

1 Review

2 Algebraic Properties of matrices (§3.2)

3 Elementary matrices; A method for finding  $A^{-1}$  (§3.3)

4 Subspaces and linear independence (§3.4)

## Theorem

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be scalars. Let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  be matrices with the same size.

①  $A + B = B + A$  — commutative

②  $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$  — associative

③  $(ab)A = a(bA)$  — commutative

④  $(a \pm b)A = aA \pm bA$

⑤  $a(A \pm B) = aA \pm bB$  } distributive.

Proof: Exercise.

## Theorem

Assume that the sizes of the matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are such that the indicated operations can be performed.

- ①  $A(BC) = (AB)C$  - associative
- ②  $A(B \pm C) = AB \pm AC$
- ③  $(B \pm C)A = BA \pm CA$  } distributive
- ④  $a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)$  for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . - commutative for scalar multiplication.

Proof: Exercise.

## Theorem

Assume that the sizes of the matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are such that the indicated operations can be performed.

- ①  $A(BC) = (AB)C$
- ②  $A(B \pm C) = AB \pm AC$
- ③  $(B \pm C)A = BA \pm CA$
- ④  $a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)$  for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Proof: Exercise.

## True or False?

- ① If  $AB$  and  $BA$  are defined, then they have the same size. (False)
- ② If  $A$  and  $B$  are square matrices of the same order, then  $AB = BA$ .

False!

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)_{11} = 3$$
$$(BA)_{11} = [1 \ -1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1 - 3 = -2$$

A matrix whose entries are all zero is called a *zero matrix*, denoted by  $\mathbf{0}$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

## Theorem

*Let  $c$  be a scalar. The sizes of matrices are such that the operations can be performed.*

- ①  $A + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + A$
- ②  $A - \mathbf{0} = A$
- ③  $A - A = \mathbf{0}$
- ④  $0A = \mathbf{0}$
- ⑤  $cA = \mathbf{0}$  implies that  $c = 0$  or  $A = \mathbf{0}$ .

Proof: Exercise.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## True or False?

- ①  $AB = AC$  implies  $B = C$ .
- ② Nonzero matrices can have a zero product.

A square matrix with 1's on the main diagonal and zeros elsewhere is called an *identity matrix*. Denote by  $I_n$  the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

$$I_1 = [1], \quad I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \dots$$

Then for an  $m \times n$  matrix, we have that  $AI_n = A$  and  $I_m A = A$ .

### Theorem

Let  $A$  be a square matrix of size  $n$  and let  $R$  be the reduced row echelon form of  $A$ . Then either  $R$  has a row of zeros or  $R = I_n$ .

pf) On the last row of  $R$  has a leading 1, then  $(a_{n1}, a_{n2}, \dots, a_{nn}) = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ .

If the last column of  $R$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$   $\leftarrow i$ th  $(i < n)$ , then the last  $(n-i)$  rows are 0.

## Definition

For a square matrix  $A$ , if there is a matrix  $B$  with the same size as  $A$  such that  $AB = BA = I$ , then  $A$  is *invertible* (or *nonsingular*), and  $B$  is called an *inverse* matrix of  $A$ . If not,  $A$  is *singular*.

## Theorem

*An invertible matrix has a unique inverse.*

Proof:

Suppose that  $AB = BA = I$  &  $AC = CA = I$ .

Then  $B = BI = BAC = IC = C$ .

We denote by  $A^{-1}$  the inverse of an invertible matrix  $A$ .

## Theorem

A matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case the inverse is given by  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ .

Proof: Exercise.

!!  
B

Check  $AB=BA=I$ .

- $ad-bc$  is called the determinant of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ .
- We will study the notion of determinant for general square matrices in CH 4.

$n \times n$   $A$ : Invertible  $\iff$  determinant of  $A \neq 0$ .



## Theorem

A matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case the inverse is given by  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ .

Proof: Exercise.

## Theorem

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices of the same order. If  $A$  and  $B$  are invertible, then  $AB$  is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ .

Proof: Exercise. (Use the associativity.)

If  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are invertible, then  $A_1A_2 \cdots A_n$  is also invertible and

$$(A_1A_2 \cdots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1}A_{n-1}^{-1} \cdots A_1^{-1}.$$

Hence, if  $A_1A_2 \cdots A_n$  is singular, then one of  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  is singular.

