

10

Matrices

10.1. Matrix

Definition. An arrangement of mn numbers belonging to a number system F (real or complex) into m rows and n columns is called a *matrix* of order $m \times n$ over F . (K.U. 1981)

For example :

(i) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & i \\ 3 & 8 & 6+2i \end{bmatrix}$ is a matrix of order 2×3 ,

as it has two rows and three columns.

(ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 8 & -7 \\ 2 & 5 & 6 \\ i+2 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ is a matrix of order 3×3 .

(iii) In general a matrix of order $m \times n$ can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

which can be briefly written as $[a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$.

Note 1. We shall denote a matrix by capital letters, A, B, C etc.

2. The element a_{ij} is that which occurs in the i th row and j th col. The first suffix indicates row number, while the second suffix indicates the col. number.

3. Members of the number system F are called scalars relative to the matrix.

4. The elements $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \dots, a_{nn}$ in which both suffixes are same, are called the **diagonal elements**, all other are called non-diagonal elements.

Thus a_{ij} is a diagonal element if $i = j$

and a_{ij} is non-diagonal elements if $i \neq j$.

5. The line along which the diagonal elements.

$a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$ lie is called the **Principal Diagonal**.

10.2. Different Types of Matrices

1. Zero Matrix or Null Matrix. A matrix each of whose element is zero is called a zero matrix or null matrix.

e.g., $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ or $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ or $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

are zero matrices, respectively of order 2×3 ; 3×2 and 3×3 .

In general, a zero matrix of order $m \times n$ is denoted by $O_{m \times n}$.

Note. A matrix which is not a zero-matrix is called a non-zero matrix.

2. Square matrix. A matrix in which the number of rows is equal to the number of columns is called a Square matrix.

A square matrix of order $n \times n$ called square matrix of order n . $m = n$

A matrix which is not square is called a **rectangular matrix**. $m \neq n$

3. Row-matrix or Row-Vector. A matrix of type $1 \times n$ i.e., having only one row is called a **row-matrix**. For example, $[1, -3, -7, i, 0]$ is a row-matrix of order 1×5 . (M.D.U. 1983)

4. Column-matrix or Column-vector. A matrix of type $m \times 1$ i.e., having only one column is called a **column-matrix**. (M.D.U. 1983)

For example, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$ is a column matrix of order 3×1 .

5. Diagonal Matrix. A square matrix in which all non-diagonal elements are zero is called a **diagonal matrix**.

In symbols. The matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ is diagonal matrix if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. Thus

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ are diagonal matrices.}$$

Note. The diagonal matrix $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ can be briefly written as diagonal $[x_1, x_2, x_3]$.

6. Scalar Matrix. A diagonal matrix in which all diagonal elements are equal is called a scalar matrix.

In symbols. The square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ is a scalar matrix if $a_{ij} = 0$ ($i \neq j$) and $a_{ij} = k$ for $i = j$.

e.g., $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ is a scalar matrix.

7. Unit Matrix or Identity Matrix. A scalar matrix of order n in which all diagonal elements are unity is called a **unit or identity matrix** and is generally denoted by I_n . (M.D.U. 1983)

In Symbols. A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ will be a unit or identity matrix if

$$(i) a_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j \text{ and } (ii) a_{ij} = 1 \text{ for } i = j.$$

8. Tri-angular Matrix. These are of two types :

(a) **Upper-triangular matrix.** It is a matrix in which all elements below the principal diagonal are zero

e.g.,
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & i \\ 0 & 5 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) **Lower-triangular matrix.** It is a matrix in which all elements above the Principal diagonal are zero

e.g.,
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & 7 & 0 \\ 3 & 8 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

9. Sub-matrix. A matrix B obtained by deleting some rows or columns or both of a matrix A, is called a sub-matrix of A.

For example, if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then the matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, [0, 0, 1, 2] \text{ etc.}$$

are sub-matrices of A.

10.3. Equality of Matrices

Two matrices $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{p \times q}$ are equal, if and only if

(i) they are of the same order i.e. $m = p$ and $n = q$

(ii) their corresponding elements are all equal i.e., $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$ for all i and j .

If A and B are two equal matrices, then we write $A = B$.

10.4. Addition (sum) of two Matrices

We can add two matrices only when they are of the same order and two such matrices are said to be **conformable for addition**.

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ be two matrices of the same order $m \times n$, then their sum $A + B$ is a matrix of the same order $m \times n$ and is obtained by adding the corresponding elements of A and B.

Thus, if $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then the sum

$$A + B = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [b_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

Remarks. The elements of a matrix will be assumed to belong to some number system say of Rationals, Reals or Complex.

10.5. Properties of Matrix Addition

1. Matrix Addition is Commutative. i.e. if A and B are matrices of the same order, then $A + B = B + A$. (M.D.U. 1983)

Proof. L.H.S. = $A + B$

$$= [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [b_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [(a_{ij} + b_{ij})]_{m \times n}$$

$$= [(b_{ij} + a_{ij})]_{m \times n}$$

[∵ Elements of matrices are commutative for addition]

$$= [b_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = B + A = \text{R.H.S.}$$

2. Matrix Addition is Associative. If A, B, C be matrices of the same order, then $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$.

Proof. L.H.S. = $(A + B) + C$

$$= ([a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}) + [c_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

$$= [(a_{ij} + b_{ij})]_{m \times n} + [c_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

$$= [(a_{ij} + b_{ij}) + c_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

$$= [a_{ij} + (b_{ij} + c_{ij})]_{m \times n}$$

[∵ For elements of matrices, addition is associative]

$$= [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + ([b_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [c_{ij}]_{m \times n})$$

$$= A + (B + C) = \text{R.H.S.}$$

Note. Because of associative property of addition, we write

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

3. Existence of Additive identity. Given any matrix A of order $m \times n$, there exists a matrix O of order $m \times n$, each of whose element is zero such that $A + O = A$.

Note. The zero matrix O is called additive identity or a zero and is unique for a set of all $m \times n$ matrices.

4. Existence of Additive Inverse. Given a matrix A of order $m \times n$; there exists a matrix X also of the same order, so that

$$A + X = O$$

This matrix $X = -[a_{ij}]$ is called **additive inverse or Negative of A** and we shall denote it by $(-A)$.

Thus if $A = [a_{ij}]$, then $-A = [-a_{ij}]$.

Proofs of (3) and (4) are left to the reader as an exercise.

10.6. Subtraction of Two Matrices

Let A and B be two matrices of the same order (type), then subtraction of B from A is written as $A - B$ and is defined as sum of A and $-B$.

Thus, as $A - B = A + (-B)$.

Hence $A - B$ is obtained by subtracting from each element of A the corresponding element of B .

10.7. Multiplication of a Matrix by a Scalar

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ be any matrix and k any scalar, then the multiplication of A by the scalar k written as kA is a matrix of order $m \times n$ obtained by multiplying each element of A by the scalar k . Thus,

If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then

$$kA = k[a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [k \cdot a_{ij}]_{m \times n}.$$

For example. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 7 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & -2 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4i \end{bmatrix}$ is a matrix of order 3×4

and 5 is a scalar, then

$$5A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 10 & 35 & 40 \\ 15 & 20 & -10 & 35 \\ 5 & 10 & 15 & 20i \end{bmatrix}.$$

10.8. Properties of Multiplication of a Matrix by a Scalar

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be any two matrices of the same type $m \times n$ and x and y are scalars, then

- (i) $x(A + B) = xA + xB$
- (ii) $(x + y)A = xA + yA$
- (iii) $x(yA) = (xy)A$
- (iv) There exist a scalar 1 so that $1 \cdot A = A$.

Proofs are easy and are left as an exercise to the readers.

10.9 Multiplication of Two Matrices

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be two matrices, then the produced AB in this order is defined if the number of columns in A (pre-factor) = the number of rows in B (post-factor), and

- (i) Number of rows in AB = the number of rows in A .
- (ii) Number of columns in AB = the number of cols. in B .
- (iii) The (i, j) th element of AB = sum of products of the elements of i th row of A with the corresponding elements of the j th column of B .

