

### Lecture 4: Matrices and vectors

A matrix is a rectangular table with entries arranged in rows and columns. The entries can be numbers, functions, operators, matrices, symbols, etc. For example, the following matrix is a  $2 \times 3$  matrix (2 rows and 3 columns) with real entries

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \pi & 2 \\ -\pi & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Similarly,

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

is a matrix of trigonometric functions known as *rotation matrix*<sup>1</sup>. In general, an  $m \times n$  matrix with entries in some set  $V$  has the form

$$A = \begin{matrix} & & \begin{matrix} j\text{-th column} \\ \downarrow \end{matrix} & & \\ \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1j} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \cdots & a_{ij} & \cdots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mj} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} & \leftarrow & i\text{-th row} & & \end{matrix} \quad (3)$$

Denote the set of  $m \times n$  matrices with entries in  $V$  as  $M_{m \times n}(V)$ . For example, we have:

- $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ : set of  $m \times n$  matrices with real entries
- $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{C})$ : set of  $m \times n$  matrices with complex entries
- $M_{m \times n}(C_0([0, 2\pi]))$ : set of  $m \times n$  matrices with entries in the space continuous functions defined on the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ . An element of this set for  $n = m = 2$  is the matrix defined in (2), i.e.,  $R(\theta) \in M_{2 \times 2}(C_0([0, 2\pi]))$ . Indeed, the entries of  $R(\theta)$  are continuous functions in  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

*Example (plotting functions and surfaces)*: Let us provide a simple example of how vectors and matrices can be used to plot one-dimensional and two-dimensional functions. To this end, consider

$$y = \sin(x) + 2 \quad x \in [0, 2\pi]. \quad (4)$$

We are interested in plotting this function “point-by-point”, i.e., map a set of points  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  to  $y_i = \sin(x_i) + 2$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) one by one. In particular, we choose the set of evenly-spaced points

$$x_{i+1} = \frac{2\pi}{n-1}i \quad i = 0, \dots, n-1 \quad (5)$$

<sup>1</sup>The rotation matrix (2) defines rigid rotations of the Cartesian plane by an angle  $\theta$ .



**Addition between matrices.** It makes sense to define addition between matrices with the same number of rows and the same number of columns. To this end, let  $A$  and  $B$  are two  $n \times m$  matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

We define

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

In this way  $A + B$  is still an  $m \times n$  matrix, i.e., the set of  $n \times m$  matrices is closed under the addition operation defined in (9).

*Example:* Consider the following matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad A + B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (10)$$

We also define the product between a matrix and number  $c$  (real or complex) as

$$cA = \begin{bmatrix} ca_{11} & \cdots & ca_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ ca_{m1} & \cdots & ca_{mn} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (11)$$

Clearly  $cA$  is a  $m \times n$  matrix.

*Examples:*

$$\begin{aligned} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad 3A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 9 \\ 12 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}. \\ B = \begin{bmatrix} i & 0 & 3+2i \\ 1+i & i & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 6i \end{bmatrix} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad iB = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -2+3i \\ -1+i & -1 & 2i \\ i & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

It is clear that the neutral element for the addition operation (9) is the *zero matrix*

$$0_{n \times m} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

In fact, for any  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  we have  $A + 0_{m \times n} = A$ . The *opposite* of the matrix  $A$  is the matrix<sup>2</sup>

$$-A = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{11} & \cdots & -a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ -a_{m1} & \cdots & -a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (14)$$

<sup>2</sup>The opposite of a matrix  $A$  is, by definition, the element  $B$  such that  $A + B = 0_{m \times n}$ .

**Vector space of matrices.** The addition and multiplication by a number operations defined in (9) and (11) satisfy the following properties

1.  $A + B = B + A$  (matrix addition is commutative)
2.  $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$  (matrix addition is associative)
3.  $A + 0_{m \times n} = 0_{m \times n} + A = A$  (additive neutral, i.e., the zero matrix)
4.  $A - A = 0_{m \times n}$  (opposite matrix  $-A$ )
5.  $c(A + B) = cA + cB$   $c \in \mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ )
6.  $(a + b)A = aA + bA$   $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ )
7.  $(ab)A = a(bA)$   $c \in \mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ )

In technical terms, we say that the space of  $n \times m$  matrices over the field of complex numbers forms a *vector space*. More generally, any set in which we define an addition operation “+” and a multiplication by  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  satisfying properties 1-7 listed above forms a *vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$* . The set of matrices with positive real entries is *not* a vector space since the opposite of a matrix with positive entries is not a matrix with positive entries.

