A^2. After that, $A^2\mathbf{x}$ takes 16 more multiplications, for a total of 80.

2.2 THE INVERSE OF A MATRIX

Matrix algebra provides tools for manipulating matrix equations and creating various useful formulas in ways similar to doing ordinary algebra with real numbers. This section investigates the matrix analogue of the reciprocal, or multiplicative inverse, of a nonzero number.

Recall that the multiplicative inverse of a number such as 5 is 1/5 or 5^{-1}. This inverse satisfies the equations

$$5^{-1} \cdot 5 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 5 \cdot 5^{-1} = 1$$

The matrix generalization requires *both* equations and avoids the slanted-line notation (for division) because matrix multiplication is not commutative. Furthermore, a full generalization is possible only if the matrices involved are square.[1]

An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be **invertible** if there is an $n \times n$ matrix C such that

$$CA = I \quad \text{and} \quad AC = I$$

where $I = I_n$, the $n \times n$ identity matrix. In this case, C is an **inverse** of A. In fact, C is uniquely determined by A, because if B were another inverse of A, then $B = BI = B(AC) = (BA)C = IC = C$. This unique inverse is denoted by A^{-1}, so that

$$A^{-1}A = I \quad \text{and} \quad AA^{-1} = I$$

A matrix that is *not* invertible is sometimes called a **singular matrix**, and an invertible matrix is called a **nonsingular matrix**.

EXAMPLE 1 If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$ and $C = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and}$$

$$CA = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $C = A^{-1}$. ■

Here is a simple formula for the inverse of a 2×2 matrix, along with a test to tell if the inverse exists.

THEOREM 4

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. If $ad - bc \neq 0$, then A is invertible and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

If $ad - bc = 0$, then A is not invertible.

The simple proof of Theorem 4 is outlined in Exercises 25 and 26. The quantity $ad - bc$ is called the **determinant** of A, and we write

$$\det A = ad - bc$$

Theorem 4 says that a 2×2 matrix A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

[1] One could say that an $m \times n$ matrix A is invertible if there exist $n \times m$ matrices C and D such that $CA = I_n$ and $AD = I_m$. However, these equations imply that A is square and $C = D$. Thus A is invertible as defined above. See Exercises 23–25 in Section 2.1.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

SOLUTION Since $\det A = 3(6) - 4(5) = -2 \neq 0$, A is invertible, and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2}\begin{bmatrix} 6 & -4 \\ -5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6/(-2) & -4/(-2) \\ -5/(-2) & 3/(-2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 5/2 & -3/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Invertible matrices are indispensable in linear algebra—mainly for algebraic calculations and formula derivations, as in the next theorem. There are also occasions when an inverse matrix provides insight into a mathematical model of a real-life situation, as in Example 3, below.

THEOREM 5

If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

PROOF Take any $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. A solution exists because if $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ is substituted for $\mathbf{x}$, then $A\mathbf{x} = A(A^{-1}\mathbf{b}) = (AA^{-1})\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}$. So $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ is a solution. To prove that the solution is unique, show that if $\mathbf{u}$ is any solution, then $\mathbf{u}$, in fact, must be $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$. Indeed, if $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$, we can multiply both sides by A^{-1} and obtain

$$A^{-1}A\mathbf{u} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}, \quad I\mathbf{u} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{u} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

EXAMPLE 3 A horizontal elastic beam is supported at each end and is subjected to forces at points 1, 2, 3, as shown in Fig. 1. Let $\mathbf{f}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ list the forces at these points, and let $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ list the amounts of deflection (that is, movement) of the beam at the three points. Using Hooke's law from physics, it can be shown that

$$\mathbf{y} = D\mathbf{f}$$

where D is a *flexibility matrix*. Its inverse is called the *stiffness matrix*. Describe the physical significance of the columns of D and D^{-1}.

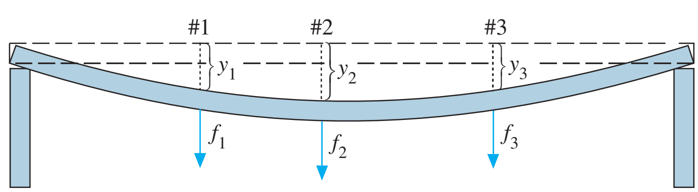


FIGURE 1 Deflection of an elastic beam.

SOLUTION Write $I_3 = [\,\mathbf{e}_1 \quad \mathbf{e}_2 \quad \mathbf{e}_3\,]$ and observe that

$$D = DI_3 = [\,D\mathbf{e}_1 \quad D\mathbf{e}_2 \quad D\mathbf{e}_3\,]$$

Interpret the vector $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ as a unit force applied downward at point 1 on the beam (with zero force at the other two points). Then $D\mathbf{e}_1$, the first column of D, lists the beam deflections due to a unit force at point 1. Similar descriptions apply to the second and third columns of D.

To study the stiffness matrix D^{-1}, observe that the equation $\mathbf{f} = D^{-1}\mathbf{y}$ computes a force vector $\mathbf{f}$ when a deflection vector $\mathbf{y}$ is given. Write

$$D^{-1} = D^{-1}I_3 = [\,D^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1 \quad D^{-1}\mathbf{e}_2 \quad D^{-1}\mathbf{e}_3\,]$$

Now interpret $\mathbf{e}_1$ as a deflection vector. Then $D^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1$ lists the forces that create the deflection. That is, the first column of D^{-1} lists the forces that must be applied at the three points to produce a unit deflection at point 1 and zero deflections at the other points. Similarly, columns 2 and 3 of D^{-1} list the forces required to produce unit deflections at points 2 and 3, respectively. In each column, one or two of the forces must be negative (point upward) to produce a unit deflection at the desired point and zero deflections at the other two points. If the flexibility is measured, for example, in inches of deflection per pound of load, then the stiffness matrix entries are given in pounds of load per inch of deflection. ■

The formula in Theorem 5 is seldom used to solve an equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ numerically because row reduction of $[\,A \quad \mathbf{b}\,]$ is nearly always faster. (Row reduction is usually more accurate, too, when computations involve rounding off numbers.) One possible exception is the 2×2 case. In this case, mental computations to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ are sometimes easier using the formula for A^{-1}, as in the next example.

EXAMPLE 4 Use the inverse of the matrix A in Example 2 to solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + 4x_2 &= 3 \\ 5x_1 + 6x_2 &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

SOLUTION This system is equivalent to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, so

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 5/2 & -3/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$ ■

The next theorem provides three useful facts about invertible matrices.

THEOREM 6

a. If A is an invertible matrix, then A^{-1} is invertible and

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

b. If A and B are $n \times n$ invertible matrices, then so is AB, and the inverse of AB is the product of the inverses of A and B in the reverse order. That is,

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

c. If A is an invertible matrix, then so is A^T, and the inverse of A^T is the transpose of A^{-1}. That is,

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

PROOF To verify statement (a), find a matrix C such that

$$A^{-1}C = I \quad \text{and} \quad CA^{-1} = I$$

In fact, these equations are satisfied with A in place of C. Hence A^{-1} is invertible, and A is its inverse. Next, to prove statement (b), compute:

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

A similar calculation shows that $(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = I$. For statement (c), use Theorem 3(d), read from right to left, $(A^{-1})^T A^T = (AA^{-1})^T = I^T = I$. Similarly, $A^T(A^{-1})^T = I^T = I$. Hence A^T is invertible, and its inverse is $(A^{-1})^T$. ■

The following generalization of Theorem 6(b) is needed later.

The product of $n \times n$ invertible matrices is invertible, and the inverse is the product of their inverses in the reverse order.

There is an important connection between invertible matrices and row operations that leads to a method for computing inverses. As we shall see, an invertible matrix A is row equivalent to an identity matrix, and we can find A^{-1} by *watching the row reduction of A to I*.

Elementary Matrices

An **elementary matrix** is one that is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on an identity matrix. The next example illustrates the three kinds of elementary matrices.

EXAMPLE 5 Let

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute E_1A, E_2A, and E_3A, and describe how these products can be obtained by elementary row operations on A.

SOLUTION Verify that

$$E_1A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g-4a & h-4b & i-4c \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2A = \begin{bmatrix} d & e & f \\ a & b & c \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix},$$

$$E_3A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 5g & 5h & 5i \end{bmatrix}.$$

Addition of -4 times row 1 of A to row 3 produces E_1A. (This is a row replacement operation.) An interchange of rows 1 and 2 of A produces E_2A, and multiplication of row 3 of A by 5 produces E_3A. ■

Left-multiplication (that is, multiplication on the left) by E_1 in Example 5 has the same effect on any $3 \times n$ matrix. It adds -4 times row 1 to row 3. In particular, since $E_1 \cdot I = E_1$, we see that E_1 *itself* is produced by this same row operation on the identity. Thus Example 5 illustrates the following general fact about elementary matrices. See Exercises 27 and 28.

> If an elementary row operation is performed on an $m \times n$ matrix A, the resulting matrix can be written as EA, where the $m \times m$ matrix E is created by performing the same row operation on I_m.

Since row operations are reversible, as shown in Section 1.1, elementary matrices are invertible, for if E is produced by a row operation on I, then there is another row operation of the same type that changes E back into I. Hence there is an elementary matrix F such that $FE = I$. Since E and F correspond to reverse operations, $EF = I$, too.

Each elementary matrix E is invertible. The inverse of E is the elementary matrix of the same type that transforms E back into I.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the inverse of $E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

SOLUTION To transform E_1 into I, add $+4$ times row 1 to row 3. The elementary matrix that does this is

$$E_1^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ +4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The following theorem provides the best way to "visualize" an invertible matrix, and the theorem leads immediately to a method for finding the inverse of a matrix.