## Powers of a square matrix

For a nonnegative integer  $n$ , we define the  $n$ th power of a square matrix  $A$ :

$$\begin{aligned}(i) \quad & A^0 = I \\(ii) \quad & A^n = \underbrace{AA \cdots A}_{n \text{ factors}} \text{ if } n > 0.\end{aligned}$$

Hence for nonnegative integers  $r$  and  $s$ , we have  $A^r A^s = A^{r+s}$ . If  $A$  is invertible, then we can define a negative integer power of  $A$  such that

$$A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n = \underbrace{A^{-1}A^{-1} \cdots A^{-1}}_{n \text{ factors}}.$$

### Theorem

Let  $A$  be an invertible matrix and  $n$  a nonnegative integer. Then

- ①  $A^n$  is invertible and  $(A^n)^{-1} = A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n$ .
- ②  $kA$  is invertible for any nonzero scalar  $k$  and  $(kA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{k}A^{-1}$ .

For a square matrix  $A$  and a polynomial

$p(x) = a_0 + \cancel{a_1 x} + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_m x^m$ , we define a *matrix polynomial*

$$p(A) = a_0 I + a_1 A + a_2 A^2 + \cdots + a_m A^m.$$

For a square matrix  $A$  and a polynomial

$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_mx^m$ , we define a *matrix polynomial*

$$p(A) = a_0I + a_1A + a_2A^2 + \cdots + a_mA^m.$$

Since  $A^r A^s = A^{r+s}$ , if  $p(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$ ,

For a square matrix  $A$  and a polynomial

$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_mx^m$ , we define a *matrix polynomial*

$$p(A) = a_0I + a_1A + a_2A^2 + \cdots + a_mA^m.$$

Since  $A^r A^s = A^{r+s}$ , if  $p(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$ , then  $p(A) = p_1(A)p_2(A)$ .

For a square matrix  $A$  and a polynomial

$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_mx^m$ , we define a *matrix polynomial*

$$p(A) = a_0I + a_1A + a_2A^2 + \cdots + a_mA^m.$$

Since  $A^r A^s = A^{r+s}$ , if  $p(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$ , then  $p(A) = p_1(A)p_2(A)$ . For example,  $(A + I)(A - I) = A^2 - I$ .

A handwritten example of polynomial multiplication,  $x^2 - 1 = (x+1)(x-1)$ , written in pink ink. The text is positioned to the right of a horizontal orange brushstroke that spans the width of the slide.
$$x^2 - 1 = (x+1)(x-1)$$

For a square matrix  $A$  and a polynomial

$p(x) = a_0 + \frac{a_1 x}{x} + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_m x^m$ , we define a *matrix polynomial*

$$p(A) = a_0 I + a_1 A + a_2 A^2 + \cdots + a_m A^m.$$

Since  $A^r A^s = A^{r+s}$ , if  $p(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$ , then  $p(A) = p_1(A)p_2(A)$ . For example,  $(A + I)(A - I) = A^2 - I$ .

Note that  $AB \neq BA$  in general.

$$A^2 + BA - AB - B^2$$

Note that  $(A + B)^2 \neq A^2 + 2AB + B^2$  and  $(A + B)(A - B) \neq A^2 - B^2$  in general. // even though  $(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$  &  $(x+y)(x-y) = x^2 - y^2$

$$A^2 + AB + BA + B^2$$

## Theorem

If the sizes of the matrices are such that the stated operations can be performed, then

- 1  $(A^T)^T = A$
- 2  $(A \pm B)^T = A^T \pm B^T$
- 3  $(kA)^T = kA^T$
- 4  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T \neq A^T B^T$

Proof of (4):

- 1 Check the sizes of  $(AB)^T$  and  $B^T A^T$ .
- 2 Show  $((AB)^T)_{ji} = (B^T A^T)_{ji} \quad \forall i, j$ .

$$\begin{aligned}(AB)^T_{ji} &= (AB)_{ij} \\&= r_i(A) \cdot c_j(B) \\&= c_j(B) \cdot r_i(A) \\&= r_i(B^T) \cdot c_i(A) \\&= (B^T A^T)_{ji}\end{aligned}$$

In general,  $(A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n)^T = A_n^T A_{n-1}^T \cdots A_1^T$ .



## Theorem

If  $A$  is invertible, then  $A^T$  is also invertible and  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$ .

Proof:  $A^T(A^{-1})^T = (A^{-1}A)^T = I$  &  $(A^{-1})^T A^T = (AA^{-1})^T = I$ .  $\square$

## Theorem

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices with the same size.

- ①  $\text{tr}(A^T) = \text{tr}(A)$
- ②  $\text{tr}(cA) = c \text{tr}(A)$
- ③  $\text{tr}(A \pm B) = \text{tr}(A) \pm \text{tr}(B)$
- ④  $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ .

Proof:  $\text{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i=1}^n (AB)_{i\bar{i}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n (A)_{i\bar{k}} (B)_{k\bar{i}} = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n (B)_{k\bar{i}} (A)_{i\bar{k}} = \sum_{k=1}^n (BA)_{k\bar{k}} = \text{tr}(BA)$ .  $\square$

True or False?

$$\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(A)\text{tr}(B)$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow AB = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & * \\ * & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{r}$  be a  $1 \times n$  row vector and  $\mathbf{c}$  an  $n \times 1$  column vector. Then  $\mathbf{rc} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{cr})$ .

Proof: Exercise.

## True or False?

$$\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(A)\text{tr}(B)$$

## Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{r}$  be a  $1 \times n$  row vector and  $\mathbf{c}$  an  $n \times 1$  column vector. Then  $\mathbf{rc} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{cr})$ .

Proof: Exercise.

## Definition

A square matrix  $A$  is *idempotent* if  $A^2 = A$ . A square matrix  $A$  is *nilpotent* if  $A^k = \mathbf{0}$  for some positive integer  $k$ . The smallest value of  $k$  for which this equation holds is called the *index of nilpotency*.

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -6 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Check  $A^2 = A$  &  $B^2 \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,  $B^3 = \mathbf{0}$ .

## Example (Exercise)

Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be column vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Set  $A = I + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$ . Show that if  $\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{v} \neq -1$ , then  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1} = I - \frac{1}{1+\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$ .

Proof: Since  $A - I = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$ ,

$$(A - I)^2 = (\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T)(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T) = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})\mathbf{v}^T = (\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T) = (\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})(A - I).$$

Since  $(A - I)^2 = A^2 - 2A + I = (A^2 - A) - (A - I)$ , we get

$$A^2 - A = (1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})(A - I).$$

Hence if  $1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u} \neq 0$ , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} I &= A - \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}}(A^2 - A) = A \left\{ I - \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}}(A - I) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ I - \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}}(A - I) \right\} A. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1} = I - \frac{1}{1+\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}}(A - I) = I - \frac{1}{1+\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$ .

- 1 Review
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- 3 Elementary matrices; A method for finding  $A^{-1}$  (§3.3)
- 4 Subspaces and linear independence (§3.4)

Recall that there are three elementary row operations:

- 1 Interchange two rows.
- 2 Multiply a row by a nonzero constant.
- 3 Add a multiple of one row to another.

### Definition

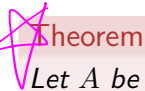
An *elementary matrix* is a matrix that results from applying a ~~simple~~ elementary row operation to an identity matrix. single

### Examples of elementary matrices

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

11

$$3(0, 1, 0) + (0, 0, 1)$$



## Theorem

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. If  $E$  is the elementary matrix that results by performing a certain elementary row operation on  $I_m$ , then  $EA$  is the matrix that results when the same row operation is performed on  $A$ .

(column)

## Example

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then we have

$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_2 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_3 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AE_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

obtained from  $A$   
by interchanging  
the first two  
columns.

Check  $AE_2$  &  $AE_3$ .

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

The matrices  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$ , and  $E_3$  are invertible and their inverse are

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

respectively. Furthermore,  $E_1^{-1}$ ,  $E_2^{-1}$ , and  $E_3^{-1}$  are also elementary matrices.

### Theorem

*Every elementary matrix is invertible and the inverse is also an elementary matrix.*



## Theorem

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1 The reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $I_n$ .
- 2  $A$  can be expressed as a product of elementary matrices.
- 3  $A$  is invertible.

$$\begin{aligned}
 A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} &\xrightarrow{E_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_3 E_2 E_1 A \\
 &\xrightarrow{E_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_5} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_6} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} & \quad E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$A^{-1} = E_6 E_5 E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 \quad \& \quad A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} E_4^{-1} E_5^{-1} E_6^{-1}$$

## Theorem

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then the following are equivalent.

- 1 The reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $I_n$ . ✓
- 2  $A$  can be expressed as a product of elementary matrices.
- 3  $A$  is invertible.

## Proof.

$1 \Rightarrow 2$  : Assume  $E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$ . Then

$$A = (E_k \cdots E_2 E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1}.$$

$2 \Rightarrow 3$  : Assume  $A = E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k$ . Since every elementary matrix is invertible,  $A$  is also invertible.