The elements of a vector space are called *vectors*. Hence, a matrix is a vector in the vector space of matrices. A function  $f(x) = \sin(x)^2$  is a vector in the vector space continuous functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Matrix multiplication.** Let us consider two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  and suppose that the number of columns of  $A$  (say  $p$ ) coincides with the number of rows of  $B$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mp} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{p1} & \cdots & b_{pn} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

The (standard) *matrix product* between  $A$  and  $B$  is defined as

$$(AB)_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + \cdots + a_{ip}b_{pj}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, \dots, n. \quad (16)$$

Here,  $(AB)_{ij}$  denotes the  $(ij)$ -th entry of the matrix  $m \times n$  matrix  $AB$ . Note that if the matrix  $A$  has size  $m \times p$  and the matrix  $B$  has size  $p \times n$  then the matrix  $AB$  defined in (16) has size  $m \times n$ .

The matrix product (16) corresponds to the so-called *row-column rule* in which the entries of the  $i$ -th row of the matrix  $A$  are multiplied by the entries  $j$ -th column of  $B$  and the results of all these multiplications are summed up to obtain the  $ij$ -entry of  $AB$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \dots \square \end{bmatrix}}_{AB} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} [\dots \dots \dots \dots] \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}}_B.$$

*Example:* Consider the two matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -2 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (17)$$

The matrix product  $AB$  is well-defined and it is computed as follows:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (1+6+2) & (-1-6-6) \\ (1+10-1) & (-1-10+3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -13 \\ 10 & -8 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (18)$$

Similarly, the matrix product  $BA$  in this case is well-defined<sup>3</sup> and it corresponds to the  $3 \times 3$  matrix

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & -4 & 6 \\ -2 & -12 & 5 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (19)$$

*Remark:* For square matrices  $A$  and  $B$  (i.e., matrices with size  $m = p = n$ ) both products  $AB$  and  $BA$  are well-defined and they yield  $n \times n$  matrices. However, the matrix product is (in general) not commutative, i.e.,  $AB \neq BA$ . For example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (20)$$

do not commute. In fact, we have

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (21)$$

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 7 & -3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix  $C = AB - BA$  is called *matrix commutator* of  $A$  and  $B$  and it is often denoted by  $C = [A, B]$ . If  $AB = BA$  then we say that  $A$  and  $B$  commute. If  $A$  and  $B$  commute then the commutator  $[A, B]$  is necessarily the zero matrix.

*Remark:* A very important example of matrix product is the so-called *matrix-vector* product, in which a  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  is multiplied by a column vector<sup>4</sup> with  $n$  entries

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (22)$$

Clearly,  $Ax$  is a column vector with entries

$$(Ax)_i = a_{i1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{in}x_n \quad i = 1, \dots, m. \quad (23)$$

<sup>3</sup>More generally, if  $A \in M_{n \times m}$  and  $B \in M_{m \times n}$  then  $AB \in M_{n \times n}$  and  $BA \in M_{m \times m}$ .

<sup>4</sup>A column vector with  $n$  entries is a  $n \times 1$  matrix.

*Remark:* The neutral element for the multiplication operation (16) is called *identity matrix*

$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \quad (24)$$

The identity matrix is a square matrix with ones along the main diagonal and zeros everywhere else. If  $A$  is a  $m \times n$  matrix then

$$I_m A = A I_n = A \quad (25)$$

**Theorem 1** (Properties of the matrix product). Let  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  three matrices for which the following products and sums are well-defined. Then:

1.  $A(BC) = (AB)C$  (matrix multiplication is associative),
2.  $A(B + C) = AB + AC$  (left distributive property),
3.  $(A + B)C = AC + BC$  (right distributive property),
4.  $c(AB) = A(cB)$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ .

*Proof.* Properties 1 to 4 can be proved simply by using the definition (9), (11) and (16). Let us prove property 2. To this end, let  $B, C \in M_{n \times m}$  and  $A \in M_{p \times n}$  so that the matrix multiplication in property 2 is well-defined. The  $ij$  entry of the matrix  $A(B + C)$  can be written as

$$(A(B + C))_{ij} = \sum_{p=1}^n a_{ip}(b_{ij} + c_{pj}) = \sum_{p=1}^n a_{ip}b_{ij} + \sum_{p=1}^n a_{ip}c_{pj} = (AB)_{ij} + (AC)_{ij}. \quad (26)$$

