## **Mathematics for Al**

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## The Inverse of a Matrix



## The Inverse of a Matrix (1 of 3)

#### **Definition**

If A is an  $n \times n$  matrix, an *inverse* of A is an  $n \times n$  matrix A' with the property that

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

where  $I = I_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix. If such an A' exists, then A is called *invertible*.



## The Inverse of a Matrix (2 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.6

If A is an invertible matrix, then its inverse is unique.

#### Theorem 3.7

If A is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix, then the system of linear equations given by  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has the unique solution  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$  for any  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .



## The Inverse of a Matrix (3 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.8

If 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
, then A is invertible if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case

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

If ad - bc = 0, then A is not invertible.

The expression ad - bc is called the **determinant** of A, denoted det A.

## Example 3.24

Find the inverses of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & -15 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$ , if they exist.

#### Solution:

We have det  $A = 1(4) - 2(3) = -2 \neq 0$ , so A is invertible, with

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

On the other hand,  $\det B = 12(-5) - (-15)(4) = 0$ , so *B* is not invertible.



# Properties of Invertible Matrices



## Properties of Invertible Matrices (1 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.9

a. If A is an invertible matrix, then  $A^{-1}$  is invertible and

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

b. If *A* is an invertible matrix and *c* is a nonzero scalar, then *cA* is an invertible matrix and

$$(cA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}A^{-1}$$

c. If A and B are invertible matrices of the same size, then AB is invertible and

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$



## Properties of Invertible Matrices (2 of 3)

d. If A is an invertible matrix, then  $A^T$  is invertible and

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

e. If A is an invertible matrix, then  $A^n$  is invertible for all nonnegative integers n and

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



## Properties of Invertible Matrices (3 of 3)

The inverse of a product of invertible matrices is the product of their inverses in the reverse order.

#### **Definition**

If A is an invertible matrix and n is a positive integer, then  $A^{-n}$  is defined by

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



## Example 3.26

Solve the following matrix equation for *X* (assuming that the matrices involved are such that all of the indicated operations are defined):

$$A^{-1}(BX)^{-1} = (A^{-1}B^3)^2$$



## Example 3.26 – Solution

There are many ways to proceed here. One solution is

$$A^{-1}(BX)^{-1} = (A^{-1}B^{3})^{2} \Rightarrow ((BX)A)^{-1} = (A^{-1}B^{3})^{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow [((BX)A)^{-1}]^{-1} = [(A^{-1}B^{3})^{2}]^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (BX)A = [(A^{-1}B^{3})(A^{-1}B^{3})]^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (BX)A = B^{-3}(A^{-1})^{-1}B^{-3}(A^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow BXA = B^{-3}AB^{-3}A$$

$$\Rightarrow B^{-1}BXAA^{-1} = B^{-1}B^{-3}AB^{-3}AA^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow IXI = B^{-4}AB^{-3}I$$

$$\Rightarrow X = B^{-4}AB^{-3}$$



# **Elementary Matrices**



## Elementary Matrices (1 of 3)

#### **Definition**

An *elementary matrix* is any matrix that can be obtained by performing an elementary row operation on an identity matrix.



## Elementary Matrices (2 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.10

Let E be the elementary matrix obtained by performing an elementary row operation on  $I_n$ . If the same elementary row operation is performed on an  $n \times r$  matrix A, the result is the same as the matrix EA.



# Example 3.28 (1 of 2)

Let

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then  $E_1$  corresponds to  $R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$ , which is undone by doing  $R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$ , again. Thus,  ${E_1}^{-1} = E_1$ . (Check by showing that  $E_1^2 = E_1 E_1 = I$ .) The matrix  $E_2$  comes from  $4R_2$ , which is undone by performing  $\frac{1}{4}R_2$ .

# Example 3.28 (2 of 2)

Thus,

$$E_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which can be easily checked. Finally,  $E_3$  corresponds to the elementary row operation  $R_3 - 2R_1$ , which can be undone by the elementary row operation  $R_3 + 2R_1$ . So, in this case,

$$E_3^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Elementary Matrices (3 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.11

Each elementary matrix is invertible, and its inverse is an elementary matrix of the same type.