In Symbols. If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$ be two matrices, then the product AB is defined and is a matrix of order $m \times p$.

Let $AB = C = [c_{ij}]_{m \times p}$, where

$$c_{ij} = (i, j)\text{th element of } C (= AB)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (i\text{th row of } A) \begin{pmatrix} j\text{th} \\ \text{col.} \\ \text{of} \\ B \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (a_{i1} \ a_{i2} \ \dots \ a_{in}) \begin{pmatrix} b_{1j} \\ b_{2j} \\ \dots \\ b_{nj} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in}b_{nj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}. \end{aligned}$$

Remarks. 1. If the product AB is defined, then the matrices A and B are said to be conformable for multiplication AB .

2. If AB is defined, BA may or may not be defined.

3. Method of multiplication is known as Row-by-Column method.

10.10. Properties of Matrix Multiplication

Property 1. Matrix Multiplication is associative. If A, B, C are matrices of the order $m \times n, n \times p, p \times q$ respectively, then

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

Proof. A is a matrix of order $m \times n$, B is of order $n \times p$.

$\therefore AB$ is a matrix of order $m \times p$; C is a matrix of order $p \times q$.

$\therefore (AB)C$ is a matrix of type $m \times q$.

Similarly, it is easy to see that $A(BC)$ is a matrix of order $m \times q$.

Thus $(AB)C$ and $A(BC)$ are matrices both of the same order. ... (1)

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}, B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}, C = [c_{ij}]_{p \times q}$

Now (i, k) th element of the product AB
= sum of the products of elements of i th row of A and
 k th col. of B

$$= \sum_{l=1}^n a_{il}b_{lk} = d_{ik} \text{ (say)}$$

Now (i, j) th element of the product $(AB)C$

= sum of the products of elements of i th row of AB
and j th column of C

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{k=1}^p d_{ik}c_{kj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^p \left(\sum_{l=1}^n a_{il}b_{lk} \right) c_{kj} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{l=1}^n (a_{il} b_{lk}) c_{kj} \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^p \sum_{l=1}^n a_{il} (b_{lk} c_{kj})
 \end{aligned}$$

[\because Multiplication is associative for elements of matrices]

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{l=1}^n a_{il} \sum_{k=1}^p (b_{lk} c_{kj}) \\
 &= \text{Sum of the products of elements of } i\text{th row of A with} \\
 &\quad j\text{th column of BC} \\
 &= (i, j)\text{th element of } A(BC) \quad \dots(2)
 \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (2),

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

Note. $(AB)C$ and $A(BC)$ both are written = ABC .

Property 2. Distributive Laws :

If A, B, C are three matrices of type $m \times n$, $n \times p$, $n \times p$ respectively,

then

$$(i) \quad A(B + C) = AB + AC \quad [\text{Left : Distributive Law}]$$

(M.D.U 1995)

$$(ii) \quad (B + C)A = BA + CA \quad [\text{Right : Distributive Law}]$$

To prove $A(B + C) = AB + AC$.

A is a matrix of order $m \times n$ and $(B + C)$ is a matrix of order $n \times p$, therefore $A(B + C)$ is a matrix of order $m \times p$. Similarly, each of the matrix AB, AC is of order $m \times p$.

$\therefore AB + AC$ is a matrix of order $m \times p$.

$\therefore A(B + C)$ and $AB + AC$ are matrices of the same order. $\dots(1)$

Now (i, j) th element of $A(B + C)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} (b_{kj} + c_{kj}) \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n (a_{ik} b_{kj} + a_{ik} c_{kj})
 \end{aligned}$$

[Using distributive law for elements]

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj} + \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} c_{kj} \\
 &= (i, j)\text{th ele. of } AB + (i, j)\text{th ele. of } AC \\
 &= (i, j)\text{th ele. of } (AB + AC) \quad \dots(2)
 \end{aligned}$$

From (1) and (2),

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

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

Property 3. If A be any $n \times n$ matrix, then

$AI_n = A = I_n A$. Proof is left to the reader as an exercise.

Property 4. Matrix Multiplication is not commutative.

Prove that the product of matrices is not commutative in general i.e., prove $AB \neq BA$, discussing all possibilities.

Proof. Case I. AB is defined but BA is not defined.

Let A be of order 3×2 and B be of order 2×4 .

$\therefore AB$ is defined and is a matrix of order 3×4 .

But BA is not defined $\therefore AB \neq BA$.

Case II. AB and BA are both defined but are of different order.

Let A be of order 2×3 and matrix B of order 3×2 .

$\therefore AB$ is defined and is a matrix of order 2×2 .

BA is also defined and is a matrix of order 3×3 .

$\therefore AB \neq BA$.

Case III. AB and BA are both defined and both are of the same order, yet $AB \neq BA$.

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

be two square matrices of the same order 2×2 .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore AB &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4+21 & 2+15 \\ -2+28 & -1+20 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 17 \\ 26 & 19 \end{bmatrix}.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 BA &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4-1 & 6+4 \\ 14-5 & 21+20 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 10 \\ 9 & 41 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $AB \neq BA$.

Property 5. Give an example of matrices A and B such that $A \neq 0$, $B \neq 0$, but $AB = 0$.

Or Prove that $AB = 0$, does not imply either $A = 0$ or $B = 0$.

$$\text{Proof. Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore A \neq 0, B \neq 0$

$$AD = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 & 0 + 0 \\ 1 \cdot 1 & 0 + 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, $A \neq 0$, $D \neq 0$ yet $AD = 0$.

Note: $D \cdot AD = 0$ may be similar to you.

Property 8 Cancellation law in multiplication does not hold i.e.

Give an example of matrices A, B, C such that

$$AB = AC, \text{ but } B \neq C$$

Proof. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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

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

Thus, $AB = AC$, whereas $B \neq C$.

10.11. Positive Integral Powers of a Matrix

If A is a square matrix, then $A \cdot A$ is also a square matrix of the same order and we write $A \cdot A = A^2$, $A \cdot A \cdot A = A^3$ etc.

For all positive integers m and n , the following results hold

(1) $A^m = \underbrace{A \cdot A \cdot A \cdots A}_m \text{ times}$

(2) $A^m \cdot A^n = A^{m+n}$

(3) $(A^m)^n = A^{mn}$

(4) We define that $A^0 = I$.

Example 1. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Show that $A^2 = 0$.

Sol. $A^2 = A \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 2 & 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 \\ 2 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 2 & 2 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Thus, $A^2 = 0$, whereas $A \neq 0$.

Note: Hence from $A^2 = 0$, we cannot conclude that $A = 0$.

Example 2. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$,

find AB and BA and show that $AB \neq BA$.

Sol. Here A is 3×3 matrix and B is also 3×3 matrix.

$\therefore AB$ and BA are both defined and are matrices of the same order 3×3 .

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 & 1 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 5 & 1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 \\ 1 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 & 1 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 5 & 1 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 \\ 4 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 & 4 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 5 & 4 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 4 & 0 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 & 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 \\ 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 4 & 1 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 & 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 \\ 0 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 4 & 0 \cdot 3 + 5 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 & 0 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 9 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ Hence } AB \neq BA.$$

Example 3. By using Principle of Mathematical Induction prove that

if $A^2 = 5A - 2I$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ then}$$

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2n & -4n \\ n & 1 - 2n \end{bmatrix}$$

n being positive integer.

(K.U. 1991 S)

Sol. The result to be proved is

$$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2n & -4n \\ n & 1 - 2n \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Putting $n = 1$ in (1), we get

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

which shows that result is proved for $n = 1$.

Let us assume the result to be true for $n = k$

i.e., $A^k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2k & -4k \\ k & 1 - 2k \end{bmatrix}$

we shall, prove the result for $n = k + 1$ i.e.

$$A^{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 2(k+1) & -4(k+1) \\ k+1 & 1 - 2(k+1) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

L.H.S. of (2) = $A^{k+1} = A^k \cdot A$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1+2k & -4k \\ k & 1-2k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (1+2k)3 + (-4k)(1) & (1+2k)(-4) + (-4k)(-1) \\ k \cdot 3 + 1(1-2k) & k(-4) + (1-2k)(-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2k+3 & -4k-4 \\ k+1 & -2k-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1+2(k+1) & -4(k+1) \\ k+1 & 1-2(k+1) \end{bmatrix} = \text{R.H.S. of (2).}$$

Thus, the result is true for $n = k + 1$, whenever it is true for $n = k$.
Hence by induction the result is true for all positive integers n .

