▲ Figure 1.8.1

codomain is R^m for some positive integers m and n.

DEFINITION 1 If f is a function with domain R^n and codomain R^m, then we say that f is a ***transformation*** from R^n to R^m or that f ***maps*** from R^n to R^m, which we denote by writing

$$f: R^n \to R^m$$

In the special case where $m = n$, a transformation is sometimes called an ***operator*** on R^n.

Matrix Transformations

It is common in linear algebra to use the letter T to denote a transformation. In keeping with this usage, we will usually denote a transformation from R^n to R^m by writing

$$T: R^n \to R^m$$

In this section we will be concerned with the class of transformations from R^n to R^m that arise from linear systems. Specifically, suppose that we have the system of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n \\ w_2 &= a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n \\ &\;\vdots \qquad\quad \vdots \qquad\qquad\quad \vdots \\ w_m &= a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

which we can write in matrix notation as

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \tag{4}$$

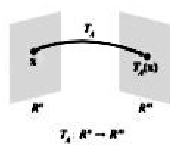
or more briefly as

$$\mathbf{w} = A\mathbf{x} \tag{5}$$

Although we could view (5) as a compact way of writing linear system (3), we will view it instead as a transformation that maps a vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n into thevector $\mathbf{w}$ in R^m by

multiplying $\mathbf{x}$ on the left by A. We call this a ***matrix transformation*** (or ***matrix operator*** in the special case where $m = n$). We denote it by

$$T_A: R^n \to R^m$$



▲ Figure 1.8.2

(see Figure 1.8.2). This notation is useful when it is important to make the domain and codomain clear. The subscript on T_A serves as a reminder that the transformation results from multiplying vectors in R^n by the matrix A. In situations where specifying the domain and codomain is not essential, we will express (4) as

$$\mathbf{w} = T_A(\mathbf{x}) \tag{6}$$

We call the transformation T_A ***multiplication by A***. On occasion we will find it convenient to express (6) in the schematic form

$$\mathbf{x} \xrightarrow{T_A} \mathbf{w} \tag{7}$$

which is read "T_A maps $\mathbf{x}$ into $\mathbf{w}$."

▶ **EXAMPLE 1 A Matrix Transformation from R^4 to R^3**

The transformation from R^4 to R^3 defined by the equations

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 2x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 - 5x_4 \\ w_2 &= 4x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 + x_4 \\ w_3 &= 5x_1 - x_2 + 4x_3 \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

can be expressed in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

from which we see that the transformation can be interpreted as multiplication by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

Although the image under the transformation T_A of any vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

in R^4 could be computed directly from the defining equations in (8), we will find it preferable to use the matrix in (9). For example, if

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

then it follows from (9) that

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = T_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

▶ **EXAMPLE 2 Zero Transformations**

If 0 is the $m \times n$ zero matrix, then

$$T_0(\mathbf{x}) = 0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

so multiplication by zero maps every vector in R^n into the zero vector in R^m. We call T_0 the ***zero transformation*** from R^n to R^m.

▶ **EXAMPLE 3 Identity Operators**

If I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, then

$$T_I(\mathbf{x}) = I\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

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▶ **EXAMPLE 3 Identity Operators**

If I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, then

$$T_I(\mathbf{x}) = I\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

so multiplication by I maps every vector in R^n to itself. We call T_I the ***identity operator*** on R^n. ◀

Properties of Matrix Transformations

The following theorem lists four basic properties of matrix transformations that follow from properties of matrix multiplication.

THEOREM 1.8.1 *For every matrix A the matrix transformation T_A* 93 / 802 *following properties for all vectors* $\mathbf{u}$ *and* $\mathbf{v}$ *and for every scalar k*

(*a*) $T_A(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$

(*b*) $T_A(k\mathbf{u}) = kT_A(\mathbf{u})$ [Homogeneity property]

(*c*) $T_A(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = T_A(\mathbf{u}) + T_A(\mathbf{v})$ [Additivity property]

(*d*) $T_A(\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}) = T_A(\mathbf{u}) - T_A(\mathbf{v})$

Proof All four parts are restatements of the following properties of matrix arithmetic given in Theorem 1.4.1:

$$A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}, \quad A(k\mathbf{u}) = k(A\mathbf{u}), \quad A(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{u} + A\mathbf{v}, \quad A(\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{u} - A\mathbf{v}$$ ◀

