

## 1. Introduction

Matrices are the basic elements of the MATLAB environment. A matrix is a two-dimensional array consisting of  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns. Special cases are *column vectors* ( $n = 1$ ) and *row vectors* ( $m = 1$ ).

In this chapter we will illustrate how to apply different operations on matrices. MATLAB supports two types of operations, known as matrix operations and array operations. Matrix operations will be discussed first.

## 2. Matrix generation

Matrices are fundamental to MATLAB. Matrices can be generated in several ways.

### 2.1 Entering a vector

A vector is a special case of a matrix. An array of dimension  $1 \times n$  is called a *row vector*, whereas an array of dimension  $m \times 1$  is called a *column vector*. The elements of vectors in MATLAB are enclosed by square brackets and are separated by spaces or by commas. For example, to enter a row vector,  $v$ , type

```
>> v = [1 4 7 10 13]
v =
1 4 7 10 13
```

Column vectors are created in a similar way, however, semicolon (;) must separate the components of a column vector,

```
>> w = [1;4;7;10;13]
w =
1
4
7
10
13
```

On the other hand, a row vector is converted to a column vector using the transpose operator denoted by an apostrophe (').

```
>> w = v'
w =
1
4
7
10
13
```

Thus,  $v(1)$  is the first element of vector  $v$ ,  $v(2)$  its second element, and so forth.

Furthermore, to access blocks of elements, we use MATLAB's colon notation (:). For example, to access the *first* three elements of  $v$ , we write,

```
>> v(1:3)
```

```
ans =
```

```
1 4 7
```

Or, all elements from the third through the last elements,

```
>> v(3:end)
```

```
ans =
```

```
7 10 13
```

Where *end* signifies the last element in the vector. If  $v$  is a vector, writing

```
>> v(:)
```

Produces a column vector, whereas writing

```
>> v(1:end)
```

Produces a row vector.

## 2.2 Entering a matrix

A matrix is an array of numbers. To type a matrix into MATLAB we must

- begin with a square bracket,  $[$
- separate elements in a row with spaces or commas (,)
- a semicolon (;) to separate rows
- end the matrix with another square bracket,  $]$

Here is a typical example. To enter a matrix  $A$ , such as,

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

We type,

```
>> A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9]
```

MATLAB then displays the  $3 \times 3$  matrix as follows,

```
A =
```

```
1 2 3
```

```
4 5 6
```

```
7 8 9
```

Once we have entered the matrix, it is automatically stored and remembered in the Workspace. We can refer to it simply as matrix  $A$ . We can then view a particular element in a matrix by specifying its location. We write,

```
>> A(2,1)
```

```
ans =
```

```
4
```

$A(2,1)$  is an element located in the second row and first column. Its *value* is 4.

### 2.3 Matrix indexing

The element of *row*  $i$  and *column*  $j$  of the matrix  $A$  is denoted by  $A(i,j)$ . Thus,  $A(i,j)$  in MATLAB refers to the element  $A_{ij}$  of matrix  $A$ . The first index is the *row number* and the second index is the *column number*. For example,  $A(1,3)$  is an element of *first row* and *third column*. Here,  $A(1,3)=3$ .

*Correcting* any entry is easy through **indexing**. Here we substitute  $A(3,3)=9$  by  $A(3,3)=0$ . The result is

```
>> A(3,3) = 0
```

```
A =
```

```
1 2 3
```

```
4 5 6
```

```
7 8 0
```

Single elements of a matrix are accessed as  $A(i,j)$ , where  $i \geq 1$  and  $j \geq 1$ . *Zero or negative* subscripts are not supported in MATLAB.

### 2.4 Colon operator

The *colon* operator ( $:$ ), will prove very useful and understanding how it works is the key to efficient and convenient usage of MATLAB. It occurs in several different forms.

Often we must deal with matrices or vectors that are too large to enter one element at a time. For example, suppose we want to enter a vector  $x$  consisting of points  $(0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, \dots, 5)$ . We can use the command

```
>> x = 0:0.1:5;
```

The row vector has *51 elements*.

### 2.5 Linear spacing

On the other hand, there is a command to generate linearly spaced vectors: *linspace*. It is similar to the colon operator ( $:$ ), but gives direct control over the number of points.

For example,

$y = \text{linspace}(a,b)$ ; Generates a *row vector*  $y$  of 100 points *linearly spaced* between and including  $a$  and  $b$ .

$y = \text{linspace}(a,b,n)$

generates a *row vector*  $y$  of  $n$  points *linearly spaced* between and including  $a$  and  $b$ . This is useful when we want to *divide* an interval into a number of subintervals of the *same length*.

For example,

```
>> theta = linspace(0, 2*pi, 101)
```

divides the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$  into 100 equal subintervals, then creating a vector of 101 elements.

## 2.6 Colon operator in a matrix

The colon operator can also be used to pick out a certain row or column. For example, the statement  $A(m:n,k:l)$  specifies *rows*  $m$  to  $n$  and *column*  $k$  to  $l$ . Subscript expressions refer to portions of a matrix. For example,

```
>> A(2,:)
```

```
ans =
```

```
4 5 6
```

is the *second row* elements of  $A$ .

The colon operator can also be used to extract a sub-matrix from a matrix  $A$ .

```
>> A(:,2:3)
```

```
ans =
```

```
2 3
```

```
5 6
```

```
8 0
```

$A(:,2:3)$  is a sub-matrix with the last two columns of  $A$ .

A row or a column of a matrix can be deleted by setting it to a *null* vector,  $[ ]$ .

```
>> A(:,2)=[ ]
```

```
ans =
```

```
1 3
```

```
4 6
```

```
7 0
```

## 2.7 Creating a sub-matrix

To extract a *submatrix*  $B$  consisting of *rows* 2 and 3 and *columns* 1 and 2 of the matrix  $A$ , do the following

```
>> B = A([2 3],[1 2])
```

```
B =
```

```
4 5
7 8
```

To interchange *rows 1 and 2* of *A*, use the vector of *row indices* together with the *colon operator*.

```
>> C = A([2 1 3],:)
C =
4 5 6
1 2 3
7 8 0
```

It is important to note that the colon operator (`:`) stands for all columns or all rows. To create a vector version of matrix *A*, do the following

```
>> A(:)
ans =
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
0
```

The *submatrix* comprising the intersection of rows *p* to *q* and columns *r* to *s* is denoted by

$A(p:q,r:s)$ .

As a special case, a colon (`:`) as the row or column specifier covers all entries in that row or column; thus

- $A(:,j)$  is the  $j^{\text{th}}$  column of *A*
- $A(i,:)$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row
- $A(\text{end},:)$  picks out the *last row* of *A*.

The keyword '*end*', used in  $A(\text{end},:)$ , denotes the last index in the specified dimension. Here are some examples.

```
>> A
A =
1 2 3
4 5 6
7 8 9

>> A(2:3,2:3)
```

```

ans =
5 6
8 9
>> A(end:-1:1,end)
ans =
9
6
3
24
>> A([1 3],[2 3])
ans =
2 3
8 9

```

### 2.8 Deleting row or column

To delete a row or column of a matrix, use the empty vector operator, `[]`.

```

>> A(3,:) = []
A =
1 2 3
4 5 6

```

*Third row of matrix A is now deleted. To restore the third row, we use a technique for creating a matrix*

```

>> A = [A(1,:);A(2,:);[7 8 0]]
A =
1 2 3
4 5 6
7 8 0

```

Matrix A is now *restored* to its original form.

### 2.9 Dimension

To determine the dimensions of a matrix or vector, we use the command `size`. For example,

```

>> size(A)
ans =
3 3

```

means *3 rows and 3 columns*. Or more explicitly with,

```

>> [m,n]=size(A)

```

### 2.10 Continuation

If it is not possible to type the entire input on the same line, use consecutive periods, called an ellipsis `...`, to signal continuation, then continue the input on the next line.

```
B = [4/5 7.23*tan(x) sqrt(6); ...
1/x^2 0 3/(x*log(x)); ...
x-7 sqrt(3) x*sin(x)];
```

Note that blank spaces around +, -, = signs are optional, but they improve readability.