Example 4. Define the following and give one example of each :

- ✓ (i) Idempotent matrix
- ✓ (ii) Nilpotent matrix
- ✓ (iii) Involutionary matrix.

Sol. (i) A square matrix A is said to be Idempotent if $A^2 = A$.

✓ For example, the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & -4 \\ -1 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ is idempotent.

(Verify that $A^2 = A$).

(ii) A square matrix A is called Nilpotent if there exists a positive integer m such that $A^m = O$. If m is the least positive integer such that $A^m = O$, then m is called the index of the nilpotent matrix A .

For example, the matrices $\begin{bmatrix} ab & b^2 \\ -a^2 & -ab \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ are nilpotent

(Verify that $A^2 = O$).

Every upper triangular matrix is nilpotent.

(iii) A square matrix A is said to be Involutionary if $A^2 = I$.

For example, the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ -1 & -\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$ is involutory.

* **Example 5.** Show that the matrix A is involutory, if and only if $(I + A)(I - A) = O$.

Sol. Let A be an involutory matrix of order n .

Then $A^2 = I$

$\Rightarrow A^2 - I = O$

$\Rightarrow I^2 - A^2 = O$

($\because I^2 = I$)

$\Rightarrow (I - A)(I + A) = O$

($\because AI = IA$)

Conversely, if $(I + A)(I - A) = O$

then $I^2 - IA + AI - A^2 = O$

$\Rightarrow I - A^2 + AI - AI = O$ ($\because IA = AI$)

$\Rightarrow I - A^2 + O = O$

$\Rightarrow I - A^2 = O$

$\Rightarrow A^2 = I$

EXERCISE 10 (a) *write*

* 1. Perform matrix multiplication AB , where

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & c & -b \\ -c & 0 & a \\ b & -a & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ab & ac \\ ab & b^2 & bc \\ ac & bc & c^2 \end{bmatrix}$

* 2. If $A_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$,

then show that

$A_\alpha \cdot A_\beta = A_{\alpha+\beta} = A_\beta \cdot A_\alpha$

* 3. Find the product of the matrices :

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, where $i^2 = -1$.

* 4. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Find AB, BA . Is $AB = BA$?

(M.D.U. 1981 S)

* 5. Show that for

$A = \begin{bmatrix} ab & b^2 \\ -a^2 & -ab \end{bmatrix}$

$A^2 = O$.

* 6. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, where $i^2 = -1$.

Verify that $(A + B)^2 = A^2 + B^2$.

* 7. (a) Show that the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

is a solution of the matrix equation

$A^2 - 5A + 7I = O$.

(K.U. 1980 ; M.D.U. 1983)

(b) If $f(x) = x^2 - 5x + 7$, find $f(A)$, where

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

(K.U. 1988)

* 8. If $f(x) = x^2 - 5x + 6$, find $f(A)$, where

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

(K.U. 1980)

[Hint. $f(A) = A^2 - 5A + 6I_3$, find A^2 and substitute the values of I_3, A and A^2]

9. Prove that matrix multiplication is distributive over matrix addition. (M.D.U. 1991)

(Reproduce property 2, Art. 10.10)

10. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$

Show that

$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos n\theta & \sin n\theta \\ -\sin n\theta & \cos n\theta \end{bmatrix}$. (M.D.U. 1994; G.N.D.U. 1981)

11. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, prove that

$(aI_2 + bA)^n = a^n I_2 + na^{n-1} bA$ for a positive integer n . (M.D.U. 1993)

12. Determine all the idempotent diagonal matrices of order n .

[Hint. If $A^2 = A$ then $\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1^2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore A^2 = A \Rightarrow d_i^2 = d_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
 $\Rightarrow d_i = 0, 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

Hence $A = \text{dia. } [d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n]$ for $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n \in \{0, 1\}$ is the required idempotent diagonal matrix.]

13. Show that the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 & 6 \\ -2 & -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ is nilpotent with index 3.

[Hint. Show $A^3 = O$.]

14. Show that the following matrices are involutory

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

15. Show that the sum of two Idempotent matrices A and B is idempotent if $AB = BA = O$.

Answers

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

4. $AB = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 12 & 11 \\ -1 & 7 & 8 \\ -2 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, BA = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 9 & 13 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 \\ -2 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -3 \\ -1 & -1 & -10 \\ -5 & 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

9. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 4 \\ 5 & -7 & 8 \\ -3 & 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}, X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 9 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$

10.12. Transpose of a matrix

Let A be any given matrix of the order $m \times n$, then a matrix obtained from A by changing its rows into columns and columns into rows is called the transpose of a matrix A and is denoted by A' which will be of the type $n \times m$.

In symbols. If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ then

$A' = [c_{ij}]_{n \times m}$, where $c_{ij} = a_{ji}$

i.e., (i, j) th element of A' = (j, i) th element of A .

For example,

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

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

10.13. Theorem

If A' and B' denote transpose of A and B , prove that

- (1) $(A')' = A$
- (2) $(A + B)' = A' + B'$, A, B are conformable for addition
- (3) $(kA)' = kA'$, k is any scalar
- (4) $(AB)' = B'A'$, A, B are conformable for multiplication

(M.D.U. 1982)

(5) $(A^n)' = (A')^n$, A is a square matrix, n is a positive integer.

Proof. (1) Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$\therefore A' = [c_{ij}]_{n \times m}$, where $c_{ij} = a_{ji}$

$\therefore (A')' = [d_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

where $d_{ij} = c_{ji} = a_{ij}$

$\therefore (A')' = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = A$

(2) Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$\therefore A + B$ is a matrix of order $m \times n$

$\therefore (A + B)'$ is a matrix of order $n \times m$

Again A' and B' are matrices of order $n \times m$

$\therefore (A' + B')$ is a matrix of order $n \times m$

$\therefore (A + B)'$ and $(A' + B')$ are matrices of the same order.

(i, j)th element of $(A + B)'$

$$= (j, i)\text{th element of } (A + B)$$

$$= (j, i)\text{th element of } A + (j, i)\text{th element of } B$$

$$= (i, j)\text{th element of } A' + (i, j)\text{th element of } B'$$

$$= (i, j)\text{th element of } (A' + B')$$

Thus $(A + B)' = A' + B'$.

(3) Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$\therefore (kA)'$ and kA' are matrices of the same order $n \times m$. (i, j)th element of $(kA)'$

$$= (j, i)\text{th element of } kA$$

$$= k [(j, i)\text{th element of } A]$$

$$= k [(i, j)\text{th element of } A']$$

$$= (i, j)\text{th element of } kA'$$

$\therefore (kA)' = kA'$.

✓ (4) To prove $(AB)' = B'A'$

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$

$\therefore A' = [\alpha_{ij}]_{n \times m}$ and $B' = [\beta_{ij}]_{p \times n}$, where

$$\alpha_{ij} = a_{ji} \text{ and } \beta_{ij} = b_{ji}$$

Now AB is a matrix of order $m \times p$.

$\therefore (AB)'$ is a matrix of order $p \times m$. Also $B'A'$ is a matrix of order $p \times m$.

$\therefore (AB)'$ and $B'A'$ are matrices of the same order $p \times m$.