□

*Remark:* Consider an arbitrary square matrix  $A$  and a positive integer  $p$ . The  $p$ -th power of  $A$  is the matrix

$$A^p = \underbrace{AA \cdots A}_{p \text{ times}} \quad (\text{matrix power}). \quad (27)$$

For example, the square of the matrix  $A$  defined in equation (20) is

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (28)$$

*Remark:* It is possible to define other types of matrix products, e.g., the Kronecker product “ $\otimes$ ” or the Hadamard product “ $\circ$ ”. These types of products are different from the matrix product (16), and they satisfy different properties. For example, the Hadamard product between the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

is defined as

$$A \circ B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n}b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1}b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn}b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Hadamard product}). \quad (29)$$

and it is clearly commutative<sup>5</sup>, i.e.,  $A \circ B = B \circ A$ . On the other hand, given two matrices  $A \in M_{n \times m}$  and  $B \in M_{p \times q}$  their Kronecker product is defined as

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & \cdots & a_{1n}B \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1}B & \cdots & a_{mn}B \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Kronecker product}). \quad (30)$$

Note that that  $A \otimes B$  is a block matrix of size  $np \times mq$ . In fact, each entry of  $A \otimes B$  is a matrix of size  $p \times q$ .

**Transpose of a matrix.** The transpose of the  $m \times n$  matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (31)$$

is the matrix obtained by switching the row and column indices of  $A$ , i.e.,

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (32)$$

For example,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 \\ 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (33)$$

**Theorem 2** (Properties of transpose matrix). Let  $A$  and  $B$  two matrices for which the following operations are well-defined. Then:

1.  $(A^T)^T = A$
2.  $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
3.  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
4.  $(cA)^T = cA^T \quad c \in \mathbb{C}$

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<sup>5</sup>Recall that the standard matrix product between two square matrices is (in general) not commutative, i.e.,  $AB \neq BA$ .

*Proof.* Let us prove property 3. To this end, let  $A \in M_{n \times m}$  and  $B \in M_{m \times p}$ . The  $ij$  entry of the matrix  $AB$  is (see equation (16))

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m a_{ik} b_{kj} \quad (34)$$

To obtain the  $ij$  entry of  $(AB)^T$  we simply need to switch  $i$  and  $j$ . This yields,

$$((AB)^T)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m a_{jk} b_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^m (B^T)_{ik} (A^T)_{kj} = (B^T A^T)_{ij} \quad (35)$$

All other properties can be proved in a similar way. □

*Remark:* Let  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$  and  $D$  four matrices such that the product  $ABCD$  is well-defined. Then

$$(ABCD)^T = D^T C^T B^T A^T \quad (36)$$

In fact, by applying property 3 in Theorem 2 recursively we have

$$(ABCD)^T = (CD)^T (AB)^T = D^T C^T B^T A^T \quad (37)$$

*Remark (Conjugate transpose):* For matrices with complex entries we can also define the conjugate transpose as

$$A^H = (A^T)^* \quad (38)$$

The conjugate transpose of a matrix  $A$  has entries

$$a_{ij}^H = a_{ji}^*. \quad (39)$$

**Symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices.** Let  $A \in M_{n \times n}$  be a square matrix<sup>6</sup>.

If  $A = A^T$  then we say that  $A$  is *symmetric*.

If  $A = -A^T$  then we say that  $A$  is *skew-symmetric* (or *anti-symmetric*).

Examples of symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices are

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & -3 & 5 \\ 1 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{symmetric}), \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 0 & -4 \\ -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{skew-symmetric}). \quad (40)$$

By definition, the entries of a symmetric matrix  $A$  satisfy  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ . Similarly, the entries of a skew-symmetric matrix satisfy  $a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$ . Note that this implies that the diagonal entries of a skew symmetric matrix are necessarily zero

$$a_{ii} = -a_{ii} \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{ii} = 0. \quad (41)$$

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<sup>6</sup>The definition of symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices makes sense only for square matrices. In fact, the statements  $A = A^T$  and  $A = -A^T$  are legitimate only for square matrix. Otherwise we are saying that, e.g., a  $3 \times 2$  matrix equals a  $2 \times 3$  matrix.



Any square matrix  $A \in M_{n \times n}$  can be decomposed into a sum of a symmetric matrix and a skew-symmetric matrix as follows

$$A = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)}_{\text{symmetric}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(A - A^T)}_{\text{skew-symmetric}}. \quad (42)$$

The following result holds for arbitrary rectangular matrices.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $A \in M_{n \times m}$  be an arbitrary  $n \times m$  matrix. Then  $AA^T$  is a  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix and  $A^T A$  is a  $m \times m$  symmetric matrix.