# The Fundamental Theorem of Invertible Matrices



### The Fundamental Theorem of Invertible Matrices (1 of 2)

#### Theorem 3.12

#### The Fundamental Theorem of Invertible Matrices:

#### **Version 1**

Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix. The following statements are equivalent:

- a. A is invertible.
- b.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for every **b** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- c.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.
- d. The reduced row echelon form of A is  $I_n$ .
- e. A is a product of elementary matrices.



## Example 3.29

If possible, express  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  as a product of elementary matrices.

#### Solution:

We row reduce A as follows:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 + R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-\frac{1}{2}R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2$$



## Example 3.29 – Solution (1 of 2)

Thus, the reduced row echelon form of A is the identity matrix, so the Fundamental Theorem assures us that A is invertible and can be written as a product of elementary matrices. We have  $E_4E_3E_2E_1A = I$ , where

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

are the elementary matrices corresponding to the four elementary row operations used to reduce *A* to *I*.



## Example 3.29 – Solution (2 of 2)

As in the proof of the theorem, we have

$$A = (E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} E_4^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

as required.



## The Fundamental Theorem of Invertible Matrices (2 of 2)

#### Theorem 3.13

Let A be a square matrix. If B is a square matrix such that either AB = I or BA = I, then A is invertible and  $B = A^{-1}$ .

#### Theorem 3.14

Let A be a square matrix. If a sequence of elementary row operations reduces A to I, then the same sequence of elementary row operations transforms I into  $A^{-1}$ .

# The Gauss-Jordan Method for Computing the Inverse



## Example 3.30

Find the inverse of

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

if it exists.

## Example 3.30 – Solution (1 of 3)

### Gauss-Jordan elimination produces

$$[A | I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Example 3.30 – Solution (2 of 3)



## Example 3.30 – Solution (3 of 3)

Therefore,

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -\frac{3}{2} & -5 \\ -5 & 1 & 3 \\ -2 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Subspaces, Basis, Dimension, and Rank



## Subspaces, Basis, Dimension, and Rank (1 of 2)

#### **Definition**

A **subspace** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is any collection S of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that:

- 1. The zero vector **0** is in *S*.
- 2. If **u** and **v** are in *S*, then **u** + **v** is in *S*. (*S* is *closed under addition*.)
- 3. If **u** is in S and c is a scalar, then cu is in S. (S is closed under scalar multiplication.)



## Example 3.37 (1 of 2)

Every line and plane through the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . It should be clear geometrically that properties (1) through (3) are satisfied. Here is an algebraic proof in the case of a plane through the origin.

Let  $\wp$  be a plane through the origin with direction vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$ . Hence,  $\wp = \mathrm{span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2)$ . The zero vector  $\mathbf{0}$  is in  $\wp$ , since  $\mathbf{0} = 0\mathbf{v}_1 + 0\mathbf{v}_2$ . Now let

$$\mathbf{u} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2$$
 and  $\mathbf{v} = d_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + d_2 \mathbf{v}_2$ 

be two vectors in  $\wp$ .



## Example 3.37 (2 of 2)

#### Then

 $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = (c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2) + (d_1\mathbf{v}_1 + d_2\mathbf{v}_2) = (c_1 + d_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + (c_2 + d_2)\mathbf{v}_2$ Thus,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$  and so is in  $\mathbf{\varnothing}$ .

Now let c be a scalar. Then

$$c\mathbf{u} = c(c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2) = (cc_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + (cc_2)\mathbf{v}_2$$

which shows that  $c\mathbf{u}$  is also a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$  and is therefore in  $\wp$ . We have shown that  $\wp$  satisfies properties (1) through (3) and hence is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

## Subspaces, Basis, Dimension, and Rank (2 of 2)

#### Theorem 3.19

Let  $\mathbf{v}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2$ , ...,  $\mathbf{v}_k$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then span  $(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .



## Example 3.38

Show that the set of all vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$  that satisfy the conditions x = 3y and z = -2y forms a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

#### Solution:

Substituting the two conditions into  $\begin{vmatrix} x \\ y \end{vmatrix}$  yields

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



## Example 3.38 – Solution

Since *y* is arbitrary, the given set of vectors is span  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$  and is thus a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , by Theorem 3.19.