It follows from parts (*b*) and (*c*) of Theorem 1.8.1 that a matrix transformation maps a linear combination of vectors in R^n into the corresponding linear combination of vectors in R^m in the sense that

$$T_A(k_1\mathbf{u}_1 + k_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + k_r\mathbf{u}_r) = k_1T_A(\mathbf{u}_1) + k_2T_A(\mathbf{u}_2) + \cdots + k_rT_A(\mathbf{u}_r) \quad (10)$$

Matrix transformations are not the only kinds of transformations. For example, if

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 \\ w_2 &= x_1x_2 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

then there are no constants a, b, c, and d for which

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 + x_2^2 \\ x_1x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

so that the equations in (11) do not define a matrix transformation from R^2 to R^2.

This leads us to the following two questions.

> Question 1. **Are there algebraic properties of a transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ that can be used to determine whether T is a matrix transformation?**
>
> Question 2. **If we discover that a transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation, how can we find a matrix for it?**

The following theorem and its proof will provide the answers.

THEOREM 1.8.2 *$T: R^n \to R^m$ is a matrix transformation if and only if the following relationships hold for all vectors* $\mathbf{u}$ *and* $\mathbf{v}$ *in R^n and for every scalar k:*

(i) $T(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$ [Additivity property]

(ii) $T(k\mathbf{u}) = kT(\mathbf{u})$ [Homogeneity property]

Proof If T is a matrix transformation, then properties (i) and (ii) follow respectively from parts (*c*) and (*b*) of Theorem 1.8.1.

Conversely, assume that properties (i) and (ii) hold. We must show that there exists an $m \times n$ matrix A such that

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$$

for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n. Recall that the derivation of Formula (10) used only the additivity and homogeneity properties of T_A. Since we are assuming that T has those properties, it must be true that

$$T(k_1\mathbf{u}_1 + k_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + k_r\mathbf{u}_r) = k_1T(\mathbf{u}_1) + k_2T(\mathbf{u}_2) + \cdots + k_rT(\mathbf{u}_r) \quad (12)$$

for all scalars $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r$ and all vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_r$ in R^n. Let A be the matrix

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) \mid T(\mathbf{e}_2) \mid \cdots \mid T(\mathbf{e}_n)] \quad (13)$$

where $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ are the standard basis vectors for R^n. It follows from Theorem 1.3.1 that $A\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of the columns of A in which the successive coefficients are the entries $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ of $\mathbf{x}$. That is,

$$A\mathbf{x} = x_1T(\mathbf{e}_1) + x_2T(\mathbf{e}_2) + \cdots + x_nT(\mathbf{e}_n)$$

Using Formula (10) we can rewrite this as

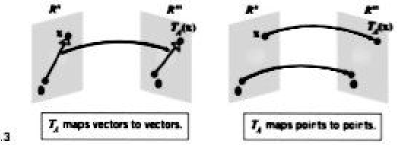
$$A\mathbf{x} = T(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{e}_n) = T(\mathbf{x})$$

which completes the proof. ◀

The additivity and homogeneity properties in Theorem 1.8.2 are called ***linearity conditions***, and a transformation that satisfies these conditions is called a ***linear transformation***. Using this terminology Theorem 1.8.2 can be restated as follows.

Theorem 1.8.3 tells us that *for transformations from R^n to R^m*, the terms "matrix transformation" and "linear trans-

THEOREM 1.8.3 *Every linear transformation from R^n to R^m is a matrix transformation,* Depending on whether n-tuples and m-tuples are regarded as vectors or points, the geometric effect of a matrix transformation $T_A: R^n \to R^m$ is to map each vector (point) in R^n into a vector (point) in R^m (Figure 1.8.3).



▶ Figure 1.8.3

The following theorem states that if two matrix transformations from R^n to R^m have the same image at each point of R^n, then the matrices themselves must be the same.

