



3.6. Matrices with special forms

Diagonal matrix, triangular matrix, symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices, AA^T , Fixed points, inverting $I-A$

Diagonal matrices

- A square matrix where non-diagonal entries are 0 is a diagonal matrix.
- d_1, d_2, \dots are real numbers (could be zero.) O, I diagonal matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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- If every diagonal entry is not zero, then the matrix is invertible.
 - The inverse is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries $1/d_1, 1/d_2, \dots, 1/d_n$.
 - D^k for positive integer k is diagonal with entries d_1^k, \dots, d_n^k .
 - See Example 1.
 - Left multiplication of the matrix by a diagonal matrix. Right multiplication of the matrix by a diagonal matrix.

Triangular matrices

- Given a square matrix.
- Lower triangular matrices: entries above the diagonal $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i < j$.
- Upper triangular matrices: entries below the diagonal $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$.
- A lower triangular matrix or an upper triangular matrix are triangular.
- Row echelon forms are upper triangular.

Theorem 3.6.1

- (a) *The transpose of a lower triangular matrix is upper triangular, and the transpose of an upper triangular matrix is lower triangular.*
- (b) *A product of lower triangular matrices is lower triangular, and a product of upper triangular matrices is upper triangular.*
- (c) *A triangular matrix is invertible if and only if its diagonal entries are all nonzero.*
- (d) *The inverse of an invertible lower triangular matrix is lower triangular, and the inverse of an invertible upper triangular matrix is upper triangular.*

- **Proof: (b) A,B both upper triangular.**

- $(AB)_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{ii} & a_{i(i+1)} & \cdots & a_{in} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{1j} \\ b_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ b_{jj} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (c),(d) proved later

- **See Example 4**

Symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices

- A square matrix A is symmetric if $A^T = A$ or $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$.
- A is skew-symmetric if $A^T = -A$ or $A_{ij} = -A_{ji}$.

Theorem 3.6.2 *If A and B are symmetric matrices with the same size, and if k is any scalar, then:*

- A^T is symmetric.
- $A + B$ and $A - B$ are symmetric.
- kA is symmetric.

Theorem 3.6.3 *The product of two symmetric matrices is symmetric if and only if the matrices commute.*

$(AB)^T = B^T A^T = BA$. This equals AB iff $AB = BA$ iff A and B commute.

- A, B skew-symmetric $(AB)^T = B^T A^T = (-B)(-A) = BA = AB$ iff A and B commute.

(AB is symmetric in fact.)

- The right conditions is $BA = -AB$ (anticommute)

Invertible symmetric matrix.

- A symmetric matrix may not be invertible.
- Example: 2x2 matrix with all entries 1 is symmetric but not invertible.

Theorem 3.6.4 *If A is an invertible symmetric matrix, then A^{-1} is symmetric.*

- Proof: $(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1} = A^{-1}$ as A is symmetric. Thus A^{-1} is symmetric also.

AA^T , $A^T A$ (A need not be square.)

- AA^T is symmetric
($(AA^T)^T = (A^T)^T A^T = AA^T$.)
- Similarly $A^T A$ is symmetric.
- If row vectors of A are r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n , then the column vectors of A^T are $r_1^T, r_2^T, \dots, r_n^T$.

$$AA^T = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ \vdots \\ r_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1^T & r_2^T & \cdots & r_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 r_1^T & r_1 r_2^T & \cdots & r_1 r_n^T \\ r_2 r_1^T & r_2 r_2^T & \cdots & r_2 r_n^T \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ r_n r_1^T & r_n r_2^T & \cdots & r_n r_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$


$$AA^T = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \cdot r_1 & r_1 \cdot r_2 & \cdots & r_1 \cdot r_n \\ r_2 \cdot r_1 & r_2 \cdot r_2 & \cdots & r_2 \cdot r_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ r_n \cdot r_1 & r_n \cdot r_2 & \cdots & r_n \cdot r_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 3.6.5 *If A is a square matrix, then the matrices A , AA^T , and $A^T A$ are either all invertible or all singular.*

If A is invertible, then so is A^T and hence AA^T and $A^T A$ are invertible.

If $A^T A$ or AA^T are invertible, then use 3.3.8 (b) to prove this.

I-A.

- A fixed point x of A : $Ax=x$.
- We find x by solving $(I-A)x=0$.
- Fixed points can be useful.
- Example 6.
- Finding the inverse of $I-A$ are often useful in applications. Suppose $A^k=0$ for some positive k .

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- Recall the polynomial algebra:
 - $(1-x)(1+x+\dots+x^{k-1})=1-x^k$.
 - Plug A in to obtain $(I-A)(I+A+\dots+A^{k-1})=I-A^k=I$.
 - Thus $(I-A)^{-1}=I+A+\dots+A^{k-1}$.
 - Examples: Strictly upper triangular or strictly lower triangular matrices...
 - Those that are of form BAB^{-1} for A strictly triangular.

Using power series to obtain approximate inverse to $I-A$.

- For real x with $|x| < 1$, we have a formula $(1-x)^{-1} = 1+x+x^2+\dots+x^n+\dots$
- This converges absolutely.
- We plug in A to obtain $(I-A)^{-1} = I+A+A^2+\dots+A^n+\dots$
- Again this will converge under the condition that sum of absolute values of each column (or each row) is less than 1.
- Basic reason $A^n \rightarrow O$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- (see **Leontief Input-Output Economic Model**)

Ex Set 3.6.

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- 7-10 Triangular matrices
- 11-24 Symmetric matrices, inverse...
- 25,26 Inverse of $I-A$