(i, j)th element of $(AB)'$

$$= (j, i)\text{th element of } AB$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n a_{jk} b_{ki} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(The sum of products of elements} \\ \text{of } j\text{th row of } A \text{ with corresp.} \\ \text{element of } i\text{th col. of } B) \end{array}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_{kj} \beta_{ik} \quad [\because \alpha_{ij} = a_{ji} \text{ and } \beta_{ij} = b_{ji}]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \beta_{ik} \alpha_{kj}$$

$$= (i, j)\text{th element of } B'A'$$

...(2)

\therefore From (1) and (2),

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

Cor. $(A_1 \cdot A_2 \dots A_n)' = A_n' \cdot A_{n-1}' \dots A_2' \cdot A_1'$

Putting $A_1 = A_2 = \dots = A_n = A$, where A is a sq. matrix

$$\therefore (A \cdot A \dots A)' = A' \cdot A' \dots A' \cdot A'$$

$$\therefore (A^n)' = (A')^n$$

Hence $(A^n)' = (A')^n$, n being a natural number.

10.14. Conjugate of a matrix

Let A be a given matrix of order $m \times n$ over the complex number system, then a matrix obtained from A by replacing each of its elements by their corresponding complex conjugates is called the **conjugate of A** and is denoted by \bar{A} , where \bar{A} is also of the same order $m \times n$.

In notation we can define as

If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then

$$\bar{A} = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}, \text{ where } b_{ij} = \bar{a}_{ij}$$

For example,

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2+i & 2 & 5i \\ 5i+7 & -8 & 4i-3 \\ 2 & 5+i & 4-2i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2-i & 2 & -5i \\ -5i+7 & -8 & -4i-3 \\ 2 & 5-i & 4+2i \end{bmatrix}$$

It is to be noted that conjugate complex of $5i + 7$ is $-5i + 7$.

10.15. Theorem

If \bar{A} and \bar{B} denote the conjugate of A and B , respectively, then prove

$$1. \overline{(\bar{A})} = A.$$

$$2. \overline{(A+B)} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}, \text{ where } A \text{ and } B \text{ are conformable for addition.}$$

$$3. \overline{(kA)} = k \bar{A}, \text{ where } k \text{ is any complex number.}$$

$$4. \overline{(AB)} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}.$$

$$5. \overline{(A^n)} = (\bar{A})^n.$$

Proofs. Proofs for properties (1), (2) and (3) are easy and are left to the reader as an exercise.

$$4. \text{ To prove } \overline{AB} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}.$$

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$, where the elements a_{ij} and b_{ij} are over the complex field.

only statement that

$$\therefore \bar{A} = [\alpha_{ij}]_{m \times n} \quad \text{where } \alpha_{ij} = \bar{a}_{ij}$$

$$\text{and } \bar{B} = [\beta_{ij}]_{n \times p} \quad \text{where } \beta_{ij} = \bar{b}_{ij}$$

Now $\bar{A}\bar{B}$ and $\overline{A \cdot B}$ are matrices, both of the same order $m \times p$.

(i, j)th element of $\overline{A \cdot B}$... (1)

= Conjugate of the (i, j)th element of AB

$$= \overline{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj} \right)}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \overline{a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}} \quad [\text{Using } \overline{z_1 + z_2} = \bar{z}_1 + \bar{z}_2]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \bar{a}_{ik} \cdot \bar{b}_{kj} \quad [\text{Using } \overline{z_1 z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \cdot \bar{z}_2]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_{ik} \cdot \beta_{kj}$$

$$= (i, j)\text{th element of } \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B} \quad \dots (2)$$

From (1) and (2),

$$\overline{AB} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$

(5) To prove $\bar{A}^n = (\bar{A})^n$

Using the above result (4),

$$\overline{A_1 \cdot A_2 \dots A_n} = \bar{A}_1 \cdot \bar{A}_2 \dots \bar{A}_n$$

where the product on each side is defined.

$$\text{Put } A_1 = A_2 = \dots = A_n = A$$

$$\therefore \overline{A \cdot A \cdot A \dots n \text{ terms}} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{A} \cdot \bar{A} \dots n \text{ terms}$$

$$\therefore \bar{A}^n = (\bar{A})^n, n \text{ is a natural number.}$$

10.16. Transposed Conjugate of a Matrix

The transposed of the conjugate or conjugate of the transpose of a matrix A is called *Transposed Conjugate* of A and is denoted by A^θ or by A^* . Thus

$$A^\theta = (\bar{A})' = (\bar{A}')$$

Thus if $A = [a_{ij}]$, then $A^\theta = [\alpha_{ij}]$ where $\alpha_{ij} = \bar{a}_{ji}$

i.e. (i, j)th element of $A^\theta =$ The conjugate complex of the (j, i)th element of A . For example, if

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

then

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

$$A^\theta = (\bar{A})' = \begin{bmatrix} 1+2i & -7 & 0 \\ 2-3i & -8i & -6i+5 \\ 4 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

10.17. Theorem. If A^θ and B^θ be the transposed conjugate of A and B respectively, then

1. $(A^\theta)^\theta = A$
2. $(A+B)^\theta = A^\theta + B^\theta$, A, B are of the same order
3. $(kA)^\theta = \bar{k}A^\theta$, k is any complex number
4. $(AB)^\theta = B^\theta A^\theta$, A, B are conformable for multiplication.

Proof.

$$1. (A^\theta)^\theta = \overline{(\bar{A})'} = \overline{(\bar{A})} = A$$

$$2. (A+B)^\theta = \overline{(\overline{A+B})'} = \overline{(\bar{A} + \bar{B})'} \\ = \overline{(\bar{A})' + (\bar{B})'} = A^\theta + B^\theta$$

$$3. (kA)^\theta = \overline{(kA)'} = \overline{(k \bar{A})'} = \bar{k} \overline{(\bar{A})'} \\ = \bar{k} A^\theta$$

$$4. (AB)^\theta = \overline{(AB)'} = \overline{(\bar{A} \bar{B})'} \\ = \overline{(\bar{B})' (\bar{A})'} = B^\theta A^\theta$$

10.18. Symmetric Matrix

Def. A matrix A is said to be a symmetric matrix if $A' = A$, i.e. if the transpose of a matrix is equal to itself.

$$\text{Let } A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

$$\therefore A' = [\alpha_{ij}]_{n \times m}, \text{ where } \alpha_{ij} = a_{ji}$$

The matrix A will be symmetric, if and only if,

$$A = A'$$

i.e. if and only if $m = n$ and $a_{ij} = \alpha_{ij} = a_{ji}$. Thus we have

Definition. A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is symmetric if $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i and j , i.e.

A square matrix is symmetric if and only if (i, j)th element = (j, i)th element.

EXERCISE 10 (b)

- Define the following and give one suitable example in each case :
 - Transpose of a matrix
 - Symmetric matrix
 - Skew-symmetric matrix
 - Hermitian matrix
 - Skew-Hermitian matrix.
- Find the transpose of the following matrices and point out if any of them is symmetric or Skew-symmetric

$$(i) \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & k & m \\ c & m & x \end{bmatrix} \quad (ii) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 & 7 \\ -5 & 0 & 11 \\ -7 & -11 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

3. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $i^2 = -1$

Verify that $(AB)' = B'A'$.

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

Verify $(AB)' = B'A'$. (M.D.U. 1994)

5. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$

Verify that $(A^2)' = (A')^2$.

6. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2+3i & i \\ 6i+5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} i & 2i+1 \\ 2-i & -i \end{bmatrix}$

Verify that $\overline{(AB)} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$.

7. Prove by an example of a matrix 3×3 , that if A is a lower triangular matrix, then A' is an upper triangle matrix.

8. If A and B are symmetric, show that $(AB + BA)$ is symmetric and $(AB - BA)$ is skew-symmetric.

9. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$,

verify that $(AB)^0 = B^0 A^0$. (M.D.U. 1993)

10. Show that the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1+i & 2+3i \\ 1-i & 1 & -i \\ 2-3i & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is Hermitian. (M.D.U. 1993)

11. Show that (i) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1+i & 2+3i \\ 1-i & 1 & -i \\ 2-3i & i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is Hermitian.

(ii) $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2i & 1+i & 2-3i \\ -1+i & 5i & 2 \\ -2-3i & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is Skew-Hermitian. (M.D.U. 1994)

(iii) iB is Hermitian.