# Subspaces Associated with Matrices



### Subspaces Associated with Matrices (1 of 3)

#### **Definition**

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix.

- 1. The **row space** of A is the subspace row(A) of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  spanned by the rows of A.
- 2. The *column space* of *A* is the subspace col(A) of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  spanned by the columns of *A*.

### Example 3.41

#### Consider the matrix

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

- (a) Determine whether  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$  is in the column space of A.
- (b) Determine whether  $w = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  is in the row space of A.
- (c) Describe row(A) and col(A).

### Example 3.41 – Solution (1 of 4)

(a) We know that **b** is a linear combination of the columns of A if and only if the linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent. We row reduce the augmented matrix as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 3 & -3 & | & 3 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & | & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the system is consistent (and, in fact, has a unique solution). Therefore, **b** is in col(*A*).

### Example 3.41 – Solution (2 of 4)

(b) Elementary row operations simply create linear combinations of the rows of a matrix. That is, they produce vectors only in the row space of the matrix. If the vector  $\mathbf{w}$  is in row(A), then  $\mathbf{w}$  is a linear combination of the rows of A, so if we augment A by  $\mathbf{w}$  as  $\begin{bmatrix} A \\ \mathbf{w} \end{bmatrix}$ , it will be possible to apply elementary row operations to this augmented matrix to reduce it to form  $\begin{bmatrix} A' \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  using only

elementary row operations of the form  $R_i + kR_j$ , where i > j—in other words, working from top to bottom in each column.



### Example 3.41 – Solution (3 of 4)

We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{A}{\mathbf{w}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \frac{3}{4} & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 - 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \frac{0}{0} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_4 - 9R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \frac{0}{0} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{w}$  is a linear combination of the rows of A and thus  $\mathbf{w}$  is in row(A).

### Example 3.41 – Solution (4 of 4)

(c) It is easy to check that, for any vector  $\mathbf{w} = [x \ y]$ , the augmented matrix  $\left[\frac{A}{\mathbf{w}}\right]$  reduces to

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

in a similar fashion. Therefore, every vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is in row(A), and so row(A) =  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

### Subspaces Associated with Matrices (2 of 3)

#### Theorem 3.20

Let *B* be any matrix that is row equivalent to a matrix *A*. Then row(B) = row(A).

#### Theorem 3.21

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix and let N be the set of solutions of the homogeneous linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Then N is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Subspaces Associated with Matrices (3 of 3)

#### **Definition**

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The **null space** of A is the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consisting of solutions of the homogeneous linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . It is denoted by null(A).

#### Theorem 3.22

Let A be a matrix whose entries are real numbers. For any system of linear equations  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , exactly one of the following is true:

- a. There is no solution.
- b. There is a unique solution.
- c. There are infinitely many solutions.



### **Basis**



### Basis (1 of 3)

#### **Definition**

A *basis* for a subspace S of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set of vectors in S that

- 1. spans S and
- 2. is linearly independent.



### Example 3.42

The standard unit vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2$ , ...  $\mathbf{e}_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are linearly independent and span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Therefore, they form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , called the **standard basis**.



### Example 3.44

Find a basis for  $S = \text{span}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$ , where

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Solution:

The vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  already span S, so they will be a basis for S if they are also linearly independent. It is easy to determine that they are not; indeed,  $\mathbf{w} = 2\mathbf{u} - 3\mathbf{v}$ .

### Example 3.44 – Solution

Therefore, we can ignore  $\mathbf{w}$ , since any linear combinations involving  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  can be rewritten to involve  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  alone. This implies that  $S = \mathrm{span} (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathrm{span} (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ , and since  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are certainly linearly independent, they form a basis for S. (Geometrically, this means that  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  all lie in the same plane and  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  can serve as a set of direction vectors for this plane.)



### Basis (2 of 3)

Following is a summary of the most effective procedure to use to find bases for the row space, the column space, and the null space of a matrix *A*.

- 1. Find the reduced row echelon form R of A.
- Use the nonzero row vectors of R (containing the leading 1s) to form a basis for row(A).
- 3. Use the column vectors of A that correspond to the columns of R containing the leading 1s (the pivot columns) to form a basis for col(A).