THEOREM 7

An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if and only if A is row equivalent to I_n, and in this case, any sequence of elementary row operations that reduces A to I_n also transforms I_n into A^{-1}.

PROOF Suppose that A is invertible. Then, since the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ (Theorem 5), A has a pivot position in every row (Theorem 4 in Section 1.4). Because A is square, the n pivot positions must be on the diagonal, which implies that the reduced echelon form of A is I_n. That is, $A \sim I_n$.

Now suppose, conversely, that $A \sim I_n$. Then, since each step of the row reduction of A corresponds to left-multiplication by an elementary matrix, there exist elementary matrices $E_1, \dots, E_p$ such that

$$A \sim E_1 A \sim E_2(E_1 A) \sim \cdots \sim E_p(E_{p-1} \cdots E_1 A) = I_n$$

That is,

$$E_p \cdots E_1 A = I_n \tag{1}$$

Since the product $E_p \cdots E_1$ of invertible matrices is invertible, (1) leads to

$$\begin{aligned} (E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1}(E_p \cdots E_1)A &= (E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1} I_n \\ A &= (E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus A is invertible, as it is the inverse of an invertible matrix (Theorem 6). Also,

$$A^{-1} = [\,(E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1}\,]^{-1} = E_p \cdots E_1$$

Then $A^{-1} = E_p \cdots E_1 \cdot I_n$, which says that A^{-1} results from applying $E_1, \dots, E_p$ successively to I_n. This is the same sequence in (1) that reduced A to I_n.

An Algorithm for Finding A^{-1}

If we place A and I side-by-side to form an augmented matrix $[\,A \quad I\,]$, then row operations on this matrix produce identical operations on A and on I. By Theorem 7, either there are row operations that transform A to I_n and I_n to A^{-1} or else A is not invertible.

ALGORITHM FOR FINDING A^{-1}

Row reduce the augmented matrix $[\,A \quad I\,]$. If A is row equivalent to I, then $[\,A \quad I\,]$ is row equivalent to $[\,I \quad A^{-1}\,]$. Otherwise, A does not have an inverse.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the inverse of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$, if it exists.

SOLUTION

$$[\,A \quad I\,] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -4 & 0 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 7 shows, since $A \sim I$, that A is invertible, and

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is a good idea to check the final answer:

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is not necessary to check that $A^{-1}A = I$ since A is invertible. ■

Another View of Matrix Inversion

Denote the columns of I_n by $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$. Then row reduction of $[\,A \quad I\,]$ to $[\,I \quad A^{-1}\,]$ can be viewed as the simultaneous solution of the n systems

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_1, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_2, \quad \dots, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_n \tag{2}$$

where the "augmented columns" of these systems have all been placed next to A to form $[\,A \quad \mathbf{e}_1 \quad \mathbf{e}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{e}_n\,] = [\,A \quad I\,]$. The equation $AA^{-1} = I$ and the definition of matrix multiplication show that the columns of A^{-1} are precisely the solutions of the systems in (2). This observation is useful because some applied problems may require finding only one or two columns of A^{-1}. In this case, only the corresponding systems in (2) need be solved.

NUMERICAL NOTE

WEB

In practical work, A^{-1} is seldom computed, unless the entries of A^{-1} are needed. Computing both A^{-1} and $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ takes about three times as many arithmetic operations as solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ by row reduction, and row reduction may be more accurate.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Use determinants to determine which of the following matrices are invertible.

a. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -9 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ b. $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -9 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ c. $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & -9 \\ -4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

2. Find the inverse of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 \\ -1 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, if it exists.

2.2 EXERCISES

Find the inverses of the matrices in Exercises 1–4.

1. $\begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ -6 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ 4 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

5. Use the inverse found in Exercise 1 to solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} 8x_1 + 6x_2 &= 2 \\ 5x_1 + 4x_2 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

6. Use the inverse found in Exercise 3 to solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} 7x_1 + 3x_2 &= -9 \\ -6x_1 - 3x_2 &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

7. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{b}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

   a. Find A^{-1}, and use it to solve the four equations

   $$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_3, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_4$$

   b. The four equations in part (a) can be solved by the *same* set of row operations, since the coefficient matrix is the same in each case. Solve the four equations in part (a) by row reducing the augmented matrix $[\,A \;\; \mathbf{b}_1 \;\; \mathbf{b}_2 \;\; \mathbf{b}_3 \;\; \mathbf{b}_4\,]$.

8. Suppose P is invertible and $A = PBP^{-1}$. Solve for B in terms of A.

In Exercises 9 and 10, mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

9. a. In order for a matrix B to be the inverse of A, the equations $AB = I$ and $BA = I$ must both be true.

   b. If A and B are $n \times n$ and invertible, then $A^{-1}B^{-1}$ is the inverse of AB.

   c. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and $ab - cd \neq 0$, then A is invertible.

   d. If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent for *each* $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

   e. Each elementary matrix is invertible.

10. a. If A is invertible, then elementary row operations that reduce A to the identity I_n also reduce A^{-1} to I_n.

   b. If A is invertible, then the inverse of A^{-1} is A itself.

   c. A product of invertible $n \times n$ matrices is invertible, and the inverse of the product is the product of their inverses in the same order.

   d. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_j$ is consistent for every $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, then A is invertible. Note: $\mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ represent the columns of the identity matrix.

   e. If A can be row reduced to the identity matrix, then A must be invertible.

11. Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, and let B be an $n \times p$ matrix. Show that the equation $AX = B$ has a unique solution $A^{-1}B$.

12. Use matrix algebra to show that if A is invertible and D satisfies $AD = I$, then $D = A^{-1}$.

13. Suppose $AB = AC$, where B and C are $n \times p$ matrices and A is invertible. Show that $B = C$. Is this true, in general, when A is not invertible?

14. Suppose $(B - C)D = 0$, where B and C are $m \times n$ matrices and D is invertible. Show that $B = C$.

15. Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, and let B be an $n \times p$ matrix. Explain why $A^{-1}B$ can be computed by row reduction:

If $[\,A \quad B\,] \sim \cdots \sim [\,I \quad X\,]$, then $X = A^{-1}B$.

If A is larger than 2×2, then row reduction of $[A \quad B]$ is much faster than computing both A^{-1} and $A^{-1}B$.

16. Suppose A and B are $n \times n$ matrices, B is invertible, and AB is invertible. Show that A is invertible. [*Hint:* Let $C = AB$, and solve this equation for A.]

17. Suppose A, B, and C are invertible $n \times n$ matrices. Show that ABC is also invertible by producing a matrix D such that $(ABC)D = I$ and $D(ABC) = I$.

18. Solve the equation $AB = BC$ for A, assuming that A, B, and C are square and B is invertible.

19. If A, B, and C are $n \times n$ invertible matrices, does the equation $C^{-1}(A + X)B^{-1} = I_n$ have a solution, X? If so, find it.

20. Suppose A, B, and X are $n \times n$ matrices with A, X, and $A - AX$ invertible, and suppose

$$(A - AX)^{-1} = X^{-1}B \qquad (3)$$

a. Explain why B is invertible.

b. Solve equation (3) for X. If a matrix needs to be inverted, explain why that matrix is invertible.

21. Explain why the columns of an $n \times n$ matrix A are linearly independent when A is invertible.

22. Explain why the columns of an $n \times n$ matrix A span $\mathbb{R}^n$ when A is invertible. [*Hint:* Review Theorem 4 in Section 1.4.]

23. Suppose A is $n \times n$ and the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution. Explain why A has n pivot columns and A is row equivalent to I_n. By Theorem 7, this shows that A must be invertible. (This exercise and Exercise 24 will be cited in Section 2.3.)

24. Suppose A is $n \times n$ and the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Explain why A must be invertible. [*Hint:* Is A row equivalent to I_n?]

Exercises 25 and 26 prove Theorem 4 for $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$.

25. Show that if $ad - bc = 0$, then the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has more than one solution. Why does this imply that A is not invertible? [*Hint:* First, consider $a = b = 0$. Then, if a and b are not both zero, consider the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$.]

26. Show that if $ad - bc \neq 0$, the formula for A^{-1} works.

Exercises 27 and 28 prove special cases of the facts about elementary matrices stated in the box following Example 5. Here A is a 3×3 matrix and $I = I_3$. (A general proof would require slightly more notation.)

27. Let A be a 3×3 matrix.

a. Use equation (2) from Section 2.1 to show that $\text{row}_i(A) = \text{row}_i(I) \cdot A$, for $i = 1, 2, 3$.

b. Show that if rows 1 and 2 of A are interchanged, then the result may be written as EA, where E is an elementary matrix formed by interchanging rows 1 and 2 of I.

c. Show that if row 3 of A is multiplied by 5, then the result may be written as EA, where E is formed by multiplying row 3 of I by 5.

28. Suppose row 2 of A is replaced by $\text{row}_2(A) - 3 \cdot \text{row}_1(A)$. Show that the result is EA, where E is formed from I by replacing $\text{row}_2(I)$ by $\text{row}_2(I) - 3 \cdot \text{row}_1(A)$.

Find the inverses of the matrices in Exercises 29–32, if they exist. Use the algorithm introduced in this section.

29. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 4 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$ **30.** $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

31. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ **32.** $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ -4 & -7 & 3 \\ -2 & -6 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

33. Use the algorithm from this section to find the inverses of

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let A be the corresponding $n \times n$ matrix, and let B be its inverse. Guess the form of B, and then show that $AB = I$.