THEOREM 1.8.4 *If $T_A: R^n \to R^m$ and $T_B: R^n \to R^m$ are matrix transformations, and if $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = T_B(\mathbf{x})$ for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n, then $A = B$.*

Proof To say that $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = T_B(\mathbf{x})$ for every vector in R^n is the same as saying that

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$$A\mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{x}$$

for every vector $\mathbf{x}$ in R^n. This will be true, in particular, if $\mathbf{x}$ is any of the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ for R^n; that is,

$$A\mathbf{e}_j = B\mathbf{e}_j \quad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, n) \tag{14}$$

Since every entry of $\mathbf{e}_j$ is 0 except for the jth, which is 1, it follows from Theorem 1.3.1 that $A\mathbf{e}_j$ is the jth column of A and $B\mathbf{e}_j$ is the jth column of B. Thus, (14) implies that corresponding columns of A and B are the same, and hence that $A = B$. ◀

Theorem 1.8.4 is significant because it tells us that there is a *one-to-one correspondence* between $m \times n$ matrices and matrix transformations from R^n to R^m in the sense that every $m \times n$ matrix A produces exactly one matrix transformation (multiplication by A) and every matrix transformation from R^n to R^m arises from exactly one $m \times n$ matrix; we call that matrix the ***standard matrix*** for the transformation.

A Procedure for Finding Standard Matrices

In the course of proving Theorem 1.8.2 we showed in Formula (13) that if $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ are the standard basis vectors for R^n (in column form), then the standard matrix for a linear transformation $T: R^n \to R^m$ is given by the formula

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) \mid T(\mathbf{e}_2) \mid \cdots \mid T(\mathbf{e}_n)] \tag{15}$$

This suggests the following procedure for finding standard matrices.

> **Finding the Standard Matrix for a Matrix Transformation**
>
> ***Step 1.*** Find the images of the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ for R^n.
>
> ***Step 2.*** Construct the matrix that has the images obtained in Step 1 as its successive columns. This matrix is the standard matrix for the transformation.

▶ **EXAMPLE 4 Finding a Standard Matrix**

Find the standard matrix A for the linear transformation $T: R^2 \to R^3$ defined by the formula

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 - 3x_2 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{16}$$

Solution We leave it for you to verify that

$$T(\mathbf{e}_1) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T(\mathbf{e}_2) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, it follows from Formulas (15) and (16) that the standard matrix is

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) \mid T(\mathbf{e}_2)] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

▶ **EXAMPLE 5 Computing with Standard Matrices**

For the linear transformation in Example 4, use the standard matrix A obtained in that example to find

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

Solution The transformation is multiplication by A, so

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -11 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \blacktriangleleft$$

Although we could have obtained the result in Example 5 by substituting values for the variables in (13), the method used in Example 5 is preferable for large-scale problems in that matrix multiplication is better suited for computer computations.

For transformation problems posed in comma-delimited form, a good procedure is to rewrite the problem in column-vector form and use the methods previously illustrated.

▶ **EXAMPLE 6 Finding a Standard Matrix**

Rewrite the transformation $T(x_1, x_2) = (3x_1 + x_2, 2x_1 - 4x_2)$ in column-vector form and find its standard matrix.

Solution

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1 + x_2 \\ 2x_1 - 4x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the standard matrix is

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

Exercise Set 1.8

► In Exercises 1–2, find the domain and codomain of the transformation $T_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$. ◄

1. (a) A has size 3×2. (b) A has size 2×3.
   (c) A has size 3×3. (d) A has size 1×6.

2. (a) A has size 4×5. (b) A has size 5×4.
   (c) A has size 4×4. (d) A has size 3×1.

► In Exercises 3–4, find the domain and codomain of the transformation defined by the equations. ◄

3. (a) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 4x_1 + 5x_2 \\ w_2 &= x_1 - 8x_2 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 5x_1 - 7x_2 \\ w_2 &= 6x_1 + x_2 \\ w_3 &= 2x_1 + 3x_2 \end{aligned}$

4. (a) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= x_1 - 4x_2 + 8x_3 \\ w_2 &= -x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3 \\ w_3 &= -3x_1 + 2x_2 - 5x_3 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 2x_1 + 7x_2 - 4x_3 \\ w_2 &= 4x_1 - 3x_2 + 2x_3 \end{aligned}$

► In Exercises 5–6, find the domain and codomain of the transformation defined by the matrix product. ◄

5. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 4 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

6. (a) $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 \\ -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -6 \\ 3 & 7 & -4 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$

► In Exercises 7–8, find the domain and codomain of the transformation T defined by the formula. ◄

7. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (4x_1 + x_2, x_1 + x_2)$

8. (a) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_1, x_2)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2)$

► In Exercises 9–10, find the domain and codomain of the transformation T defined by the formula. ◄

9. $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 \\ x_1 - x_2 \\ 3x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ 10. $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1 - x_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

► In Exercises 11–12, find the standard matrix for the transformation defined by the equations. ◄

11. (a) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 2x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 \\ w_2 &= 3x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 7x_1 + 2x_2 - 8x_3 \\ w_2 &= - x_2 + 5x_3 \\ w_3 &= 4x_1 + 7x_2 - x_3 \end{aligned}$

12. (a) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= -x_1 + x_2 \\ w_2 &= 3x_1 - 2x_2 \\ w_3 &= 5x_1 - 7x_2 \end{aligned}$ (b) $\begin{aligned} w_1 &= x_1 \\ w_2 &= x_1 + x_2 \\ w_3 &= x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \\ w_4 &= x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 \end{aligned}$

13. Find the standard matrix for the transformation T defined by the formula.
   (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, -x_1, x_1 + 3x_2, x_1 - x_2)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (7x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 + x_4, x_2 + x_3, -x_1)$
   (c) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$
   (d) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_4, x_1, x_3, x_2, x_1 - x_3)$

14. Find the standard matrix for the operator T defined by the formula.
   (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2)$
   (c) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3, x_1 + 5x_2, x_3)$
   (d) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (4x_1, 7x_2, -8x_3)$

15. Find the standard matrix for the operator $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^3$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 3x_1 + 5x_2 - x_3 \\ w_2 &= 4x_1 - x_2 + x_3 \\ w_3 &= 3x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 \end{aligned}$$

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and then compute $T(-1, 2, 4)$ by directly substituting in the equations and then by matrix multiplication.

16. Find the standard matrix for the transformation $T: R^4 \rightarrow R^2$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 2x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3 - x_4 \\ w_2 &= x_1 - 5x_2 + 2x_3 - 3x_4 \end{aligned}$$

and then compute $T(1, -1, 2, 4)$ by directly substituting in the equations and then by matrix multiplication.

► In Exercises 17–18, find the standard matrix for the transformation and use it to compute $T(\mathbf{x})$. Check your result by substituting directly in the formula for T. ◄

17. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (-x_1 + x_2, x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (-1, 4)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (2x_1 - x_2 + x_3, x_2 + x_3, 0)$; $\mathbf{x} = (2, 1, -3)$

18. (a) $T(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - x_2, x_1 + x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (-2, 2)$
   (b) $T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2)$; $\mathbf{x} = (1, 0, 5)$

► In Exercises 19–20, find $T_A(\mathbf{x})$, and express your answer in matrix form. ◄

19. (a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$
   (b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

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is a set of ***branches*** through which something "flows." For example, the branches might be electrical wires through which electricity flows, pipes through which water or oil flows, traffic lanes through which vehicular traffic flows, or economic linkages through which money flows, to name a few possibilities.

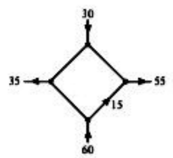
In most networks, the branches meet at points, called ***nodes*** or ***junctions***, where the flow divides. For example, in an electrical network, nodes occur where three or more wires join, in a traffic network they occur at street intersections, and in a financial network they occur at banking centers where incoming money is distributed to individuals or other institutions.

In the study of networks, there is generally some numerical measure of the rate at which the medium flows through a branch. For example, the flow rate of electricity is often measured in amperes, the flow rate of water or oil in gallons per minute, the flow rate of traffic in vehicles per hour, and the flow rate of European currency in millions of Euros per day. We will restrict our attention to networks in which there is ***flow conservation*** at each node, by which we mean that *the rate of flow into any node is equal to the rate of flow out of that node*. This ensures that the flow medium does not build up at the nodes and block the free movement of the medium through the network.

A common problem in network analysis is to use known flow rates in certain branches to find the flow rates in all of the branches. Here is an example.

▶ EXAMPLE 1 Network Analysis Using Linear Systems

Figure 1.9.1 shows a network with four nodes in which the flow rate and direction of flow in certain branches are known. Find the flow rates and directions of flow in the remaining branches.



▲ Figure 1.9.1

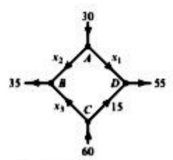
Solution As illustrated in Figure 1.9.2, we have assigned arbitrary directions to the unknown flow rates x_1, x_2, and x_3. We need not be concerned if some of the directions are incorrect, since an incorrect direction will be signaled by a negative value for the flow rate when we solve for the unknowns.