### Basis (3 of 3)

4. Solve for the leading variables of  $R\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  in terms of the free variables, set the free variables equal to parameters, substitute back into  $\mathbf{x}$ , and write the result as a linear combination of f vectors (where f is the number of free variables). These f vectors form a basis for null(A).



### Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 | 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 | 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 | 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 | 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3/2 | 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 | 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$row(A) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 3/2 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}, col(A) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} )$$

Solve 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & |0| \\ 0 & 1 & 3/2 & |0| \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & |0| \end{bmatrix}$$
. We have  $x = -z, y = -3/2z, null(A) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$ 

### **Dimension and Rank**



### Dimension and Rank (1 of 8)

#### Theorem 3.23

#### The Basis Theorem

Let S be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then any two bases for S have the same number of vectors.

#### **Definition**

If S is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the number of vectors in a basis for S is called the *dimension* of S, denoted dim S.



### Dimension and Rank (2 of 8)

#### Theorem 3.24

The row and column spaces of a matrix A have the same dimension.

#### **Definition**

The *rank* of a matrix *A* is the dimension of its row and column spaces and is denoted by rank(*A*).



### Dimension and Rank (3 of 8)

#### Theorem 3.25

For any matrix A,

$$rank(A^T) = rank(A)$$

#### **Definition**

The *nullity* of a matrix A is the dimension of its null space and is denoted by nullity(A).

### Dimension and Rank (4 of 8)

Theorem 3.26
The Rank Theorem

If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix, then

$$rank(A) + nullity(A) = n$$

### Example 3.51

Find the nullity of each of the following matrices:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and 
$$N = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 4 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$



### Example 3.51 – Solution (1 of 2)

Since the two columns of M are clearly linearly independent, rank(M) = 2. Thus, by the Rank Theorem, nullity(M) = 2 - rank(M) = 2 - 2 = 0.

There is no obvious dependence among the rows or columns of N, so we apply row operations to reduce it to

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



### Example 3.51 – Solution (2 of 2)

We have reduced the matrix far enough (we do not need *reduced* row echelon form here, since we are not looking for a basis for the null space). We see that there are only two nonzero rows, so rank(N) = 2.

Hence, nullity(*N*) = 4 - rank(N) = 4 - 2 = 2.

### Dimension and Rank (5 of 8)

#### Theorem 3.27

## The Fundamental Theorem of Invertible Matrices: Version 2

Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix. The following statements are equivalent:

- a. A is invertible.
- b.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for every **b** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- c.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.
- d. The reduced row echelon form of A is  $I_n$ .



### Dimension and Rank (6 of 8)

- e. A is a product of elementary matrices.
- f. rank(A) = n
- g.  $\operatorname{nullity}(A) = 0$
- h. The column vectors of A are linearly independent.
- i. The column vectors of A span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- j. The column vectors of A form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- k. The row vectors of A are linearly independent.

### Dimension and Rank (7 of 8)

- I. The row vectors of A span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- m. The row vectors of A form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .



### Dimension and Rank (8 of 8)

#### Theorem 3.28

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. Then:

a. 
$$rank(A^TA) = rank(A)$$

b. The  $n \times n$  matrix  $A^TA$  is invertible if and only if rank (A) = n.

### **Coordinates**



### Coordinates (1 of 2)

#### Theorem 3.29

Let S be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathscr{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, ..., \mathbf{v}_k\}$  be a basis for S. For every vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in S, there is exactly one way to write  $\mathbf{v}$  as a linear combination of the basis vectors in  $\mathscr{B}$ :

$$\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \mathbf{v}_k$$

### Coordinates (2 of 2)

#### **Definition**

Let S be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathscr{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$  be a basis for S. Let  $\mathbf{v}$  be a vector in S, and write  $\mathbf{v} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{v}_k$ . Then  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are called the **coordinates of \mathbf{v} with respect to \mathcal{B}**, and the column vector

$$[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = egin{bmatrix} c_1 \ c_2 \ dots \ c_k \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the coordinate vector of v with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

### Example 3.53

Let  $\mathscr{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$  be the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Find the coordinate vector of

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

with respect to  $\mathcal{E}$ .

### Example 3.53 – Solution

Since 
$$\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{e}_1 + 7\mathbf{e}_2 + 4\mathbf{e}_3$$
,

$$[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$