### 2.11 Transposing a matrix

The transpose operation is denoted by an apostrophe or a single quote (`'`). It flips a matrix about its main diagonal and it turns a row vector into a column vector. Thus,

```
>> A'
ans =
1 4 7
2 5 8
3 6 0
```

By using linear algebra notation, the transpose of  $m \times n$  real matrix  $A$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix that results from interchanging the rows and columns of  $A$ . The transpose matrix is denoted  $A^t$ .

### 2.12 Concatenating matrices

Matrices can be made up of sub-matrices. Here is an example. First, let's recall our previous matrix

```
A =
1 2 3
4 5 6
7 8 9
```

The new matrix  $B$  will be,

```
>> B = [A 10*A; -A [1 0 0; 0 1 0; 0 0 1]]
B =
1 2 3 10 20 30
4 5 6 40 50 60
7 8 9 70 80 90
-1 -2 -3 1 0 0
-4 -5 -6 0 1 0
-7 -8 -9 0 0 1
```

### 2.13 Matrix generators

MATLAB provides functions that generates elementary matrices. The matrix of *zeros*, the matrix of *ones*, and the *identity* matrix are returned by the functions `zeros`, `ones`, and `eye`, respectively.

<code>eye(m,n)</code>	Returns an m-by-n matrix with 1 on the main diagonal
<code>eye(n)</code>	Returns an n-by-n square identity matrix
<code>zeros(m,n)</code>	Returns an m-by-n matrix of zeros
<code>ones(m,n)</code>	Returns an m-by-n matrix of ones
<code>diag(A)</code>	Extracts the diagonal of matrix A
<code>rand(m,n)</code>	Returns an m-by-n matrix of random numbers

**Table 1: Elementary matrices**

The commands `help elmat` or `doc elmat` give a complete list of elementary matrices and matrix manipulations,

**Examples:**

1. `>> b=ones(3,1)`

`b =`

`1`

`1`

`1`

Equivalently, we can define b as `>> b=[1;1;1]`

2. `>> eye(3)`

`ans =`

`1 0 0`

`0 1 0`

`0 0 1`

3. `>> c=zeros(2,3)`

`c =`

`0 0 0`

`0 0 0`

In addition, it is important to remember that the three elementary operations of addition (+), subtraction (-), and multiplication (\*) apply also to matrices whenever the dimensions are compatible.

Two other important matrix generation functions are `rand` and `randn`, which generate matrices of (*pseudo-*)*random* numbers using the same syntax as `eye`.

In addition, matrices can be constructed in a block form. With C defined by `C = [1 2; 3 4]`, we may create a matrix D as follows

`>> D = [C zeros(2); ones(2) eye(2)]`

`D =`

`1 2 0 0`

`3 4 0 0`

`1 1 1 0`

`1 1 0 1`

## 2.14 Special matrices

MATLAB provides a number of special matrices. These matrices have interesting properties that make them useful for constructing examples and for testing algorithms.

hilb	Hilbert matrix
invhilb	Inverse Hilbert matrix
magic	Magic square
pascal	Pascal matrix
toeplitz	Toeplitz matrix
vander	Vandermonde matrix
wilkinson	Wilkinson's eigenvalue test matrix

**Table 2: Special matrices**

## 3. Array operations

MATLAB has two different types of arithmetic operations: matrix arithmetic operations and array arithmetic operations.

### 3.1. Matrix arithmetic operations

MATLAB allows arithmetic operations:  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ , and  $^$  to be carried out on matrices. Thus,

$A+B$  or  $B+A$  is valid if  $A$  and  $B$  are of the *same size*

$A*B$  is valid if  $A$ 's number of column equals  $B$ 's number of rows

$A^2$  is valid if  $A$  is *square* and equals  $A*A$

$\alpha*A$  or  $A*\alpha$  multiplies each element of  $A$  by  $\alpha$

### 3.2 Array arithmetic operations

On the other hand, array arithmetic operations or array operations for short, are done element-by-element. The period character,  $(.)$ , distinguishes the *array operations* from the *matrix operations*. However, since the matrix and array operations are the *same* for addition ( $+$ ) and subtraction ( $-$ ), the character pairs  $(.+)$  and  $(.-)$  are not used. The list of array operators is shown below in Table 3. If  $A$  and  $B$  are two matrices of the same size with elements  $A = [a_{ij}]$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]$ , then the command