34. Repeat the strategy of Exercise 33 to guess the inverse B of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ n & n & n & \cdots & n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Show that $AB = I$.

35. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -7 & -3 \\ 2 & 15 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the third column of A^{-1} without computing the other columns.

36. [**M**] Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -25 & -9 & -27 \\ 536 & 185 & 537 \\ 154 & 52 & 143 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the second and third columns of A^{-1} without computing the first column.

37. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Construct a 2×3 matrix C (by trial and error) using only $1, -1$, and 0 as entries, such that $CA = I_2$. Compute AC and note that $AC \neq I_3$.

38. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Construct a 4×2 matrix D using only 1 and 0 as entries, such that $AD = I_2$. Is it possible that $CA = I_4$ for some 4×2 matrix C? Why or why not?

39. [**M**] Let

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} .011 & .003 & .001 \\ .003 & .009 & .003 \\ .001 & .003 & .011 \end{bmatrix}$$

be a flexibility matrix, with flexibility measured in inches per pound. Suppose that forces of 40, 50, and 30 lb are applied at points 1, 2, and 3, respectively, in Fig. 1 of Example 3. Find the corresponding deflections.

40. [**M**] Compute the stiffness matrix D^{-1} for D in Exercise 39. List the forces needed to produce a deflection of .04 in. at point 3, with zero deflections at the other points.

41. [**M**] Let

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} .0130 & .0050 & .0020 & .0010 \\ .0050 & .0100 & .0040 & .0020 \\ .0020 & .0040 & .0100 & .0050 \\ .0010 & .0020 & .0050 & .0130 \end{bmatrix}$$

be a flexibility matrix for an elastic beam such as the one in Example 3, with four points at which force is applied. Units are centimeters per newton of force. Measurements at the four points show deflections of .07, .12, .16, and .12 cm. Determine the forces at the four points.

42. [**M**] With D as in Exercise 41, determine the forces that produce a deflection of .22 cm at the second point on the beam, with zero deflections at the other three points. How is the answer related to the entries in D^{-1}? [*Hint:* First answer the question when the deflection is 1 cm at the second point.]

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. a. $\det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -9 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \cdot 6 - (-9) \cdot 2 = 18 + 18 = 36$. The determinant is nonzero, so the matrix is invertible.

b. $\det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -9 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \cdot 5 - (-9) \cdot 0 = 20 \neq 0$. The matrix is invertible.

c. $\det \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -9 \\ -4 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = 6 \cdot 6 - (-9)(-4) = 36 - 36 = 0$. The matrix is not invertible.

2. $$[\,A \quad I\,] \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & -4 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 10 & -5 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -7 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So $[\,A \quad I\,]$ is row equivalent to a matrix of the form $[\,B \quad D\,]$, where B is square and has a row of zeros. Further row operations will not transform B into I, so we stop. A does not have an inverse.

2.3 CHARACTERIZATIONS OF INVERTIBLE MATRICES

This section provides a review of most of the concepts introduced in Chapter 1, in relation to systems of n linear equations in n unknowns and to *square* matrices. The main result is Theorem 8.

THEOREM 8 **The Invertible Matrix Theorem**

Let A be a square $n \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are equivalent. That is, for a given A, the statements are either all true or all false.

a. A is an invertible matrix.
b. A is row equivalent to the $n \times n$ identity matrix.
c. A has n pivot positions.
d. The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.
e. The columns of A form a linearly independent set.
f. The linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is one-to-one.
g. The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.
h. The columns of A span $\mathbb{R}^n$.
i. The linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.
j. There is an $n \times n$ matrix C such that $CA = I$.
k. There is an $n \times n$ matrix D such that $AD = I$.
l. A^T is an invertible matrix.

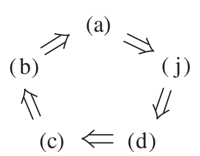
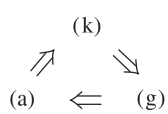


FIGURE 1

First, we need some notation. If the truth of statement (a) always implies that statement (j) is true, we say that (a) *implies* (j) and write (a) $\Rightarrow$ (j). The proof will establish the "circle" of implications shown in Fig. 1. If any one of these five statements is true, then so are the others. Finally, the proof will link the remaining statements of the theorem to the statements in this circle.

PROOF If statement (a) is true, then A^{-1} works for C in (j), so (a) $\Rightarrow$ (j). Next, (j) $\Rightarrow$ (d) by Exercise 23 in Section 2.1. (Turn back and read the exercise.) Also, (d) $\Rightarrow$ (c) by Exercise 23 in Section 2.2. If A is square and has n pivot positions, then the pivots must lie on the main diagonal, in which case the reduced echelon form of A is I_n. Thus (c) $\Rightarrow$ (b). Also, (b) $\Rightarrow$ (a) by Theorem 7 in Section 2.2. This completes the circle in Fig. 1.



(g) $\Leftrightarrow$ (h) $\Leftrightarrow$ (i)

(d) $\Leftrightarrow$ (e) $\Leftrightarrow$ (f)

(a) $\Leftrightarrow$ (l)

Next, (a) $\Rightarrow$ (k) because A^{-1} works for D. Also, (k) $\Rightarrow$ (g) by Exercise 26 in Section 2.1, and (g) $\Rightarrow$ (a) by Exercise 24 in Section 2.2. So (k) and (g) are linked to the circle. Further, (g), (h), and (i) are equivalent for any matrix, by Theorem 4 in Section 1.4 and Theorem 12(a) in Section 1.9. Thus, (h) and (i) are linked through (g) to the circle.

Since (d) is linked to the circle, so are (e) and (f), because (d), (e), and (f) are all equivalent for *any* matrix A. (See Section 1.7 and Theorem 12(b) in Section 1.9.) Finally, (a) $\Rightarrow$ (l) by Theorem 6(c) in Section 2.2, and (l) $\Rightarrow$ (a) by the same theorem with A and A^T interchanged. This completes the proof. ■

Because of Theorem 5 in Section 2.2, statement (g) in Theorem 8 could also be written as "The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a *unique* solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$." This statement certainly implies (b) and hence implies that A is invertible.

The next fact follows from Theorem 8 and Exercise 12 in Section 2.2.

Let A and B be square matrices. If $AB = I$, then A and B are both invertible, with $B = A^{-1}$ and $A = B^{-1}$.

The Invertible Matrix Theorem divides the set of all $n \times n$ matrices into two disjoint classes: the invertible (nonsingular) matrices, and the noninvertible (singular) matrices. Each statement in the theorem describes a property of every $n \times n$ invertible matrix. The *negation* of a statement in the theorem describes a property of every $n \times n$ singular matrix. For instance, an $n \times n$ singular matrix is *not* row equivalent to I_n, does *not* have n pivot positions, and has linearly *dependent* columns. Negations of other statements are considered in the exercises.

EXAMPLE 1 Use the Invertible Matrix Theorem to decide if A is invertible:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & -2 \\ -5 & -1 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

So A has three pivot positions and hence is invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, statement (c). ■

SG Expanded Table for the IMT 2–10

The power of the Invertible Matrix Theorem lies in the connections it provides among so many important concepts, such as linear independence of columns of a matrix A and the existence of solutions to equations of the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. It should be emphasized, however, that the Invertible Matrix Theorem *applies only to square matrices*. For example, if the columns of a 4×3 matrix are linearly independent, we cannot use the Invertible Matrix Theorem to conclude anything about the existence or nonexistence of solutions to equations of the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

Invertible Linear Transformations

Recall from Section 2.1 that matrix multiplication corresponds to composition of linear transformations. When a matrix A is invertible, the equation $A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ can be viewed as a statement about linear transformations. See Fig. 2.

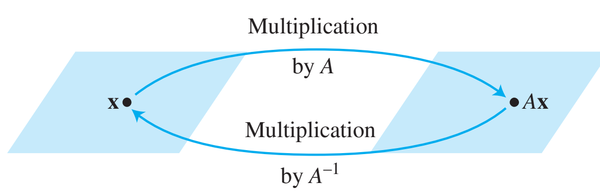


FIGURE 2 A^{-1} transforms $A\mathbf{x}$ back to $\mathbf{x}$.

A linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be **invertible** if there exists a function $S : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$S(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x} \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n \tag{1}$$

$$T(S(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x} \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n \tag{2}$$

The next theorem shows that if such an S exists, it is unique and must be a linear transformation. We call S the **inverse** of T and write it as T^{-1}.

THEOREM 9

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear transformation and let A be the standard matrix for T. Then T is invertible if and only if A is an invertible matrix. In that case, the linear transformation S given by $S(\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ is the unique function satisfying equations (1) and (2).

PROOF Suppose that T is invertible. Then (2) shows that T is onto $\mathbb{R}^n$, for if $\mathbf{b}$ is in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{x} = S(\mathbf{b})$, then $T(\mathbf{x}) = T(S(\mathbf{b})) = \mathbf{b}$, so each $\mathbf{b}$ is in the range of T. Thus A is invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, statement (i).

Conversely, suppose that A is invertible, and let $S(\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{x}$. Then, S is a linear transformation, and S obviously satisfies (1) and (2). For instance,

$$S(T(\mathbf{x})) = S(A\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$$

Thus T is invertible. The proof that S is unique is outlined in Exercise 38. ■

EXAMPLE 2 What can you say about a one-to-one linear transformation T from $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^n$?