12. If A is a Hermitian (Skew-Hermitian) matrix, then show that zA is Skew-Hermitian (Hermitian).

13. Show that every square matrix can be uniquely expressed as the sum of a Hermitian and a Skew-Hermitian matrix. (K.U. 1988)

[Hint. Write $A = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^0) + \frac{1}{2}(A - A^0) = P + Q$ and show that $P^0 = P$ and $Q^0 = -Q$.]

14. If A and B are Hermitian, show that

(i) $AB + BA$ is Hermitian (K.U. 1991 S)

(ii) $AB - BA$ is Skew-Hermitian. (K.U. 1991 S)

(iii) AB is Hermitian if and only if $AB = BA$.

(iv) BAB and ABA are Hermitian.

Answers

2. (i) $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & k & m \\ c & m & x \end{bmatrix}$ (It is a Symmetric Matrix)

(ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -5 & -7 \\ 5 & 0 & -11 \\ 7 & 11 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (It is a Skew-symmetric Matrix).

10.20. Definition. Determinant of a Square Matrix

(i) If $A = [a_{11}]$ is a square matrix of order 1×1 over a field F , then determinant of the matrix A is the number $a_{11} \in F$. Thus

$$\det A = |A| = a_{11}$$

(ii) If $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

be a square matrix of order $n \times n$ over a field F , where $n \geq 2$, then we write determinant of A as

$$\det A = |A|$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (-1)^{i+1} a_{i1} \det A_{i1} + (-1)^{i+2} a_{i2} \det A_{i2} + \dots + (-1)^{i+n} a_{in} \det A_{in}$$

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

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

where A_{ij} is a sub-matrix of order $(n-1) \times (n-1)$, obtained by deleting the i th row and the j th col. of matrix A and determinant of A_{ij} is defined by applying induction on n .

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \cdot (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij} \text{ is called expansion of } \det A \text{ by the } i\text{th row. Similarly, we can write}$$

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

It is known as expansion of $\det A$ by the j th column.

We observe that $\det A$ is a scalar $\in F$. Thus, a determinant is a function on the set of all $n \times n$ square matrices over the field F .

10.21. Definition. Minor of an Element

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is any square matrix, then $\det A_{ij}$ called the *minor* of (i, j) th entry a_{ij} of A and may be denoted by M_{ij} .

10.22. Co-factor of an Element

If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is any square matrix of order $n \times n$, then $(-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}$ is called the *co-factor* of (i, j) th entry a_{ij} of A , and may be denoted by C_{ij} . Thus

C_{ij} = Co-factor of (i, j) th entry of a matrix A

$$= (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}, \text{ where } A_{ij} \text{ is the } (n-1) \times (n-1)$$

sub-matrix of A , obtained by deleting the i th row and the j th col. of A .

Remarks :

In terms of co-factors, the expansion of the determinant of a square matrix

$A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ (expansion by } i\text{th row)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ (expansion by } j\text{th col.)} \end{aligned}$$

10.23. An important Property

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

$$(i) \sum_{j=1}^3 a_{ij} C_{rj} = \det A \text{ if } r = i.$$

$$(ii) \sum_{j=1}^3 a_{ij} C_{rj} = 0 \text{ if } r \neq i.$$

Proof. (i) When $r = i$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{j=1}^3 a_{ij} C_{ij} \\ &= a_{i1} C_{i1} + a_{i2} C_{i2} + a_{i3} C_{i3} \quad [\text{Take } i = 1 \text{ (or 2 or 3)}] \\ &= a_{11} C_{11} + a_{12} C_{12} + a_{13} C_{13} \\ &= a_{11} \cdot (-1)^2 \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{12} \cdot (-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + a_{13} \cdot (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + a_{13} \det A_{13} \\ &= \det A. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) $r \neq i$

$$\sum_{j=1}^3 a_{ij} C_{rj} = a_{i1} C_{r1} + a_{i2} C_{r2} + a_{i3} C_{r3}$$

Taking $i = 1$ and $r = 2$ (say)

$$\begin{aligned} &= a_{11} C_{21} + a_{12} C_{22} + a_{13} C_{23} \\ &= a_{11} \cdot (-1)^3 \det A_{21} + a_{12} \cdot (-1)^4 \det A_{22} \\ &\quad + a_{13} \cdot (-1)^5 \det A_{23} \\ &= -a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= -a_{11}(a_{12} \cdot a_{33} - a_{13} \cdot a_{32}) + a_{12}(a_{11} \cdot a_{33} - a_{31} \cdot a_{13}) \\ &\quad - a_{13}(a_{11} \cdot a_{32} - a_{12} \cdot a_{31}) \\ &= -a_{11} a_{12} a_{33} + a_{11} a_{13} a_{32} + a_{11} a_{12} a_{33} - a_{12} a_{31} a_{13} \\ &\quad - a_{11} a_{13} a_{32} + a_{13} a_{12} a_{31} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Remark. The result is quite general and holds for determinants of square matrices of all order. Thus if $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$, then

$$(1) \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} C_{rj} = \det A \text{ if } i = r \\ = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq r.$$

(2) If A is a square matrix with any one line consisting of zero elements, then

$$\det A = 0$$

[$\because a_{ij} = 0$ for some i or j]

(3) If A is triangular matrix, then

$\det A =$ product of the diagonal elements.

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \Delta_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Delta_1 \end{vmatrix} \quad [\because a_1A_1 + b_1B_1 + c_1C_1 = \Delta \\ a_1A_2 + b_1B_2 + c_1C_2 = 0 \text{ etc.}]$$

$$= \Delta_1^3$$

$$\therefore \Delta_2 = \Delta_1^2$$

$$\text{Hence } \begin{vmatrix} A_1 & B_1 & C_1 \\ A_2 & B_2 & C_2 \\ A_3 & B_3 & C_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}^2$$

Adjugate determinants or Reciprocal determinants. If all the elements in a determinant Δ be replaced by their co-factors in Δ , then the determinant so obtained is called **Adjugate or Reciprocal of Δ** .

For example in the above example Δ_2 is adjugate of Δ_1 . In general if Δ_1 is of n th order, then $\Delta_2 = \Delta_1^{n-1}$.

EXERCISE 10 (d)

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

Verify that $\det. (AB) = (\det. A) (\det. B)$.

$$2. \text{ If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & i & 5i+2 \\ 5 & -1 & 0 \\ 2+i & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Verify that $\det. \bar{A} = \overline{(\det. A)}$

where the bar indicates the complex conjugate.

- If $AA' = I$, then $|A| = \pm 1$.
- If Δ' is the reciprocal determinant of a determinant Δ of order n , then $\Delta' = \Delta^{n-1}$, (proceed as in example 5).
- Prove that if A and B are two square matrices of order n , then

$$(i) |A'B| = |AB'| = |A'B'| = |AB|$$

$$(ii) |A^0B^0| = |\overline{AB}|$$

10.27. Adjoint of a Square Matrix

Def. If $A = [\bar{a}_{ij}]$ is a square matrix of order n , and A_{ij} is the cofactor of a_{ij} in $|A|$, then the matrix

$$[A_{ij}]' = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & \dots & A_{n1} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & \dots & A_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1n} & A_{2n} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the **adjoint of A** and is written as **adj. A** .

In other words. To find adjoint of square matrix A , replace each element of A by its co-factor in $|A|$ and take the transpose, the matrix so obtained will be adjoint of A .

Example 1. Calculate the adjoint of A

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Sol. } |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$$

- \therefore Co-factor of a , (1, 1)th element = $(-1)^2 |d| = d$
- Co-factor of b , (1, 2)th element = $(-1)^2 |c| = -c$
- Co-factor of c , (2, 1)th element = $(-1)^3 |b| = -b$
- Co-factor of d , (2, 2)th element = $(-1)^4 |a| = a$

$$\therefore \text{Adj. of } A = \begin{bmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2. Calculate the adjoint of the diagonal matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Sol. Co-factor of } d_1 = (-1)^2 \begin{vmatrix} d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} = d_2d_3$$

$$\text{Co-factor of } d_2 = (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} = d_1d_3$$

$$\text{Co-factor of } d_3 = (-1)^6 \begin{vmatrix} d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 \end{vmatrix} = d_1d_2$$

$$\therefore \text{Adj. of } A = \begin{bmatrix} d_2d_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_3d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_1d_2 \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} d_2d_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_3d_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_1d_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

This shows that adjoint of a diagonal matrix is a diagonal matrix.