$.*$	Element-by-element multiplication
$./$	Element-by-element division
$.^$	Element-by-element exponentiation

**Table 3: Array operators**

```
>> C = A.*B
```

produces another matrix  $C$  of the *same size* with elements  $c_{ij} = a_{ij} b_{ij}$ . For example, using the same  $3 \times 3$  matrices,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 & 30 \\ 40 & 50 & 60 \\ 70 & 80 & 90 \end{bmatrix}$$

we have,

```
>> C = A.*B
C =
10 40 90
160 250 360
490 640 810
```

To raise a scalar to a power, we use for example the command  $10^2$ . If we want the operation to be applied to each element of a matrix, we use  $.^2$ . For example, if we want to produce a new matrix whose elements are the square of the elements of the matrix  $A$ , we enter

```
>> A.^2
ans =
1 4 9
16 25 36
49 64 81
```

The relations below summarize the above operations. To simplify, let's consider two vectors  $U$  and  $V$  with elements  $U = [u_i]$  and  $V = [v_j]$ .

- $U.*V$  produces  $[u_1v_1 \ u_2v_2 \ \dots \ u_nv_n]$
- $U./V$  produces  $[u_1/v_1 \ u_2/v_2 \ \dots \ u_n/v_n]$
- $U.^V$  produces  $[u_1^{v_1} \ u_2^{v_2} \ \dots \ u_n^{v_n}]$

OPERATION	MATRIX	ARRAY
Addition	+	+
Subtraction	-	-
Multiplication	*	.*
Division	/	./
Left division	\	.\
Exponentiation	^	.^

**Table 3: Summary of matrix and array operations**

### 3.2 Solving linear equations

One of the problems encountered most frequently in scientific computation is the solution of systems of linear equations. With matrix notation, a system of simultaneous linear equations is written

$$Ax = b$$

Where there are as many equations as unknown.  $A$  is a given square matrix of order  $n$ ,  $b$  is a given column vector of  $n$  components, and  $x$  is an unknown column vector of  $n$  components.

In linear algebra we learn that the solution to  $Ax = b$  can be written as  $x = A^{-1}b$ , where  $A^{-1}$  is the *inverse* of  $A$ .

For example, consider the following system of linear equations

$$\begin{cases} x + 2y + 3z = 1 \\ 4x + 5y + 6z = 1 \\ 7x + 8y = 1 \end{cases}$$

The coefficient matrix  $A$  is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and the vector } b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

With matrix notation, a system of simultaneous linear equations is written  $Ax = b$

This equation can be solved for  $x$  using *linear algebra*. The result is  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

1. The first way is to use the *matrix inverse*, *inv*.

```
>> A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 0];
>> b = [1; 1; 1];
>> x = inv(A)*b
x =
-1.0000
1.0000
-0.0000
```

2. The second one is to use the *backslash* ( $\backslash$ ) operator. The numerical algorithm behind this operator is computationally efficient. This is a numerically reliable way of solving system of linear equations by using a well-known process of Gaussian elimination.

```
>> A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 0];
>> b = [1; 1; 1];
>> x = A\b
x =
-1.0000
1.0000
-0.0000
```

### 3.2.1 Matrix inverse

Let's consider the same matrix A.

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

Calculating the inverse of A manually.  $A^{-1}$  gives as a final result:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} -16 & 8 & -1 \\ 14 & -7 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

In MATLAB, however, it becomes as simple as the following commands:

```
>> A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 0];
>> inv(A)
ans =
-1.7778 0.8889 -0.1111
1.5556 -0.7778 0.2222
-0.1111 0.2222 -0.1111
```

which is similar to:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} -16 & 8 & -1 \\ 14 & -7 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the determinant of A is

```
>> det(A)
ans =
27
```

### 3.2.2 Matrix functions

MATLAB provides many matrix functions for various matrix/vector manipulations.

det	Determinant
diag	Diagonal matrices and diagonals of a matrix
eig	Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
inv	Matrix inverse
norm	Matrix and vector norms
rank	Number of linearly independent rows or columns

**Table 3: Matrix functions**