It follows from the conservation of flow at node A that

$$x_1 + x_2 = 30$$

Similarly, at the other nodes we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_2 + x_3 &= 35 \quad (\text{node } B) \\ x_3 + 15 &= 60 \quad (\text{node } C) \\ x_1 + 15 &= 55 \quad (\text{node } D) \end{aligned}$$



▲ Figure 1.9.2

These four conditions produce the linear system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= 30 \\ x_2 + x_3 &= 35 \\ x_3 &= 45 \\ x_1 &= 40 \end{aligned}$$

which we can now try to solve for the unknown flow rates. In this particular case the system is sufficiently simple that it can be solved by inspection (work from the bottom up). We leave it for you to confirm that the solution is

$$x_1 = 40, \quad x_2 = -10, \quad x_3 = 45$$

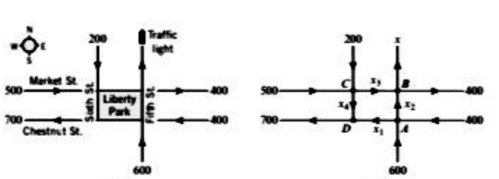
The fact that x_2 is negative tells us that the direction assigned to that flow in Figure 1.9.2 is incorrect; that is, the flow in that branch is *into* node A.

▶ EXAMPLE 2 Design of Traffic Patterns

The network in Figure 1.9.3 shows a proposed plan for the traffic flow around a new park that will house the Liberty Bell in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The plan calls for a computerized traffic light at the north exit on Fifth Street, and the diagram indicates the average number of vehicles per hour that are expected to flow in and out of the streets that border the complex. All streets are one-way.

(a) How many vehicles per hour should the traffic light let through to ensure that the average number of vehicles per hour flowing into the complex is the same as the average number of vehicles flowing out?

(b) Assuming that the traffic light has been set to balance the total flow in and out of the complex, what can you say about the average number of vehicles per hour that will flow along the streets that border the complex?



▶ Figure 1.9.3

Solution (a) If, as indicated in Figure 1.9.3*b*, we let x denote the number of vehicles per hour that the traffic light must let through, then the total number of vehicles per hour that flow in and out of the complex will be

Flowing in: $500 + 400 + 600 + 200 = 1700$

Flowing out: $x + 700 + 400$

Equating the flows in and out shows that the traffic light should let $x = 600$ vehicles per hour pass through.

Solution (b) To avoid traffic congestion, the flow in must equal the flow out at each intersection. For this to happen, the following conditions must be satisfied:

Intersection	Flow In	Flow Out

Thus, with $x = 600$, as computed in part (a), we obtain the following linear system:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 \quad\quad\quad &= 1000 \\ x_2 + x_3 \quad\quad &= 1000 \\ x_3 + x_4 &= 700 \\ x_1 \quad\quad\quad + x_4 &= 700 \end{aligned}$$

We leave it for you to show that the system has infinitely many solutions and that these are given by the parametric equations

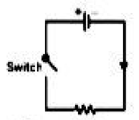
$$x_1 = 700 - t, \quad x_2 = 300 + t, \quad x_3 = 700 - t, \quad x_4 = t \tag{1}$$

However, the parameter t is not completely arbitrary here, since there are physical constraints to be considered. For example, the average flow rates must be nonnegative since we have assumed the streets to be one-way, and a negative flow rate would indicate a flow in the wrong direction. This being the case, we see from (1) that t can be any real number that satisfies $0 \le t \le 700$, which implies that the average flow rates along the streets will fall in the ranges

$$0 \le x_1 \le 700, \quad 300 \le x_2 \le 1000, \quad 0 \le x_3 \le 700, \quad 0 \le x_4 \le 700$$ ◀

Electrical Circuits

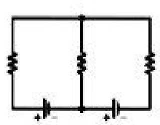
Next we will show how network analysis can be used to analyze electrical circuits consisting of batteries and resistors. A ***battery*** is a source of electric energy, and a ***resistor***, such as a lightbulb, is an element that dissipates electric energy. Figure 1.9.4 shows a schematic diagram of a circuit with one battery (represented by the symbol ⊣|⊢), one resistor (represented by the symbol -\/\/\/-), and a switch. The battery has a ***positive pole*** (+) and a ***negative pole*** (−). When the switch is closed, electrical current is considered to flow from the positive pole of the battery, through the resistor, and back to the negative pole (indicated by the arrowhead in the figure).



▲ Figure 1.9.4

Electrical current, which is a flow of electrons through wires, behaves much like the flow of water through pipes. A battery acts like a pump that creates "electrical pressure" to increase the flow rate of electrons, and a resistor acts like a restriction in a pipe that reduces the flow rate of electrons. The technical term for electrical pressure is ***electrical potential***; it is commonly measured in ***volts*** (V). The degree to which a resistor reduces the electrical potential is called its ***resistance*** and is commonly measured in ***ohms*** (Ω). The rate of flow of electrons in a wire is called ***current*** and is commonly measured in ***amperes*** (also called ***amps***) (A). The precise effect of a resistor is given by the following law:

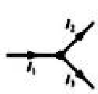
> **Ohm's Law** If a current of I amperes passes through a resistor with a resistance of R ohms, then there is a resulting drop of E volts in electrical potential that is the product of the current and resistance; that is,
>
> $$E = IR$$


▲ Figure 1.9.5

A typical electrical network will have multiple batteries and resistors joined by some configuration of wires. A point at which three or more wires in a network are joined is called a ***node*** (or ***junction point***). A ***branch*** is a wire connecting two nodes, and a ***closed loop*** is a succession of connected branches that begin and end at the same node. For example, the electrical network in Figure 1.9.5 has two nodes and three closed loops—two inner loops and one outer loop. As current flows through an electrical network, it undergoes increases and decreases in electrical potential, called ***voltage rises*** and ***voltage drops***, respectively. The behavior of the current at the nodes and around closed loops is governed by two fundamental laws:

> **Kirchhoff's Current Law** The sum of the currents flowing into any node is equal to the sum of the currents flowing out.

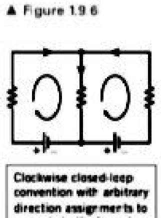
> **Kirchhoff's Voltage Law** In one traversal of any closed loop, the sum of the voltage rises equals the sum of the voltage drops.



▲ Figure 1.9.6

Kirchhoff's current law is a restatement of the principle of flow conservation at a node that was stated for general networks. Thus, for example, the currents at the top node in Figure 1.9.6 satisfy the equation $I_1 = I_2 + I_3$.

In circuits with multiple loops and batteries there is usually no way to tell in advance which way the currents are flowing, so the usual procedure in circuit analysis is to assign *arbitrary* directions to the current flows in the branches and let the mathematical computations determine whether the assignments are correct. In addition to assigning directions to the current flows, Kirchhoff's voltage law requires a direction of travel for each closed loop. The choice is arbitrary, but for consistency we will always take this direction to be *clockwise* (Figure 1.9.7). We also make the following conventions:



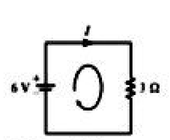
▲ Figure 1.9.7

- A voltage drop occurs at a resistor if the direction assigned to the current through the resistor is the same as the direction assigned to the loop, and a voltage rise occurs at a resistor if the direction assigned to the current through the resistor is the opposite to that assigned to the loop.
- A voltage rise occurs at a battery if the direction assigned to the loop is from − to + through the battery, and a voltage drop occurs at a battery if the direction assigned to the loop is from + to − through the battery.

If you follow these conventions when calculating currents, then those currents whose directions were assigned correctly will have positive values and those whose directions were assigned incorrectly will have negative values.

▶ **EXAMPLE 3 A Circuit with One Closed Loop**

Determine the current I in the circuit shown in Figure 1.9.8.



▲ Figure 1.9.8

Solution Since the direction assigned to the current through the resistor is the same as the direction of the loop, there is a voltage drop at the resistor. By Ohm's law this voltage drop is $E = IR = 3I$. Also, since the direction assigned to the loop is from − to + through the battery, there is a voltage rise of 6 volts at the battery. Thus, it follows from Kirchhoff's voltage law that

$$3I = 6$$

However, these equations are really the same, since both can be expressed as

$$I_1 + I_2 - I_3 = 0 \tag{2}$$

To find unique values for the currents we will need two more equations, which we will obtain from Kirchhoff's voltage law. We can see from the network diagram that there are three closed loops, a left inner loop containing the 50 V battery, a right inner loop containing the 30 V battery, and an outer loop that contains both batteries. Thus, Kirchhoff's voltage law will actually produce three equations. With a clockwise traversal of the loops, the voltage rises and drops in these loops are as follows:

	Voltage Rises	Voltage Drops
Left Inside Loop	50	$5I_1 + 20I_3$
Right Inside Loop	$30 + 10I_2 + 20I_3$	0
Outside Loop	$30 + 50 + 10I_2$	$5I_1$

These conditions can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} 5I_1 \qquad\quad + 20I_3 &= 50 \\ 10I_2 + 20I_3 &= -30 \\ 5I_1 - 10I_2 \qquad\quad &= 80 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

However, the last equation is superfluous, since it is the difference of the first two. Thus, if we combine (2) and the first two equations in (3), we obtain the following linear system of three equations in the three unknown currents:

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 + \quad I_2 - \quad I_3 &= 0 \\ 5I_1 \qquad\quad + 20I_3 &= 50 \\ 10I_2 + 20I_3 &= -30 \end{aligned}$$

We leave it for you to show that the solution of this system in amps is $I_1 = 6$, $I_2 = -5$, and $I_3 = 1$. The fact that I_2 is negative tells us that the direction of this current is opposite to that indicated in Figure 1.9.9. ◀

Balancing Chemical Equations

Chemical compounds are represented by ***chemical formulas*** that describe the atomic makeup of their molecules. For example, water is composed of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom, so its chemical formula is H_2O; and stable oxygen is composed of two oxygen atoms, so its chemical formula is O_2.

When chemical compounds are combined under the right conditions, the atoms in their molecules rearrange to form new compounds. For example, when methane burns,

Gustav Kirchhoff (1824–1887)

Historical Note The German physicist Gustav Kirchhoff was a student of Gauss. His work on Kirchhoff's laws, announced in 1854, was a major advance in the calculation of currents, voltages, and resistances of electrical circuits. Kirchhoff was severely disabled and spent most of his life on crutches or in a wheelchair.

[Image: ullstein bild - histopics/akg-im]

the methane (CH_4) and stable oxygen (O_2) react to form carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O). This is indicated by the ***chemical equation***

$$CH_4 + O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O \tag{4}$$

The molecules to the left of the arrow are called the ***reactants*** and those to the right the ***products***. In this equation the plus signs serve to separate the molecules and are not intended as algebraic operations. However, this equation does not tell the whole story, since it fails to account for the proportions of molecules required for a ***complete reaction*** (no reactants left over). For example, we can see from the right side of (4) that to produce one molecule of carbon dioxide and one molecule of water, one needs *three* oxygen atoms for each carbon atom. However, from the left side of (4) we see that one molecule of methane and one molecule of stable oxygen have only *two* oxygen atoms for each carbon atom. Thus, on the reactant side the ratio of methane to stable oxygen cannot be one-to-one in a complete reaction.

A chemical equation is said to be ***balanced*** if for each type of atom in the reaction, the same number of atoms appears on each side of the arrow. For example, the balanced version of Equation (4) is

$$CH_4 + 2O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O \tag{5}$$

by which we mean that one methane molecule combines with two stable oxygen molecules to produce one carbon dioxide molecule and two water molecules. In theory, one could multiply this equation through by any positive integer. For example, multiplying through by 2 yields the balanced chemical equation

$$2CH_4 + 4O_2 \longrightarrow 2CO_2 + 4H_2O$$

However, the standard convention is to use the smallest positive integers that will balance the equation.

Equation (4) is sufficiently simple that it could have been balanced by trial and error, but for more complicated chemical equations we will need a systematic method. There are various methods that can be used, but we will give one that uses systems of linear equations. To illustrate the method let us reexamine Equation (4). To balance this equation we must find positive integers, x_1, x_2, x_3, and x_4 such that

$$x_1\,(CH_4) + x_2\,(O_2) \longrightarrow x_3\,(CO_2) + x_4\,(H_2O) \tag{6}$$

For each of the atoms in the equation, the number of atoms on the left must be equal to the number of atoms on the right. Expressing this in tabular form we have

	Left Side		Right Side
Carbon	x_1	$=$	x_3
Hydrogen	$4x_1$	$=$	$2x_4$
Oxygen	$2x_2$	$=$	$2x_3 + x_4$

from which we obtain the homogeneous linear system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 \qquad\quad - x_3 \qquad\quad &= 0 \\ 4x_1 \qquad\qquad\qquad - 2x_4 &= 0 \\ 2x_2 - 2x_3 - \;\; x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

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where t is arbitrary. The smallest positive integer values for the unknowns occur when we let $t = 2$, so the equation can be balanced by letting $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 1, x_4 = 2$. This agrees with our earlier conclusions, since substituting these values into Equation (6) yields Equation (5).