Example 3. Calculate the adjoint of A , where

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

Sol. Co-factor of 1, (1, 1)th element

$$= (-1)^2 \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (-1-2) = -3$$

Co-factor of 2, (1, 2)th element

$$= (-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -(1+4) = -5$$

Co-factor of 3, (1, 3)th element

$$= (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (1-2) = -1$$

Co-factor of 1, (2, 1)th element

$$= (-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -(2-3) = 1$$

Co-factor of -1, (2, 2)th element

$$= (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (1+6) = 7$$

Co-factor of 2, (2, 3)th element

$$= (-1)^5 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -(1+4) = -5$$

Co-factor of -2, (3, 1)th element

$$= (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = (4+3) = 7$$

Co-factor of 1, (3, 2)th element

$$= (-1)^5 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -(2-3) = 1$$

Co-factor of 1, (3, 3)th element

$$= (-1)^6 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = (-1-2) = -3$$

$$\therefore \text{Adj. of } A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -5 & -1 \\ 1 & 7 & -5 \\ 7 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 & 7 \\ -5 & 7 & 1 \\ -1 & -5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

10.28. Theorem. If A be a n -square matrix, then prove that

$$A(\text{adj. } A) = (\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I_n \quad (\text{K.U. 1995 S})$$

where I_n denotes the unit matrix of order n .

Proof. Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be n -square matrix.

$$\therefore \text{Adj } A = [A_{ij}]', \text{ where } A_{ij} \text{ is co-factor of } a_{ij} \text{ in } |A| \\ = [\alpha_{ij}], \text{ where } \alpha_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

To find the product of A (adj. A)

(i, j) th element of A (adj. A)

= sum of the products of the corresponding elements of the i th row of A and the j th col. of adj. A

$$= [a_{i1} a_{i2} \dots a_{in}] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{1j} \\ \alpha_{2j} \\ \alpha_{3j} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{nj} \end{bmatrix} \\ = a_{i1}\alpha_{1j} + a_{i2}\alpha_{2j} + \dots + a_{in}\alpha_{nj} \\ = a_{i1}A_{j1} + a_{i2}A_{j2} + \dots + a_{in}A_{jn} \quad \dots(1)$$

Now we know from determinants that in a determinant $|A|$ if the elements of any row are multiplied by their corresponding co-factors and added, the result is $|A|$, and if elements of any line are multiplied by the co-factors of any parallel line and added, then the result is zero.

Thus, R.H.S. of (1) = 0 if $i \neq j$

$$= |A| \text{ if } i = j$$

Thus (i, j) th element of $A(\text{adj. } A) = 0$ ($i \neq j$)

$$= |A| \text{ if } i = j$$

This shows that all the diagonal elements of A (adj. A) are each equal to $|A|$ and non-diagonal elements are zero.

$$\text{Hence } A(\text{adj. } A) = \begin{bmatrix} |A| & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & |A| & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & |A| & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & |A| \end{bmatrix} \\ = |A| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = |A| I_n$$

Similarly,

(i, j) th element in (adj. A) A

$$= [\alpha_{i1} \alpha_{i2} \dots \alpha_{in}] \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \dots \\ a_{nj} \end{bmatrix} \\ = \alpha_{i1}a_{1j} + \alpha_{i2}a_{2j} + \dots + \alpha_{in}a_{nj} \\ = A_{1i}a_{1j} + A_{2i}a_{2j} + \dots + A_{ni}a_{nj} \\ = a_{1i}A_{1j} + a_{2i}A_{2j} + \dots + a_{ni}A_{nj} \\ = |A| \begin{cases} \text{if } i = j \\ 0 \text{ if } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad (\text{By remark Art. 10.23})$$

$$\therefore (\text{adj. } A)(A) = |A| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = |A| I_n$$

Hence $A(\text{adj. } A) = (\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I_n$.

Cor. If A is a non-singular matrix of order n , then

$$|\text{adj. } A| = |A|^{n-1}$$

Proof. $\because A(\text{adj. } A) = |A| I$

Taking determinant of both sides

$$\therefore |A(\text{adj. } A)| = ||A| I|$$

or $|A||\text{adj. } A| = |A|^n \quad [\because |AB| = |A||B|, |I| = 1]$

But $|A| \neq 0$, dividing by $|A|$

$$\therefore |\text{adj. } A| = |A|^{n-1}$$

Example 4. Find the adjoint of matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and verify the theorem $A(\text{adj. } A) = (\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I$.

(M.D.U. 1980 S ; K.U. 1995 A)

Sol. $|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$

operate Col. 1 - 2 Col. 2 ; Col. 3 - 3 Col. 2

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = -(-3-3) = 6$$

Co-factor of 2, (1, 1)th element = $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 3-4 = -1$

Co-factor of 1, (1, 2)th element = $-\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -(9-2) = -7$

Co-factor of 3, (1, 3)th element = $\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 6-1 = 5$

Co-factor of 3, (2, 1)th element = $-\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -(3-6) = 3$

Co-factor of 1, (2, 2)th element = $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 6-3 = 3$

Co-factor of 2, (2, 3)th element = $-\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -(4-1) = -3$

Co-factor of 1, (3, 1)th element = $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2-3 = -1$

Co-factor of 2, (3, 2)th element = $-\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -(4-9) = 5$

Co-factor of 3, (3, 3)th element = $(-1)^6 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2-3 = -1$

$$\therefore \text{Adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -7 & 5 \\ 3 & 3 & -3 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}' = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -7 & 3 & 5 \\ 5 & -3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A(\text{adj. } A) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -7 & 3 & 5 \\ 5 & -3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2(-1) + 1(-7) + 3 \cdot 5 & 2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 3(-3) & 2(-1) + 1 \cdot 5 + 3(-1) \\ 3(-1) + 1(-7) + 2 \cdot 5 & 3 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 2(-3) & 3(-1) + 1 \cdot 5 + 2(-1) \\ 1(-1) + 2(-7) + 3 \cdot 5 & 1 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 3 + 3(-3) & 1(-1) + 2 \cdot 5 + 3(-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = 6 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = |A| I_3$$

$$\therefore A(\text{adj. } A) = |A| I_3.$$

Similarly, it can be shown that $(\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I_3$

Hence the verification.

Example 5. Prove that adjoint of a unit matrix is a unit matrix.

Sol. Let I_n be the unit matrix of order n .

(i, j)th element of $\text{adj. } I_n =$ Co-factor of (j, i)th element in I_n

$= 1$ or 0 according as $i = j$ or $i \neq j$

(\because In a unit matrix, co-factor of diagonal element is 1 whereas co-factor of non-diagonal element is zero)

Thus $\text{adj. } I_n = I_n$.

Example 6. Prove that $\text{adj. } A' = (\text{adj. } A)'$, where A is any square matrix.

Sol. Let A be any square matrix of order n , then $\text{adj. } A'$ and $(\text{adj. } A)'$ are both square matrices of order n .

(i, j)th element of $(\text{adj. } A)'$

$=$ (j, i)th element of $(\text{adj. } A)$

$=$ the co-factor of (i, j)th element in the matrix A

$=$ the co-factor of (j, i)th element in A'

$=$ (i, j)th element of $\text{adj. } A'$

Hence $\text{adj. } A' = (\text{adj. } A)'$.

Example 7. If A is a symmetric matrix, then prove that adjoint A is also symmetric.

Sol. Let A be a symmetric matrix, then $A' = A$
 $\therefore (\text{adj. } A)' = \text{adj. } A'$ (Prove as in Example 6)
 $= \text{adj. } A$ [$\because A' = A$]
 $\therefore (\text{adj. } A)$ is a symmetric matrix.

EXERCISE 10 (e)

- Define adjoint of a matrix.
- Calculate the adjoints of the following matrices :

(i) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ (ii) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 5 \\ 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ (K.U. 1992)

- (a) Given a triangular matrix

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

find adjoint matrix of A . Is adjoint A also a triangular matrix?