SOLUTION The columns of the standard matrix A of T are linearly independent (by Theorem 12 in Section 1.9). So A is invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, and T maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ *onto* $\mathbb{R}^n$. Also, T is invertible, by Theorem 9. ■

NUMERICAL NOTES

In practical work, you might occasionally encounter a "nearly singular" or **ill-conditioned** matrix—an invertible matrix that can become singular if some of its entries are changed ever so slightly. In this case, row reduction may produce fewer than n pivot positions, as a result of roundoff error. Also, roundoff error can sometimes make a singular matrix appear to be invertible.

WEB

Some matrix programs will compute a **condition number** for a square matrix. The larger the condition number, the closer the matrix is to being singular. The condition number of the identity matrix is 1. A singular matrix has an infinite condition number. In extreme cases, a matrix program may not be able to distinguish between a singular matrix and an ill-conditioned matrix.

Exercises 41–45 show that matrix computations can produce substantial error when a condition number is large.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Determine if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible.
2. Suppose that for a certain $n \times n$ matrix A, statement (g) of the Invertible Matrix Theorem is *not* true. What can you say about equations of the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$?
3. Suppose that A and B are $n \times n$ matrices and the equation $AB\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has a nontrivial solution. What can you say about the matrix AB?

2.3 EXERCISES

Unless otherwise specified, assume that all matrices in these exercises are $n \times n$. Determine which of the matrices in Exercises 1–10 are invertible. Use as few calculations as possible. Justify your answers.

1. $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ -3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 6 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & -4 & 0 \\ 8 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

5. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -3 \\ 2 & 0 & 4 \\ -4 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

6. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & -6 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 \\ -3 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

7. $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 8 & -3 \\ -2 & -6 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 7 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

9. [M] $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -3 & -7 \\ -6 & 9 & 9 & 9 \\ 7 & -5 & 10 & 19 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

10. [M] $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 1 & 7 & 9 \\ 6 & 4 & 2 & 8 & -8 \\ 7 & 5 & 3 & 10 & 9 \\ 9 & 6 & 4 & -9 & -5 \\ 8 & 5 & 2 & 11 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 11 and 12, the matrices are all $n \times n$. Each part of the exercises is an *implication* of the form "If ⟨ statement 1 ⟩, then ⟨ statement 2 ⟩." Mark an implication as True if the truth of ⟨ statement 2 ⟩ *always* follows whenever ⟨ statement 1 ⟩ happens to be true. An implication is False if there is an instance in which ⟨ statement 2 ⟩ is false but ⟨ statement 1 ⟩ is true. Justify each answer.

11. a. If the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution, then A is row equivalent to the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

b. If the columns of A span $\mathbb{R}^n$, then the columns are linearly independent.

c. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

d. If the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has a nontrivial solution, then A has fewer than n pivot positions.

e. If A^T is not invertible, then A is not invertible.

12. a. If there is an $n \times n$ matrix D such that $AD = I$, then $DA = I$.

b. If the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^n$, then the row reduced echelon form of A is I.

c. If the columns of A are linearly independent, then the columns of A span $\mathbb{R}^n$.

d. If the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, then the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is not one-to-one.

e. If there is a $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent, then the solution is unique.

13. An $m \times n$ **upper triangular matrix** is one whose entries *below* the main diagonal are 0's (as in Exercise 8). When is a square upper triangular matrix invertible? Justify your answer.

14. An $m \times n$ **lower triangular matrix** is one whose entries *above* the main diagonal are 0's (as in Exercise 3). When is a square lower triangular matrix invertible? Justify your answer.

15. Is it possible for a 4×4 matrix to be invertible when its columns do not span $\mathbb{R}^4$? Why or why not?

16. If an $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible, then the columns of A^T are linearly independent. Explain why.

17. Can a square matrix with two identical columns be invertible? Why or why not?

18. Can a square matrix with two identical rows be invertible? Why or why not?

19. If the columns of a 7×7 matrix D are linearly independent, what can be said about the solutions of $D\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$? Why?

20. If A is a 5×5 matrix and the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent for every $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^5$, is it possible that for some $\mathbf{b}$, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has more than one solution? Why or why not?

21. If the equation $C\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ has more than one solution for some $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, can the columns of the $n \times n$ matrix C span $\mathbb{R}^n$? Why or why not?

22. If $n \times n$ matrices E and F have the property that $EF = I$, then E and F commute. Explain why.

23. Assume that F is an $n \times n$ matrix. If the equation $F\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is inconsistent for some $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, what can you say about the equation $F\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$? Why?

24. If an $n \times n$ matrix G cannot be row reduced to I_n, what can you say about the columns of G? Why?

25. Verify the boxed statement preceding Example 1.

26. Explain why the columns of A^2 span $\mathbb{R}^n$ whenever the columns of an $n \times n$ matrix A are linearly independent.

27. Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. Show that if AB is invertible, so is A. You cannot use Theorem 6(b), because you cannot *assume* that A and B are invertible. [*Hint:* There is a matrix W such that $ABW = I$. Why?]

28. Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. Show that if AB is invertible, so is B.

29. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is one-to-one, what else can you say about this transformation? Justify your answer.

30. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has more than one solution for some $\mathbf{b}$, then the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is not one-to-one. What else can you say about this transformation? Justify your answer.

31. Suppose A is an $n \times n$ matrix with the property that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Without using Theorems 5 or 8, explain why each equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has in fact exactly one solution.

32. Suppose A is an $n \times n$ matrix with the property that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution. Without using the Invertible Matrix Theorem, explain directly why the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ must have a solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

In Exercises 33 and 34, T is a linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^2$ into $\mathbb{R}^2$. Show that T is invertible and find a formula for T^{-1}.

33. $T(x_1, x_2) = (-5x_1 + 9x_2, 4x_1 - 7x_2)$

34. $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - 8x_2, -2x_1 + 7x_2)$

35. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be an invertible linear transformation. Explain why T is both one-to-one and onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. Use equations (1) and (2). Then give a second explanation using one or more theorems.

36. Suppose a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ has the property that $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v})$ for some pair of distinct vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Can T map $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$? Why or why not?

37. Suppose T and U are linear transformations from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that $T(U(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$ for all $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Is it true that $U(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$ for all $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$? Why or why not?

38. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be an invertible linear transformation, and let S and U be functions from $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that $S(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$ and $U(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$ for all $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Show that $U(\mathbf{v}) = S(\mathbf{v})$ for all $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. This will show that T has a unique inverse, as asserted in Theorem 9. [*Hint:* Given any $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, we can write $\mathbf{v} = T(\mathbf{x})$ for some $\mathbf{x}$. Why? Compute $S(\mathbf{v})$ and $U(\mathbf{v})$.]

39. Let T be a linear transformation that maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. Show that T^{-1} exists and maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. Is T^{-1} also one-to-one?

40. Suppose T and S satisfy the invertibility equations (1) and (2), where T is a linear transformation. Show directly that S is a linear transformation. [*Hint:* Given $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, let $\mathbf{x} = S(\mathbf{u})$, $\mathbf{y} = S(\mathbf{v})$. Then $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u}$, $T(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{v}$. Why? Apply S to both sides of the equation $T(\mathbf{x}) + T(\mathbf{y}) = T(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})$. Also, consider $T(c\mathbf{x}) = cT(\mathbf{x})$.]

41. [**M**] Suppose an experiment leads to the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} 4.5x_1 + 3.1x_2 &= 19.249 \\ 1.6x_1 + 1.1x_2 &= 6.843 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

a. Solve system (3), and then solve system (4), below, in which the data on the right have been rounded to two decimal places. In each case, find the *exact* solution.

$$\begin{aligned} 4.5x_1 + 3.1x_2 &= 19.25 \\ 1.6x_1 + 1.1x_2 &= 6.84 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

b. The entries in system (4) differ from those in system (3) by less than .05%. Find the percentage error when using the solution of (4) as an approximation for the solution of (3).

c. Use a matrix program to produce the condition number of the coefficient matrix in (3).

Exercises 42–44 show how to use the condition number of a matrix A to estimate the accuracy of a computed solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. If the entries of A and $\mathbf{b}$ are accurate to about r significant digits and if the condition number of A is approximately 10^k (with k a positive integer), then the computed solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ should usually be accurate to at least $r - k$ significant digits.

42. [**M**] Let A be the matrix in Exercise 9. Find the condition number of A. Construct a random vector $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^4$ and compute $\mathbf{b} = A\mathbf{x}$. Then use a matrix program to compute the solution $\mathbf{x}_1$ of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. To how many digits do $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{x}_1$ agree? Find out the number of digits the matrix program stores accurately, and report how many digits of accuracy are lost when $\mathbf{x}_1$ is used in place of the exact solution $\mathbf{x}$.

43. [**M**] Repeat Exercise 42 for the matrix in Exercise 10.

44. [**M**] Solve an equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ for a suitable $\mathbf{b}$ to find the last column of the inverse of the *fifth-order Hilbert matrix*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/5 \\ 1/2 & 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/5 & 1/6 \\ 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/5 & 1/6 & 1/7 \\ 1/4 & 1/5 & 1/6 & 1/7 & 1/8 \\ 1/5 & 1/6 & 1/7 & 1/8 & 1/9 \end{bmatrix}$$

How many digits in each entry of $\mathbf{x}$ do you expect to be correct? Explain. [*Note:* The exact solution is (630, −12600, 56700, −88200, 44100).]

45. [**M**] Some matrix programs, such as MATLAB, have a command to create Hilbert matrices of various sizes. If possible, use an inverse command to compute the inverse of a twelfth-order or larger Hilbert matrix, A. Compute AA^{-1}. Report what you find.

SG Mastering: Reviewing and Reflecting 2–13

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. The columns of A are obviously linearly dependent because columns 2 and 3 are multiples of column 1. Hence A cannot be invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem.
2. If statement (g) is *not* true, then the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is inconsistent for at least one $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.
3. Apply the Invertible Matrix Theorem to the matrix AB in place of A. Then statement (d) becomes: $AB\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution. This is not true. So AB is not invertible.

2.4 PARTITIONED MATRICES

A key feature of our work with matrices has been the ability to regard a matrix A as a list of column vectors rather than just a rectangular array of numbers. This point of view has been so useful that we wish to consider other **partitions** of A, indicated by horizontal and vertical dividing rules, as in Example 1 below. Partitioned matrices appear in most modern applications of linear algebra because the notation highlights essential structures in matrix analysis, as in the chapter introductory example on aircraft design. This section provides an opportunity to review matrix algebra and use the Invertible Matrix Theorem.

EXAMPLE 1 The matrix

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrr|rr|r} 3 & 0 & -1 & 5 & 9 & -2 \\ -5 & 2 & 4 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ \hline -8 & -6 & 3 & 1 & 7 & -4 \end{array}\right]$$

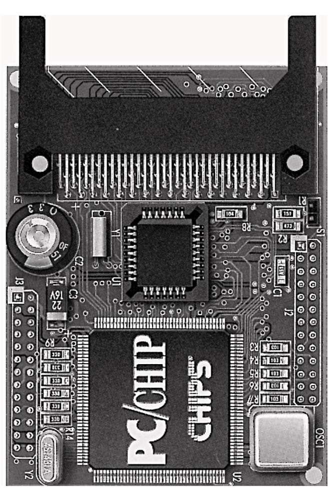
can also be written as the 2×3 **partitioned** (or **block**) **matrix**

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

whose entries are the *blocks* (or *submatrices*)

$$A_{11} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ -5 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{13} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} -8 & -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_{23} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \end{bmatrix}$$ ■



EXAMPLE 2 When a matrix A appears in a mathematical model of a physical system such as an electrical network, a transportation system, or a large corporation, it may be natural to regard A as a partitioned matrix. For instance, if a microcomputer circuit board consists mainly of three VLSI (very large-scale integrated) microchips, then the matrix for the circuit board might have the general form

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ \hline A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ \hline A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{array}\right]$$

The submatrices on the "diagonal" of A—namely, A_{11}, A_{22}, and A_{33}—concern the three VLSI chips, while the other submatrices depend on the interconnections among those microchips. ■

Addition and Scalar Multiplication

If matrices A and B are the same size and are partitioned in exactly the same way, then it is natural to make the same partition of the ordinary matrix sum $A + B$. In this case, each block of $A + B$ is the (matrix) sum of the corresponding blocks of A and B. Multiplication of a partitioned matrix by a scalar is also computed block by block.

Multiplication of Partitioned Matrices

Partitioned matrices can be multiplied by the usual row–column rule as if the block entries were scalars, provided that for a product AB, the column partition of A matches the row partition of B.

EXAMPLE 3 Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc} 2 & -3 & 1 & 0 & -4 \\ 1 & 5 & -2 & 3 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & -4 & -2 & 7 & -1 \end{array}\right] = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 6 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 \\ -3 & 7 \\ \hline -1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 \end{array}\right] = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ B_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The 5 columns of A are partitioned into a set of 3 columns and then a set of 2 columns. The 5 rows of B are partitioned in the same way—into a set of 3 rows and then a set of 2 rows. We say that the partitions of A and B are **conformable** for **block multiplication**. It can be shown that the ordinary product AB can be written as

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ B_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}B_1 + A_{12}B_2 \\ A_{21}B_1 + A_{22}B_2 \end{bmatrix} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -5 & 4 \\ -6 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$

It is important for each smaller product in the expression for AB to be written with the submatrix from A on the left, since matrix multiplication is not commutative. For instance,

$$A_{11}B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 \\ -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & 12 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{12}B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -4 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -20 & -8 \\ -8 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence the top block in AB is

$$A_{11}B_1 + A_{12}B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & 12 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -20 & -8 \\ -8 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 4 \\ -6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$ ■

The row–column rule for multiplication of block matrices provides the most general way to regard the product of two matrices. Each of the following views of a product has already been described using simple partitions of matrices: (1) the definition of $A\mathbf{x}$ using the columns of A, (2) the column definition of AB, (3) the row–column rule for computing AB, and (4) the rows of AB as products of the rows of A and the matrix B. A fifth view of AB, again using partitions, follows in Theorem 10 below.

The calculations in the next example prepare the way for Theorem 10. Here $\text{col}_k(A)$ is the kth column of A, and $\text{row}_k(B)$ is the kth row of B.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{bmatrix}$. Verify that

$$AB = \text{col}_1(A)\,\text{row}_1(B) + \text{col}_2(A)\,\text{row}_2(B) + \text{col}_3(A)\,\text{row}_3(B)$$

SOLUTION Each term above is an *outer product*. (See Exercises 27 and 28 in Section 2.1.) By the row–column rule for computing a matrix product,

$$\text{col}_1(A)\,\text{row}_1(B) = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3a & -3b \\ a & b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{col}_2(A)\,\text{row}_2(B) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ -4c & -4d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{col}_3(A)\,\text{row}_3(B) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} e & f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2e & 2f \\ 5e & 5f \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^{3} \text{col}_k(A)\,\text{row}_k(B) = \begin{bmatrix} -3a + c + 2e & -3b + d + 2f \\ a - 4c + 5e & b - 4d + 5f \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix is obviously AB. Notice that the $(1,1)$-entry in AB is the sum of the $(1,1)$-entries in the three outer products, the $(1,2)$-entry in AB is the sum of the $(1,2)$-entries in the three outer products, and so on. ■

THEOREM 10

Column–Row Expansion of AB

If A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$, then

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} \text{col}_1(A) & \text{col}_2(A) & \cdots & \text{col}_n(A) \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \text{row}_1(B) \\ \text{row}_2(B) \\ \vdots \\ \text{row}_n(B) \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

$$= \text{col}_1(A)\,\text{row}_1(B) + \cdots + \text{col}_n(A)\,\text{row}_n(B)$$

PROOF For each row index i and column index j, the (i,j)-entry in $\text{col}_k(A)\,\text{row}_k(B)$ is the product of a_{ik} from $\text{col}_k(A)$ and b_{kj} from $\text{row}_k(B)$. Hence the (i,j)-entry in the sum shown in equation (1) is

$$\underset{(k=1)}{a_{i1}b_{1j}} + \underset{(k=2)}{a_{i2}b_{2j}} + \cdots + \underset{(k=n)}{a_{in}b_{nj}}$$

This sum is also the (i,j)-entry in AB, by the row–column rule. ■

Inverses of Partitioned Matrices

The next example illustrates calculations involving inverses and partitioned matrices.

EXAMPLE 5 A matrix of the form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

is said to be *block upper triangular*. Assume that A_{11} is $p \times p$, A_{22} is $q \times q$, and A is invertible. Find a formula for A^{-1}.

SOLUTION Denote A^{-1} by B and partition B so that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & I_q \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

This matrix equation provides four equations that will lead to the unknown blocks $B_{11}, \dots, B_{22}$. Compute the product on the left side of equation (2), and equate each entry with the corresponding block in the identity matrix on the right. That is, set

$$A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} = I_p \tag{3}$$
$$A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} = 0 \tag{4}$$
$$A_{22}B_{21} = 0 \tag{5}$$
$$A_{22}B_{22} = I_q \tag{6}$$

By itself, equation (6) does not show that A_{22} is invertible. However, since A_{22} is square, the Invertible Matrix Theorem and (6) together show that A_{22} is invertible and $B_{22} = A_{22}^{-1}$. Next, left-multiply both sides of (5) by A_{22}^{-1} and obtain

$$B_{21} = A_{22}^{-1}0 = 0$$

so that (3) simplifies to

$$A_{11}B_{11} + 0 = I_p$$

Since A_{11} is square, this shows that A_{11} is invertible and $B_{11} = A_{11}^{-1}$. Finally, use these results with (4) to find that

$$A_{11}B_{12} = -A_{12}B_{22} = -A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad B_{12} = -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}$$

Thus

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} & -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \\ 0 & A_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$ ■

A **block diagonal matrix** is a partitioned matrix with zero blocks off the main diagonal (of blocks). Such a matrix is invertible if and only if each block on the diagonal is invertible. See Exercises 13 and 14.

NUMERICAL NOTES

1. When matrices are too large to fit in a computer's high-speed memory, partitioning permits the computer to work with only two or three submatrices at a time. For instance, one linear programming research team simplified a problem by partitioning the matrix into 837 rows and 51 columns. The problem's solution took about 4 minutes on a Cray supercomputer.[1]
2. Some high-speed computers, particularly those with vector pipeline architecture, perform matrix calculations more efficiently when the algorithms use partitioned matrices.[2]
3. Professional software for high-performance numerical linear algebra, such as LAPACK, makes intensive use of partitioned matrix calculations.

[1] The solution time doesn't sound too impressive until you learn that each of the 51 block columns contained about 250,000 individual columns. The original problem had 837 equations and over 12,750,000 variables! Nearly 100 million of the more than 10 billion entries in the matrix were nonzero. See Robert E. Bixby et al., "Very Large-Scale Linear Programming: A Case Study in Combining Interior Point and Simplex Methods," *Operations Research*, 40, no. 5 (1992): 885–897.

[2] The importance of block matrix algorithms for computer calculations is described in *Matrix Computations*, 3rd ed., by Gene H. Golub and Charles F. van Loan (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996).

The exercises that follow give practice with matrix algebra and illustrate typical calculations found in applications.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Show that $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ A & I \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible and find its inverse.
2. Compute X^TX, where X is partitioned as $\begin{bmatrix} X_1 & X_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

2.4 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–9, assume that the matrices are partitioned conformably for block multiplication. Compute the products shown in Exercises 1–4.

1. $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ E & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix} E & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} P & Q \\ R & S \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -E & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} W & X \\ Y & Z \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 5–8, find formulas for X, Y, and Z in terms of A, B, and C, and justify your calculations. In some cases, you may need to make assumptions about the size of a matrix in order to produce a formula. [*Hint:* Compute the product on the left, and set it equal to the right side.]

5. $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & 0 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ X & Y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ Z & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

6. $\begin{bmatrix} X & 0 \\ Y & Z \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

7. $\begin{bmatrix} X & 0 & 0 \\ Y & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} A & Z \\ 0 & 0 \\ B & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} X & Y & Z \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

9. Suppose B_{11} is an invertible matrix. Find matrices A_{21} and A_{31} (in terms of the blocks of B) such that the product below has the form indicated. Also, compute C_{22} (in terms of the blocks of B). [*Hint:* Compute the product on the left, and set it equal to the right side.]

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ A_{21} & I & 0 \\ A_{31} & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \\ B_{31} & B_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ 0 & C_{22} \\ 0 & C_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

10. The inverse of

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ A & I & 0 \\ B & D & I \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{is} \quad \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & 0 \\ P & I & 0 \\ Q & R & I \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find P, Q, and R.

In Exercises 11 and 12, mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

11. a. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 \end{bmatrix}$, with A_1 and A_2 the same sizes as B_1 and B_2, respectively, then $A + B = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 + B_1 & A_2 + B_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

b. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ B_2 \end{bmatrix}$, then the partitions of A and B are conformable for block multiplication.

12. a. If A_1, A_2, B_1, and B_2 are $n \times n$ matrices, $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \end{bmatrix}$, and $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 \end{bmatrix}$, then the product BA is defined, but AB is not.

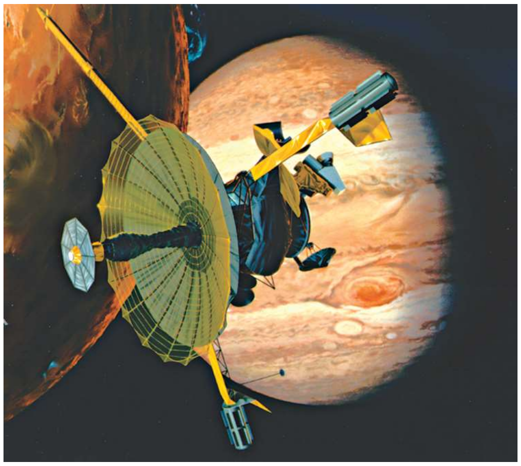
b. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} P & Q \\ R & S \end{bmatrix}$, then the transpose of A is

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} P^T & Q^T \\ R^T & S^T \end{bmatrix}.$$

13. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} B & 0 \\ 0 & C \end{bmatrix}$, where B and C are square. Show that A is invertible if and only if both B and C are invertible.

14. Show that the block upper triangular matrix A in Example 5 is invertible if and only if both A_{11} and A_{22} are invertible. [*Hint:* If A_{11} and A_{22} are invertible, the formula for A^{-1} given in Example 5 actually works as the inverse of A.] This fact about A is an important part of several computer algorithms that estimate eigenvalues of matrices. Eigenvalues are discussed in Chapter 5.

15. When a deep space probe is launched, corrections may be necessary to place the probe on a precisely calculated trajectory. Radio telemetry provides a stream of vectors, $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k$, giving information at different times about how the probe's position compares with its planned trajectory. Let X_k be the matrix $[\mathbf{x}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{x}_k]$. The matrix $G_k = X_k X_k^T$ is computed as the radar data are analyzed. When $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$ arrives, a new G_{k+1} must be computed. Since the data vectors arrive at high speed, the computational burden could be severe. But partitioned matrix multiplication helps tremendously. Compute the column–row expansions of G_k and G_{k+1}, and describe what must be computed in order to *update* G_k to form G_{k+1}.



The probe Galileo was launched October 18, 1989, and arrived near Jupiter in early December 1995.

16. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$. If A_{11} is invertible, then the matrix $S = A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$ is called the **Schur complement** of A_{11}. Likewise, if A_{22} is invertible, the matrix $A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}$ is called the Schur complement of A_{22}. Suppose A_{11} is invertible. Find X and Y such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ X & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & S \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} I & Y \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \tag{7}$$

17. Suppose the block matrix A on the left side of (7) is invertible and A_{11} is invertible. Show that the Schur complement S of A_{11} is invertible. [*Hint:* The outside factors on the right side of (7) are always invertible. Verify this.] When A and A_{11} are both invertible, (7) leads to a formula for A^{-1}, using S^{-1}, A_{11}^{-1}, and the other entries in A.

18. Let X be an $m \times n$ data matrix such that X^TX is invertible, and let $M = I_m - X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$. Add a column $\mathbf{x}_0$ to the data and form

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} X & \mathbf{x}_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute W^TW. The (1, 1)-entry is X^TX. Show that the Schur complement (Exercise 16) of X^TX can be written in the form $\mathbf{x}_0^TM\mathbf{x}_0$. It can be shown that the quantity $(\mathbf{x}_0^TM\mathbf{x}_0)^{-1}$ is the (2, 2)-entry in $(W^TW)^{-1}$. This entry has a useful statistical interpretation, under appropriate hypotheses.

In the study of engineering control of physical systems, a standard set of differential equations is transformed by Laplace transforms into the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A - sI_n & B \\ C & I_m \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} \tag{8}$$

where A is $n \times n$, B is $n \times m$, C is $m \times n$, and s is a variable. The vector $\mathbf{u}$ in $\mathbb{R}^m$ is the "input" to the system, $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^m$ is the "output," and $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ is the "state" vector. (Actually, the vectors $\mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{u}$, and $\mathbf{y}$ are functions of s, but this does not affect the algebraic calculations in Exercises 19 and 20.)

19. Assume $A - sI_n$ is invertible and view (8) as a system of two matrix equations. Solve the top equation for $\mathbf{x}$ and substitute into the bottom equation. The result is an equation of the form $W(s)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}$, where $W(s)$ is a matrix that depends on s. $W(s)$ is called the *transfer function* of the system because it transforms the input $\mathbf{u}$ into the output $\mathbf{y}$. Find $W(s)$ and describe how it is related to the partitioned *system matrix* on the left side of (8). See Exercise 16.

20. Suppose the transfer function $W(s)$ in Exercise 19 is invertible for some s. It can be shown that the inverse transfer function $W(s)^{-1}$, which transforms outputs into inputs, is the Schur complement of $A - BC - sI_n$ for the matrix below. Find this Schur complement. See Exercise 16.

$$\begin{bmatrix} A - BC - sI_n & B \\ -C & I_m \end{bmatrix}$$

21. a. Verify that $A^2 = I$ when $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

b. Use partitioned matrices to show that $M^2 = I$ when

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

22. Generalize the idea of Exercise 21 by constructing a 6×6 matrix $M = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & B & 0 \\ C & 0 & D \end{bmatrix}$ such that $M^2 = I$. Make C a nonzero 2×2 matrix. Show that your construction works.

23. Use partitioned matrices to prove by induction that the product of two lower triangular matrices is also lower triangular. [*Hint*: A $(k + 1) \times (k + 1)$ matrix A_1 can be written in the form below, where a is a scalar, $\mathbf{v}$ is in $\mathbb{R}^k$, and A is a $k \times k$ lower triangular matrix. See the *Study Guide* for help with induction.]

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{v} & A \end{bmatrix}$$

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24. Use partitioned matrices to prove by induction that for $n = 2, 3, \ldots$, the $n \times n$ matrix A shown below is invertible and B is its inverse.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \cdots & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the induction step, assume A and B are $(k+1) \times (k+1)$ matrices, and partition A and B in a form similar to that displayed in Exercise 23.

25. Without using row reduction, find the inverse of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

26. [**M**] For block operations, it may be necessary to access or enter submatrices of a large matrix. Describe the functions or commands of a matrix program that accomplish the following tasks. Suppose A is a 20×30 matrix.

a. Display the submatrix of A from rows 5 to 10 and columns 15 to 20.

b. Insert a 5×10 matrix B into A, beginning at row 5 and column 10.

c. Create a 50×50 matrix of the form $C = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & A^T \end{bmatrix}$.

[*Note:* It may not be necessary to specify the zero blocks in C.]

27. [**M**] Suppose memory or size restrictions prevent a matrix program from working with matrices having more than 32 rows and 32 columns, and suppose some project involves 50×50 matrices A and B. Describe the commands or operations of the matrix program that accomplish the following tasks.

a. Compute $A + B$.

b. Compute AB.

c. Solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ for some vector $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{50}$, assuming that A can be partitioned into a 2×2 block matrix $[A_{ij}]$, with A_{11} an invertible 20×20 matrix, A_{22} an invertible 30×30 matrix, and A_{12} a zero matrix. [*Hint:* Describe appropriate smaller systems to solve, without using any matrix inverses.]