▶ **EXAMPLE 5 Balancing Chemical Equations Using Linear Systems**

Balance the chemical equation

$$\underset{\text{[hydrochloric acid]}}{HCl} + \underset{\text{[sodium phosphate]}}{Na_3PO_4} \longrightarrow \underset{\text{[phosphoric acid]}}{H_3PO_4} + \underset{\text{[sodium chloride]}}{NaCl}$$

Solution Let x_1, x_2, x_3, and x_4 be positive integers that balance the equation

$$x_1\,(HCl) + x_2\,(Na_3PO_4) \longrightarrow x_3\,(H_3PO_4) + x_4\,(NaCl) \tag{7}$$

Equating the number of atoms of each type on the two sides yields

$$\begin{aligned} 1x_1 &= 3x_3 && \text{Hydrogen (H)}\\ 1x_1 &= 1x_4 && \text{Chlorine (Cl)}\\ 3x_2 &= 1x_4 && \text{Sodium (Na)}\\ 1x_2 &= 1x_3 && \text{Phosphorus (P)}\\ 4x_2 &= 4x_3 && \text{Oxygen (O)} \end{aligned}$$

from which we obtain the homogeneous linear system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 \qquad - 3x_3 \qquad &= 0\\ x_1 \qquad\qquad - x_4 &= 0\\ 3x_2 \qquad - x_4 &= 0\\ x_2 - x_3 \qquad &= 0\\ 4x_2 - 4x_3 \qquad &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

We leave it for you to show that the reduced row echelon form of the augmented matrix for this system is

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

from which we conclude that the general solution of the system is

$$x_1 = t,\quad x_2 = t/3,\quad x_3 = t/3,\quad x_4 = t$$

where t is arbitrary. To obtain the smallest positive integers that balance the equation, we let $t = 3$, in which case we obtain $x_1 = 3, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 1$, and $x_4 = 3$. Substituting these values in (7) produces the balanced equation

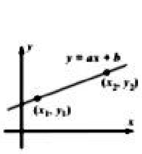
$$3HCl + Na_3PO_4 \longrightarrow H_3PO_4 + 3NaCl$$ ◀

Polynomial Interpolation

An important problem in various applications is to find a polynomial whose graph passes through a specified set of points in the plane; this is called an ***interpolating polynomial*** for the points. The simplest example of such a problem is to find a linear polynomial

$$p(x) = ax + b \tag{8}$$

whose graph passes through two known distinct points, (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2), in the xy-plane (Figure 1.9.10). You have probably encountered various methods in analytic geometry for finding the equation of a line through two points, but here we will give a method based on linear systems that can be adapted to general polynomial interpolation.



▲ Figure 1.9.10

The graph of (8) is the line $y = ax + b$, and for this line to pass through the points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2), we must have

$$y_1 = ax_1 + b \quad\text{and}\quad y_2 = ax_2 + b$$

Therefore, the unknown coefficients a and b can be obtained by solving the linear system

$$\begin{aligned} ax_1 + b &= y_1\\ ax_2 + b &= y_2 \end{aligned}$$

We don't need any fancy methods to solve this system—the value of a can be obtained by subtracting the equations to eliminate b, and then the value of a can be substituted into either equation to find b. We leave it as an exercise for you to find a and b and then show that they can be expressed in the form

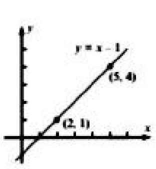
$$a = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \quad\text{and}\quad b = \frac{y_1x_2 - y_2x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \tag{9}$$

provided $x_1 \neq x_2$. Thus, for example, the line $y = ax + b$ that passes through the points

$$(2, 1) \quad\text{and}\quad (5, 4)$$

can be obtained by taking $(x_1, y_1) = (2, 1)$ and $(x_2, y_2) = (5, 4)$, in which case (9) yields

$$a = \frac{4-1}{5-2} = 1 \quad\text{and}\quad b = \frac{(1)(5) - (4)(2)}{5-2} = -1$$



▲ Figure 1.9.11

Therefore, the equation of the line is

$$y = x - 1$$

(Figure 1.9.11).

Now let us consider the more general problem of finding a polynomial whose graph passes through n points with distinct x-coordinates

$$(x_1, y_1),\ (x_2, y_2),\ (x_3, y_3), \ldots,\ (x_n, y_n) \tag{10}$$

Since there are n conditions to be satisfied, intuition suggests that we should begin by looking for a polynomial of the form

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \tag{11}$$