- (b) Given a symmetric matrix

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

By finding the adjoint of A , show that adjoint of A is also a symmetric matrix.

* 4. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Verify $A(\text{adj. } A) = (\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I_3$, where $|A| = \text{determinant of } A$. (K.U. 1975 S, 76)

- Find the adjoint matrix of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha & 0 \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and verify that

$$A(\text{adj. } A) = (\text{adj. } A)A = |A| I$$

where I is the identity matrix of order 3. (M.D.U. 1981 S)

Answers

2. (i) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ (ii) $\begin{bmatrix} -7 & -3 & 26 \\ -3 & -1 & 11 \\ 5 & 2 & -19 \end{bmatrix}$

3. (a) $\text{adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 5 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, Yes

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} bc-f^2 & fg-ch & hf-bg \\ fg-ch & ca-g^2 & gh-af \\ hf-bg & gh-af & ab-h^2 \end{bmatrix}$

which is also a symmetric matrix.

10.29. Inverse of a Square Matrix

Definition. Let A be an n -square matrix. If there exists an n -square matrix B such that

$$AB = BA = I_n \text{ then}$$

the matrix A is said to be invertible and the matrix B is called the inverse of the matrix A .

Note 1. From the definition given above, it is very clear that if B is the inverse of A , then A is also the inverse of B .

2. A non-square matrix does not have any inverse.

Theorem. Inverse of a square matrix, if it exists is unique.

(M.D.U. 1980 S ; K.U. 1980)

Proof. Let A be any n -rowed square invertible matrix.

If possible, let B and C both be inverses of A .

$$\therefore AB = BA = I_n \quad \dots(1)$$

and

$$AC = CA = I_n \quad \dots(2)$$

$$[\because B \text{ is inverse of } A]$$

Since A, B, C are all square matrices of the same order n .

\therefore The product CAB is defined and

$$CAB = C(AB) = CI_n \quad [\text{Using (1)}]$$

$$= C \quad \dots(3)$$

Again, $CAB = (CA)B = I_n B \quad [\text{Using (2)}]$

$$= B \quad \dots(4)$$

From (3) and (4), we get

$$B = C$$

Thus, inverse of A is unique.

Note. The inverse of A shall, in general, be denoted by A^{-1} .

10.30. Singular and Non-singular matrix

Def. A square matrix A is said to be singular or non-singular according as $|A| = 0$ or $|A| \neq 0$.

For example, the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is singular and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 9 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is non-singular.

10.31. Theorem

The necessary and sufficient condition for a square matrix A to possess the inverse is that $|A| \neq 0$ (i.e., A is non-singular).
(K.U. 1995 A, 92 ; M.D.U. 1980)

Proof. The condition is necessary. Given that A is invertible (i.e., A possesses inverse), to show that A is non-singular.

$\therefore A$ possesses inverse.

\therefore Let B be the inverse of A .

$\therefore AB = BA = I_n$ [By def. of inverse]

Taking determinants, we get

$$|AB| = |BA| = |I_n| = 1$$

i.e., $|A| \cdot |B| = 1 \neq 0$

But $|A|$ and $|B|$ are scalars (numbers)

$\therefore |A| \neq 0$.

$\therefore A$ is a non-singular matrix.

The condition is sufficient. Given that A is non-singular. To show that A has inverse.

$\therefore A$ is non-singular, $\therefore |A| \neq 0$

Consider the matrix $B = \frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } AB &= A \left(\frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|} \right) = \frac{1}{|A|} (A) (\text{adj. } A) \\ &= \frac{1}{|A|} |A| I_n = I_n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } BA &= \left(\frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|} \right) A = \frac{1}{|A|} (\text{adj. } A)(A) \\ &= \frac{1}{|A|} |A| I_n = I_n \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $AB = BA = I_n$

$\therefore A$ is invertible and B is its inverse.

$$\therefore A^{-1} = B = \frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|}$$

Remember. If A is non-singular, then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|}$$

Note. The above theorem gives us one of the methods to compute the inverse of a non-singular matrix. We illustrate the method by examples given below.

Example 1. Find the inverse of matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

where $ad - bc \neq 0$.

(K.U. 1979 S)

Sol. Given matrix is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \therefore |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc \neq 0$$

i.e., A is non-singular, $\therefore A$ possesses inverse

$$\text{Adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

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

[$\because |A| = ad - bc$]

Remark. This example gives the inverse of every non-singular 2×2 matrix for different values of the element a, b, c, d .

Example 2. D is the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

where none of the elements d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 is zero. Find D^{-1} . (M.D.U. 1991)

$$\text{Sol. } D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|D| = \begin{vmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \neq 0 \quad [\because \text{none of } d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 \text{ is zero}]$$

$$\text{Now co-factor of } d_1 = (-1)^2 \begin{vmatrix} d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} = d_2 d_3 d_4$$

Similarly, co-factors of d_2, d_3, d_4 are respectively $d_1 d_3 d_4$; $d_1 d_2 d_4$; $d_1 d_2 d_3$.

$$\therefore \text{adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} d_2 d_3 d_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_1 d_3 d_4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_1 d_2 d_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_1 d_2 d_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } A^{-1} = \frac{\text{Adj. } A}{|A|} = \frac{\text{Adj. } A}{d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{d_1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{d_2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_4} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} d_1^{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence if $D = \text{diag. } [d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4]$, where $d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 \neq 0$

then $D^{-1} = \text{diag. } [d_1^{-1}, d_2^{-1}, d_3^{-1}, d_4^{-1}]$.

Remark. The method is quite general and can be extended to a non-singular diagonal matrix of any order.

Example 3. Find the inverse of the matrix A given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & -1 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (\text{Type K.U. 1994 A ; M.D.U. 1979 S})$$

Sol. Here

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 9 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & -1 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

Operate $R_1 - 3.R_3$,

$$\therefore |A| = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -7 & 0 \\ 7 & -1 & 8 \\ 3 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

Expand by Row 1

$$\therefore |A| = -(-7) \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 8 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 7(14 - 24) = -70 \neq 0.$$

$\therefore A$ is non-singular and A^{-1} exists

$$\text{adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} -34 & 10 & 31 \\ 14 & 0 & -21 \\ 46 & -30 & -44 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Replacing each element by its co-factor)

$$\text{i.e. } \text{adj. } A = \begin{bmatrix} -34 & 14 & 46 \\ 10 & 0 & -30 \\ 31 & -21 & -44 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hence } A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|} = \begin{bmatrix} -34 & 14 & 46 \\ -70 & -70 & -70 \\ 10 & 100 & -30 \\ -70 & -70 & -70 \\ 31 & 21 & -44 \\ -70 & -70 & -70 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{i.e. } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{17}{35} & \frac{-1}{5} & \frac{-23}{35} \\ \frac{-1}{7} & 0 & \frac{3}{7} \\ \frac{-31}{70} & \frac{3}{10} & \frac{22}{35} \end{bmatrix}$$

10.32. Theorem *Internal*

(a) If A is invertible, then so is A^{-1} and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$. (K.U. 1976)

(b) If A and B are square matrices of order n , then AB is invertible if and only if A and B are invertible and then

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}. \quad (\text{M.D.U. 1981 S ; K.U. 1989})$$

Proof. (a) As A is invertible $\therefore A^{-1}$ exists

and

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I.$$

This shows (by def.) that A^{-1} is also invertible and inverse of A^{-1} is A

i.e.,

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

(b) $|AB| = |A| \cdot |B|$

$\therefore |AB| \neq 0$, if and only if $|A| \neq 0$ and $|B| \neq 0$

i.e., AB is non-singular, if and only if A and B are both non-singular, which is the same as

AB is invertible if and only if A and B are invertible.