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. If $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ A & I \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible, its inverse has the form $\begin{bmatrix} W & X \\ Y & Z \end{bmatrix}$. Verify that

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ A & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} W & X \\ Y & Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W & X \\ AW + Y & AX + Z \end{bmatrix}$$

So W, X, Y, Z must satisfy $W = I$, $X = 0$, $AW + Y = 0$, and $AX + Z = I$. It follows that $Y = -A$ and $Z = I$. Hence

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ A & I \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -A & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

The product in the reverse order is also the identity, so the block matrix is invertible, and its inverse is $\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -A & I \end{bmatrix}$. (You could also appeal to the Invertible Matrix Theorem.)

2. $X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^T \\ X_2^T \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} X_1 & X_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^T X_1 & X_1^T X_2 \\ X_2^T X_1 & X_2^T X_2 \end{bmatrix}$. The partitions of X^T and X are automatically conformable for block multiplication because the columns of X^T are the rows of X. This partition of $X^T X$ is used in several computer algorithms for matrix computations.

2.5 MATRIX FACTORIZATIONS

A *factorization* of a matrix A is an equation that expresses A as a product of two or more matrices. Whereas matrix multiplication involves a *synthesis* of data (combining the effects of two or more linear transformations into a single matrix), matrix factorization is an *analysis* of data. In the language of computer science, the expression of A as a product amounts to a *preprocessing* of the data in A, organizing that data into two or more parts whose structures are more useful in some way, perhaps more accessible for computation.

Matrix factorizations and, later, factorizations of linear transformations will appear at a number of key points throughout the text. This section focuses on a factorization that lies at the heart of several important computer programs widely used in applications, such as the airflow problem described in the chapter introduction. Several other factorizations, to be studied later, are introduced in the exercises.

The LU Factorization

The LU factorization, described below, is motivated by the fairly common industrial and business problem of solving a sequence of equations, all with the same coefficient matrix:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2, \quad \dots, \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_p \tag{1}$$

See Exercise 32, for example. Also see Section 5.8, where the inverse power method is used to estimate eigenvalues of a matrix by solving equations like those in sequence (1), one at a time.

When A is invertible, one could compute A^{-1} and then compute $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_1$, $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_2$, and so on. However, it is more efficient to solve the first equation in sequence (1) by row reduction and obtain an LU factorization of A at the same time. Thereafter, the remaining equations in sequence (1) are solved with the LU factorization.

At first, assume that A is an $m \times n$ matrix that can be row reduced to echelon form, *without row interchanges*. (Later, we will treat the general case.) Then A can be written in the form $A = LU$, where L is an $m \times m$ lower triangular matrix with 1's on the diagonal and U is an $m \times n$ echelon form of A. For instance, see Fig. 1. Such a factorization is called an **LU factorization** of A. The matrix L is invertible and is called a *unit* lower triangular matrix.

$$A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{L} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \blacksquare & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & \blacksquare & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \blacksquare & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{U}$$

FIGURE 1 An LU factorization.

Before studying how to construct L and U, we should look at why they are so useful. When $A = LU$, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ can be written as $L(U\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}$. Writing $\mathbf{y}$ for $U\mathbf{x}$, we can find $\mathbf{x}$ by solving the *pair* of equations

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} L\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{b} \\ U\mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}} \tag{2}$$

First solve $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ for $\mathbf{y}$, and then solve $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ for $\mathbf{x}$. See Fig. 2. Each equation is easy to solve because L and U are triangular.

EXAMPLE 1 It can be verified that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 \\ -3 & 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & -4 & 0 & -5 \\ -9 & 5 & -5 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 8 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

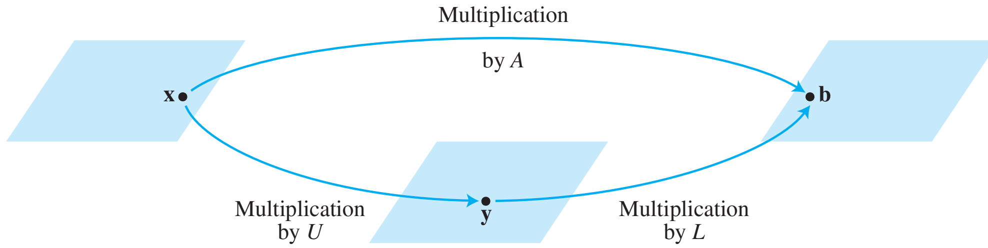


FIGURE 2 Factorization of the mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$.

Use this LU factorization of A to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$.

SOLUTION The solution of $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ needs only 6 multiplications and 6 additions, because the arithmetic takes place only in column 5. (The zeros below each pivot in L are created automatically by the choice of row operations.)

$$[\,L \quad \mathbf{b}\,] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -9 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ -3 & 8 & 3 & 1 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\,I \quad \mathbf{y}\,]$$

Then, for $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$, the "backward" phase of row reduction requires 4 divisions, 6 multiplications, and 6 additions. (For instance, creating the zeros in column 4 of $[\,U \quad \mathbf{y}\,]$ requires 1 division in row 4 and 3 multiplication–addition pairs to add multiples of row 4 to the rows above.)

$$[\,U \quad \mathbf{y}\,] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 & -9 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ -6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

To find $\mathbf{x}$ requires 28 arithmetic operations, or "flops" (floating point operations), excluding the cost of finding L and U. In contrast, row reduction of $[\,A \quad \mathbf{b}\,]$ to $[\,I \quad \mathbf{x}\,]$ takes 62 operations. ■

The computational efficiency of the LU factorization depends on knowing L and U. The next algorithm shows that the row reduction of A to an echelon form U amounts to an LU factorization because it produces L with essentially no extra work. After the first row reduction, L and U are available for solving additional equations whose coefficient matrix is A.

An LU Factorization Algorithm

Suppose A can be reduced to an echelon form U using only row replacements that add a multiple of one row to another row *below it*. In this case, there exist unit lower triangular elementary matrices $E_1, \ldots, E_p$ such that

$$E_p \cdots E_1 A = U \tag{3}$$

Then

$$A = (E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1} U = LU$$

where

$$L = (E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1} \tag{4}$$

It can be shown that products and inverses of unit lower triangular matrices are also unit lower triangular. (For instance, see Exercise 19.) Thus L is unit lower triangular.

Note that the row operations in equation (3), which reduce A to U, also reduce the L in equation (4) to I, because $E_p \cdots E_1 L = (E_p \cdots E_1)(E_p \cdots E_1)^{-1} = I$. This observation is the key to *constructing* L.

ALGORITHM FOR AN LU FACTORIZATION

1. Reduce A to an echelon form U by a sequence of row replacement operations, if possible.
2. Place entries in L such that the *same sequence of row operations* reduces L to I.

Step 1 is not always possible, but when it is, the argument above shows that an LU factorization exists. Example 2 will show how to implement step 2. By construction, L will satisfy

$$(E_p \cdots E_1)L = I$$

using the same $E_1, \dots, E_p$ as in equation (3). Thus L will be invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, with $(E_p \cdots E_1) = L^{-1}$. From (3), $L^{-1}A = U$, and $A = LU$. So step 2 will produce an acceptable L.

EXAMPLE 2 Find an LU factorization of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -6 & 0 & 7 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION Since A has four rows, L should be 4×4. The first column of L is the first column of A divided by the top pivot entry:

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compare the first columns of A and L. *The row operations that create zeros in the first column of A will also create zeros in the first column of L.* To make this same correspondence of row operations on A hold for the rest of L, watch a row reduction of A to an echelon form U. That is, *highlight the entries* in each matrix that are used to determine the sequence of row operations that transform A into U. [See the highlighted entries in equation (5).]

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -6 & 0 & 7 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & -9 & -3 & -4 & 10 \\ 0 & 12 & 4 & 12 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = A_1 \tag{5}$$

$$\sim A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

The highlighted entries above determine the row reduction of A to U. At each pivot column, divide the highlighted entries by the pivot and place the result into L:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 2 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -9 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\div 2 \quad \div 3 \quad \div 2 \quad \div 5$$

$$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ -2 & 1 & & \\ 1 & -3 & 1 & \\ -3 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

An easy calculation verifies that this L and U satisfy $LU = A$. ■

In practical work, row interchanges are nearly always needed, because partial pivoting is used for high accuracy. (Recall that this procedure selects, among the possible choices for a pivot, an entry in the column having the largest absolute value.) To handle row interchanges, the LU factorization above can be modified easily to produce an L that is *permuted lower triangular*, in the sense that a rearrangement (called a permutation) of the rows of L can make L (unit) lower triangular. The resulting *permuted LU factorization* solves $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ in the same way as before, except that the reduction of $[\,L \quad \mathbf{b}\,]$ to $[\,I \quad \mathbf{y}\,]$ follows the order of the pivots in L from left to right, starting with the pivot in the first column. A reference to an "LU factorization" usually includes the possibility that L might be permuted lower triangular. For details, see the *Study Guide*.

SG Permuted LU Factorizations 2–23

NUMERICAL NOTES

The following operation counts apply to an $n \times n$ dense matrix A (with most entries nonzero) for n moderately large, say, $n \geq 30$.[1]

1. Computing an LU factorization of A takes about $2n^3/3$ flops (about the same as row reducing $[\,A \quad \mathbf{b}\,]$), whereas finding A^{-1} requires about $2n^3$ flops.
2. Solving $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ and $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ requires about $2n^2$ flops, because any $n \times n$ triangular system can be solved in about n^2 flops.
3. Multiplication of $\mathbf{b}$ by A^{-1} also requires about $2n^2$ flops, but the result may not be as accurate as that obtained from L and U (because of roundoff error when computing both A^{-1} and $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$).
4. If A is sparse (with mostly zero entries), then L and U may be sparse, too, whereas A^{-1} is likely to be dense. In this case, a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with an LU factorization is *much* faster than using A^{-1}. See Exercise 31.

WEB

A Matrix Factorization in Electrical Engineering

Matrix factorization is intimately related to the problem of constructing an electrical network with specified properties. The following discussion gives just a glimpse of the connection between factorization and circuit design.

[1] See Section 3.8 in *Applied Linear Algebra*, 3rd ed., by Ben Noble and James W. Daniel (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988). Recall that for our purposes, a *flop* is $+$, $-$, $\times$, or $\div$.

Suppose the box in Fig. 3 represents some sort of electric circuit, with an input and output. Record the input voltage and current by $\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ i_1 \end{bmatrix}$ (with voltage v in volts and current i in amps), and record the output voltage and current by $\begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix}$. Frequently, the transformation $\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ i_1 \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is linear. That is, there is a matrix A, called the *transfer matrix*, such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ i_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

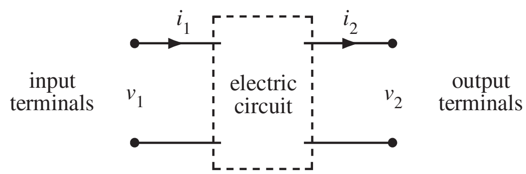


FIGURE 3 A circuit with input and output terminals.

Figure 4 shows a *ladder network*, where two circuits (there could be more) are connected in series, so that the output of one circuit becomes the input of the next circuit. The left circuit in Fig. 4 is called a *series circuit*, with resistance R_1 (in ohms).

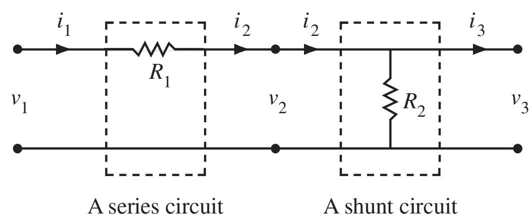


FIGURE 4 A ladder network.

The right circuit in Fig. 4 is a *shunt circuit*, with resistance R_2. Using Ohm's law and Kirchhoff's laws, one can show that the transfer matrices of the series and shunt circuits, respectively, are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -R_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/R_2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transfer matrix of series circuit — Transfer matrix of shunt circuit

EXAMPLE 3

a. Compute the transfer matrix of the ladder network in Fig. 4.

b. Design a ladder network whose transfer matrix is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -8 \\ -.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

SOLUTION

a. Let A_1 and A_2 be the transfer matrices of the series and shunt circuits, respectively. Then an input vector $\mathbf{x}$ is transformed first into $A_1\mathbf{x}$ and then into $A_2(A_1\mathbf{x})$. The series connection of the circuits corresponds to composition of linear transformations, and the transfer matrix of the ladder network is (note the order)

$$A_2A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/R_2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -R_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -R_1 \\ -1/R_2 & 1 + R_1/R_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{6}$$

b. To factor the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -8 \\ -.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ into the product of transfer matrices, as in equation (6), look for R_1 and R_2 in Fig. 4 to satisfy

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -R_1 \\ -1/R_2 & 1 + R_1/R_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -8 \\ -.5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

From the $(1, 2)$-entries, $R_1 = 8$ ohms, and from the $(2, 1)$-entries, $1/R_2 = .5$ ohm and $R_2 = 1/.5 = 2$ ohms. With these values, the network in Fig. 4 has the desired transfer matrix. ■

A network transfer matrix summarizes the input–output behavior (the design specifications) of the network without reference to the interior circuits. To physically build a network with specified properties, an engineer first determines if such a network can be constructed (or *realized*). Then the engineer tries to factor the transfer matrix into matrices corresponding to smaller circuits that perhaps are already manufactured and ready for assembly. In the common case of alternating current, the entries in the transfer matrix are usually rational complex-valued functions. (See Exercises 19 and 20 in Section 2.4 and Example 2 in Section 3.3.) A standard problem is to find a *minimal realization* that uses the smallest number of electrical components.

PRACTICE PROBLEM

Find an LU factorization of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & -2 & 3 \\ 6 & -9 & -5 & 8 \\ 2 & -7 & -3 & 9 \\ 4 & -2 & -2 & -1 \\ -6 & 3 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. [*Note*: It will turn out that A has only three pivot columns, so the method of Example 2 will produce only the first three columns of L. The remaining two columns of L come from I_5.]

2.5 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–6, solve the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ by using the LU factorization given for A. In Exercises 1 and 2, also solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ by ordinary row reduction.

1. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 \\ -3 & 5 & 1 \\ 6 & -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -6 & 4 \\ -4 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -6 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & 2 \\ -4 & 5 & 2 \\ 6 & -9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

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

4. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

5. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 & -3 \\ 3 & -9 & 0 & -9 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 & 7 \\ -3 & -6 & 26 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

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

6. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ -2 & -3 & -4 & 12 \\ 3 & 0 & 4 & -36 \\ -5 & -3 & -8 & 49 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -5 & 4 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find an LU factorization of the matrices in Exercises 7–16 (with L unit lower triangular). Note that MATLAB will usually produce a permuted LU factorization because it uses partial pivoting for numerical accuracy.

7. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ 12 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

9. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ -9 & 0 & -4 \\ 9 & 9 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$

10. $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 0 & 4 \\ 10 & 2 & -5 \\ 10 & 10 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$

11. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 & 2 \\ 6 & 19 & 4 \\ -3 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

12. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 13 & 9 \\ -6 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

13. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 & -3 \\ -1 & -5 & 8 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 & -5 & -7 \\ -2 & -4 & 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

14. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 & 5 \\ 5 & 20 & 6 & 31 \\ -2 & -1 & -1 & -4 \\ -1 & 7 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

15. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 5 & 2 \\ -6 & 3 & -13 & -3 \\ 4 & 9 & 16 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 4 \\ -4 & 8 & -7 \\ 6 & -5 & 14 \\ -6 & 9 & -12 \\ 8 & -6 & 19 \end{bmatrix}$

17. When A is invertible, MATLAB finds A^{-1} by factoring $A = LU$ (where L may be permuted lower triangular), inverting L and U, and then computing $U^{-1}L^{-1}$. Use this method to compute the inverse of A in Exercise 2. (Apply the algorithm in Section 2.2 to L and to U.)

18. Find A^{-1} as in Exercise 17, using A from Exercise 3.

19. Let A be a lower triangular $n \times n$ matrix with nonzero entries on the diagonal. Show that A is invertible and A^{-1} is lower triangular. [*Hint:* Explain why A can be changed into I using only row replacements and scaling. (Where are the pivots?) Also, explain why the row operations that reduce A to I change I into a lower triangular matrix.]

20. Let $A = LU$ be an LU factorization. Explain why A can be row reduced to U using only replacement operations. (This fact is the converse of what was proved in the text.)

21. Suppose $A = BC$, where B is invertible. Show that any sequence of row operations that reduces B to I also reduces A to C. The converse is not true, since the zero matrix may be factored as $0 = B \cdot 0$.

Exercises 22–26 provide a glimpse of some widely used matrix factorizations, some of which are discussed later in the text.

22. (*Reduced LU Factorization*) With A as in the Practice Problem, find a 5×3 matrix B and a 3×4 matrix C such that $A = BC$. Generalize this idea to the case where A is $m \times n$, $A = LU$, and U has only three nonzero rows.

23. (*Rank Factorization*) Suppose an $m \times n$ matrix A admits a factorization $A = CD$ where C is $m \times 4$ and D is $4 \times n$.

a. Show that A is the sum of four outer products. (See Section 2.4.)

b. Let $m = 400$ and $n = 100$. Explain why a computer programmer might prefer to store the data from A in the form of two matrices C and D.

24. (*QR Factorization*) Suppose $A = QR$, where Q and R are $n \times n$, R is invertible and upper triangular, and Q has the property that $Q^TQ = I$. Show that for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution. What computations with Q and R will produce the solution?

WEB

25. (*Singular Value Decomposition*) Suppose $A = UDV^T$, where U and V are $n \times n$ matrices with the property that $U^TU = I$ and $V^TV = I$, and where D is a diagonal matrix with positive numbers $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ on the diagonal. Show that A is invertible, and find a formula for A^{-1}.

26. (*Spectral Factorization*) Suppose a 3×3 matrix A admits a factorization as $A = PDP^{-1}$, where P is some invertible 3×3 matrix and D is the diagonal matrix

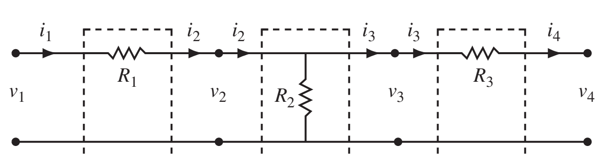
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Show that this factorization is useful when computing high powers of A. Find fairly simple formulas for A^2, A^3, and A^k (k a positive integer), using P and the entries in D.

27. Design two different ladder networks that each output 9 volts and 4 amps when the input is 12 volts and 6 amps.

28. Show that if three shunt circuits (with resistances R_1, R_2, R_3) are connected in series, the resulting network has the same transfer matrix as a single shunt circuit. Find a formula for the resistance in that circuit.

29. a. Compute the transfer matrix of the network in the figure below.



b. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -12 \\ -1/3 & 5/3 \end{bmatrix}$. Design a ladder network whose transfer matrix is A by finding a suitable matrix factorization of A.