The proof is left as exercise.

*Remark:* If  $A$  is a  $n \times n$  square matrix then  $A^T A$  and  $AA^T$  are both  $n \times n$  symmetric matrices. In general,  $A^T A \neq AA^T$ . However, if  $A$  is symmetric then  $AA^T = A^T A$  (show it!).

**Matrix inverse.** Let  $A \in M_{n \times n}$  be a square matrix. We say that  $A$  is *invertible* if there exists a  $n \times n$  matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that

$$AA^{-1} = I_n \quad A^{-1}A = I_n. \quad (43)$$

where  $I_n$  is the identity matrix (24).

**Theorem 4** (Uniqueness of the inverse matrix). The matrix  $A^{-1}$  satisfying (43) is unique.

*Proof.* Suppose that there are two matrices  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  such that

$$AB_1 = I_n, \quad B_1A = I_n \quad \text{and} \quad AB_2 = I_n, \quad B_2A = I_n. \quad (44)$$

Then

$$B_2 = B_2I_n = B_2(AB_1) = (B_2A)B_1 = B_1, \quad (45)$$

i.e.,  $B_2 = B_1$ . This means that for any matrix  $A$ , the inverse is unique (if it exists). □

Hence, if  $A$  is invertible<sup>7</sup> then there exists a unique matrix  $A^{-1}$  that commutes with  $A$  such that the matrix product between  $A$  and  $A^{-1}$  yields the identity matrix (24).

**Theorem 5** (Properties of the inverse matrix). Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two  $n \times n$  invertible matrices. Then

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

*Proof.* Let us prove properties 1, 2 and 3.

1. Let  $C$  be the inverse of  $A^{-1}$ . Then

$$A^{-1}C = I_n \quad CA^{-1} = I_n. \quad (46)$$

Theorem 3 says that there exists only one matrix that satisfies (46), and that matrix is  $A$ . Thus, the inverse of  $A^{-1}$  is  $A$ .

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<sup>7</sup>We will derive conditions for the invertibility of a matrix  $A$  in subsequent lecture notes. As we will see, not every square matrix admits an inverse.

2. The following identities

$$I_n = AB(B^{-1}A^{-1}), \quad I_n = (B^{-1}A^{-1})AB \quad (47)$$

imply that the inverse of the matrix  $AB$  is  $B^{-1}A^{-1}$ .

3. Consider

$$I_n = (AA^{-1})^T = (A^{-1})^T A^T \quad I_n = (A^{-1}A)^T = A^T (A^{-1})^T. \quad (48)$$

Therefore the inverse of  $A^T$ , i.e.  $(A^T)^{-1}$ , is equal to  $(A^{-1})^T$ .

□

**Orthogonal and unitary matrices.** Let  $A \in M_{n \times n}$  be a square matrix with real entries. We say that  $A$  is an *orthogonal matrix*<sup>8</sup> if

$$AA^T = A^T A = I_n. \quad (49)$$

Clearly, if  $A$  is an orthogonal matrix then (by using the definition of the inverse and its uniqueness)

$$A^T = A^{-1}. \quad (50)$$

Moreover, if  $A$  is an orthogonal matrix then the commutator

$$[A, A^T] = AA^T - A^T A = I_n - I_n = 0_{M_{n \times n}}. \quad (51)$$

If the matrix  $A$  has complex entries then we say that  $A$  is a *unitary matrix* if

$$AA^H = A^H A = I_n \quad (52)$$

where  $A^H$  is the conjugate transpose of  $A$ .

**Linear systems of equations.** Consider the linear system of equations ( $m$  equations in  $n$  unknowns)

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{cases} \quad (53)$$

Upon definition of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}, \quad (54)$$

we can write (53) in a matrix-vector product form as

$$Ax = b. \quad (55)$$

In the particular case where  $m = n$  (number equations equals the number of unknowns) we have that if the matrix  $A$  is invertible then the system (53) admit the unique solution<sup>9</sup>

$$x = A^{-1}b \quad (56)$$

As we shall see in the next lecture, there is no need to compute the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$  to solve the linear system (53).

<sup>8</sup>As we will see, the reason why we call the matrix  $A$  satisfying (49) an orthogonal matrix follows from the fact that the rows (or the columns) of such matrix are orthonormal relative to standard “dot product” in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

<sup>9</sup>By applying  $A^{-1}$  to both sides of (55) we obtain  $\underbrace{A^{-1}A}_I x = A^{-1}b$ , i.e.,  $x = A^{-1}b$ .