Let A and B be invertible and their inverse be A^{-1} and B^{-1} . All these matrices A, B, A^{-1}, B^{-1} are squared matrices of same order n .

$$\text{Now } (AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} \quad [\text{Associative law}]$$

$$= (AI)A^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

$$\text{Again } (B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}(A^{-1}A)B = B^{-1}IB = B^{-1}B = I$$

$\therefore A^{-1}, B^{-1}$ and $(AB)^{-1}$ all exist.

Also we know that for every non-singular matrix P ,

$$P^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj. } P}{|P|}$$

$$\therefore \text{adj. } P = |P| P^{-1} \quad \dots(1)$$

Putting $P = AB$ in (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{adj. } (AB) &= |AB| (AB)^{-1} \\ &= |A| |B| B^{-1} A^{-1} \text{ (Reversal Law)} \\ &= |A| |B| \frac{\text{adj. } B}{|B|} \frac{\text{adj. } A}{|A|} \\ &= (\text{adj. } B) (\text{adj. } A). \end{aligned}$$

EXERCISE 10 (f)

- Define the inverse of a matrix, and show that whenever it exists, it is unique.
- Prove that a square matrix A is invertible if and only if, $|A| \neq 0$, where $|A|$ denotes the determinant of A . (K.U. 1973)
- Prove that the inverse of product of two matrices is equal to the product of their inverses but in reverse order. (M.D.U. 1981 S)
- Calculate the inverse of the following matrices whenever exists :

$$(i) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & -3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (ii) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 \\ -2 & -4 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (M.D.U. 1981)$$

$$(iii) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (K.U. 1991 S)$$

$$5. \text{ If } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Show that $A^{-1} = A$. (M.D.U. 1980 S)

- Let A and B be invertible square matrices of order n . Does $(A+B)^{-1}$ exist? Justify by giving example.
- If B is non-singular, prove that $|B^{-1}AB| = |A|$
 A and B being square matrices of the same order.
- If A is an n -square non-singular matrix, prove that $|\text{adj. } A| = |A|^{n-1}$.
 [Hint. Reproduce Ex. 2 Page 301.]
- If the non-singular matrix A is symmetric, prove that A^{-1} is also symmetric.
- If the matrices A and B commute, then A^{-1} and B^{-1} are also commute.

Answers

$$4. (i) \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 & -26 \\ 3 & 1 & -11 \\ -5 & -2 & 19 \end{bmatrix} \quad 6. A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(ii) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3/2 \\ -5/4 & -1/4 & -3/4 \\ -1/4 & -1/4 & -1/4 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

7. Not necessarily.

ORTHOGONAL AND UNITARY MATRICES

10.34. Orthogonal Matrices

A square matrix A is said to be orthogonal if $A'A = AA' = I$.

i.e., if $A' = A^{-1}$

For example, the matrices $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

are orthogonal.

[One can verify $AA' = I$ in each case.]

Every identity matrix is orthogonal.

10.35. The determinant of an orthogonal matrix is ± 1

For, if A is an orthogonal matrix, then

$$AA' = I$$

$$\Rightarrow |AA'| = |I|$$

$$\Rightarrow |A| \cdot |A'| = 1 \quad (\because |AB| = |A| \cdot |B| \text{ and } |I| = 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow |A| \cdot |A| = 1 \quad (\because |A'| = |A|)$$

$$\Rightarrow |A|^2 = 1 \Rightarrow |A| = \pm 1.$$

An orthogonal matrix is said to be proper or improper according as its determinant is 1 or -1.

Note. (i) If A is an orthogonal matrix with $|A| = 1$, then each element of A is equal to its cofactor in $|A|$.

(ii) If A is an orthogonal matrix with $|A| = -1$ then each element of A is equal to the negative of its cofactor in $|A|$.

10.36. Theorem

The inverse and transpose of an orthogonal matrix are orthogonal.

Proof. Let A be an orthogonal matrix so that

$$AA' = I = A'A$$

Taking inverses, we have

$$(AA')^{-1} = I^{-1}$$

interchange

$$\Rightarrow (A^{-1})^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} = I$$

$$\Rightarrow (A^{-1})' \cdot A^{-1} = I$$

$\Rightarrow A^{-1}$ is orthogonal.

Also, $AA' = I \Rightarrow (A')'A' = I \Rightarrow A'$ is orthogonal.

10.37. Theorem

The product of two orthogonal matrices of the same order is orthogonal. (K.U. 1991)

Proof. Let A and B be two orthogonal matrices of the same order so that

$$A'A = AA' = I \text{ and } B'B = BB' = I$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } (AB)'(AB) &= (B'A')(AB) = B'(A'A)B \\ &= B'IB = B'B = I \end{aligned}$$

Hence AB is orthogonal.

Example 1. If A is a real skew-symmetric matrix such that $A^2 + I = O$, then A is orthogonal and is of even order.

Sol. Since A is real skew-symmetric matrix, we have

$$A' = -A$$

$$\Rightarrow AA' = -AA$$

$$\Rightarrow AA' = -A^2$$

$$\Rightarrow AA' = I \quad (\because A^2 + I = O \Rightarrow -A^2 = I)$$

$\Rightarrow A$ is orthogonal.

$$\text{Also, } |AA'| = |A|^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |A| \neq 0.$$

Since A is skew-symmetric and $|A| \neq 0$.

$\therefore A$ is of even order.

[\because By Ex. 3. Page 284; Determinant of a skew-symmetric matrix of odd order is always zero].

Example 2. If A and B are two non-singular matrices of the same order such that $AA' = BB'$, show that there exists an orthogonal matrix P such that $A = BP$.

Sol. Since $AA' = BB'$,

A and B must be of the same order.

Let $A = BP$

$\Rightarrow P = B^{-1}A$ ($\because B$ is non-singular, $\therefore B^{-1}$ exists)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } PP' &= (B^{-1}A)(B^{-1}A)' \\ &= (B^{-1}A)(A'(B^{-1})') \\ &= B^{-1}(AA')(B^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}(BB')(B^{-1})^{-1} \quad (\because A'A = BB') \\ &= (B^{-1}B)(B'(B^{-1})^{-1}) = I \cdot I = I \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow P$ is orthogonal.

Hence, there exists an orthogonal matrix

$P (= B^{-1}A)$ such that $A = BP$.

10.38. Unitary Matrix

A square matrix A is said to be unitary if $A^{\theta}A = I = AA^{\theta}$.

i.e., iff $A^{\theta} = A^{-1}$

For example, $A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & -1+i \\ 1+i & 1-i \end{bmatrix}$ is a unitary matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For, } A^{\theta}A &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & -1-i \\ -1-i & 1+i \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & -1+i \\ 1+i & 1-i \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = I. \end{aligned}$$

Note. If each element of A is real, then $\bar{A} = A$

$$\therefore A^{\theta} = A'$$

$$\therefore A^{\theta}A = I \Rightarrow A'A = I$$

\therefore Unitary matrix over R is an orthogonal matrix.

10.39. Theorem

(i) The transpose of a unitary matrix is unitary.

(ii) Conjugate of a unitary matrix is unitary.

(iii) Conjugate transpose of a unitary matrix is unitary.

(iv) Inverse of a unitary matrix is unitary. (K.U. 1989 S, 90 S)

(v) Product of two unitary matrices is unitary.

(vi) The determinant of a unitary matrix has absolute value 1.

(K.U. 1989 S, 90 S)

Proof. (i) Let A be a unitary matrix.

$$\therefore A^{\theta}A = I$$

$$\Rightarrow (A^{\theta}A)' = I'$$

$$\Rightarrow A'(A^{\theta})' = I$$

$$\Rightarrow A'(A')^{\theta} = I \Rightarrow A'(A')^{\theta} = I$$

$\Rightarrow A'$ is unitary.

(ii) Proof is simple.

(iii) Proof is simple.

(iv) If A is a unitary matrix, then

$$A^{\theta}A = I$$

$$\Rightarrow (A^{\theta}A)^{-1} = I^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{-1}(A^{\theta})^{-1} = I$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{-1}(A^{-1})^{\theta} = I$$

$\Rightarrow A^{-1}$ is unitary.

(v) Let A, B be two unitary matrices.

$$\therefore A^{\theta}A = I = AA^{\theta}$$