$3 \Rightarrow 1$  : Suppose that the reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $R$ . i.e.,  $E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = R$ . Since  $A$  is invertible,  $R$  is also invertible. Since the reduced echelon form of a square matrix is either  $0$  or  $I_n$ ,  $R$  must be  $I_n$ .  
(either contains the rows consisting of zeros or is  $I_n$ )  $\square$

For two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ , we say that  $A$  and  $B$  are *row equivalent* if  $B = E_k \cdots E_1 A$ , where  $E_1, \dots, E_k$  are elementary matrices.

### Theorem

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices of the same size. The following are equivalent.

- 1  $A$  and  $B$  are row equivalent.
- 2 There is an invertible matrix  $E$  such that  $B = EA$ .
- 3 There is an invertible matrix  $F$  such that  $A = FB$ .

♣  $A$  and  $B$  are *column equivalent* if  $B = AE_1 E_2 \cdots E_k$ , where  $E_1, \dots, E_k$  are elementary matrices.

# The inversion algorithm

- 1 Find a sequence of elementary row operations that reduces  $A$  to  $I$ .
- 2 Perform the same sequence of operations on  $I$  to obtain  $A^{-1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 [A|I] &= \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{E_1} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{E_2} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\
 &\quad E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &\xrightarrow{E_3} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{E_4} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & -3 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{E_5} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] \\
 &\quad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &\xrightarrow{E_6} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right] = [I|A] \quad E_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = I \\
 &\quad I = E_6 \cdots E_2 E_1 A \quad \boxed{E_6 E_5 E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1} = A^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Theorem

Let  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  be a linear system of  $n$  equations in  $n$  unknowns. If  $A$  is invertible, then the system has a unique solution, namely  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

## Theorem

Let  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  be a homogeneous linear system of  $n$  equations in  $n$  unknowns. Then the system has only the trivial solution if and only if  $A$  is invertible.

## Theorem

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

- 1 The reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $I_n$ .
- 2  $A$  can be expressed as a product of elementary matrices.
- 3  $A$  is invertible.
- 4  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.

## Theorem

- ① *Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices such that  $AB = I$  or  $BA = I$ . Then  $A$  and  $B$  are invertible and  $A^{-1} = B$  and  $B^{-1} = A$ .*
- ② *Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices such that  $AB$  is invertible. Then  $A$  and  $B$  are invertible.*

## Theorem

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

- 1 The reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $I_n$ .
- 2  $A$  can be expressed as a product of elementary matrices.
- 3  $A$  is invertible.
- 4  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.
- 5  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent for every  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- 6  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has exactly one solution for every  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .



- 1 Review
- 2 Algebraic Properties of matrices (§3.2)
- 3 Elementary matrices; A method for finding  $A^{-1}$  (§3.3)
- 4 Subspaces and linear independence (§3.4)

### Theorem 1.1.5 on page 9

$\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed under (vector) addition and scalar multiplication, and they satisfy the following properties, see Theorem 1.1.5 on page 9.

- ➊  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- ➋  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$
- ➌  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{u}$
- ➍  $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$
- ➎  $(k + \ell)\mathbf{u} = k\mathbf{u} + \ell\mathbf{u}$
- ➏  $k(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = k\mathbf{u} + k\mathbf{v}$
- ➐  $k(\ell\mathbf{u}) = (k\ell)\mathbf{u}$
- ➑  $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$

## Definition

A nonempty set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called a *subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if it is closed under scalar multiplication and addition.

i.e., A subset  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if

$$\begin{cases} \textcircled{1} \quad \forall u \text{ \& } w \in W, \quad u+w \in W \\ \textcircled{2} \quad \forall c \in \mathbb{R}, \quad cu \in W. \end{cases}$$

## Definition

A nonempty set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called a *subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if it is closed under scalar multiplication and addition.

- 1  $\{0\}$
  - 2  $\mathbb{R}^n$
  - 3  $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid ax + by = 0\}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - 4  $\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x + y + z = 0, 2x - y + z = 0\}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- } trivial subspaces

Note that every subspace  $W$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains  $0$ , and it satisfies the properties (1)~(8) in Theorem 1.1.5 on page 9.

## Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_s$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the set of all linear combinations of the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_s$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Let  $W = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} = t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + t_s\mathbf{v}_s, \forall t_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . The subspace  $W$  is called the *span* of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_s$  and is denoted by

$$W = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_s\}.$$

We also say that the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_s$  *span*  $W$ .

We will study the following subspaces

$$\begin{cases} * \text{span}\{C_1(A), C_2(A), \dots, C_n(A)\} \\ * \text{span}\{r_1(A), r_2(A), \dots, r_m(A)\} \end{cases}$$

for an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ .