

Week 3

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex: } & x+y-z+t+u=1 \\ & -x+2y+3z-t+2u=-1 \\ & 2x+y-z+2t-u=2 \\ & x+6y+4z+t+4u=1 \\ & 8y+7z+6u=0 \\ & 3x+7y+3z+3t+3u=3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 8 & 7 & 0 & 6 \\ 3 & 7 & 3 & 3 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{G.E.}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \text{matrix in echelon form}$$

\downarrow

x, y, z basic vars. $\textcircled{x} + y - z + t + u = 1 \quad \text{eq 1}$

u, t free vars. $\textcircled{-y} + z - 3u = 0 \quad \text{eq 2}$

$\textcircled{5z} - 6u = 0 \quad \text{eq 3}$

We can find basic variables in terms of the free variables:

$$z \stackrel{\text{eq 3}}{=} \frac{6}{5}u, \quad y \stackrel{\text{eq 2}}{=} -\frac{9}{5}u, \quad x \stackrel{\text{eq 1}}{=} 1 - t + 2u$$

So, the general solution is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1-t+2u \\ -\frac{9}{5}u \\ \frac{6}{5}u \\ u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + u \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -\frac{9}{5} \\ \frac{6}{5} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad t, u \in \mathbb{R}$$

We could also choose: x, y, u basic vars.
 t, z free vars.

$$u = \frac{5}{3}z, \quad y = -\frac{3}{2}z, \quad x = 1 - \frac{5}{3}z - t$$

so the gen. soln. is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{5}{3}z - t \\ -\frac{3}{2}z \\ z \\ \frac{5}{6}z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{5}{3} \\ -\frac{3}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \frac{5}{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\sim 1 \text{ th. soln.} \sim 1 \text{ mth. for min.} \quad t, z \in \mathbb{R}$

Ex: Find the values of a, b for which the system has a unique soln or infinitely many solns or no solution.

$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{\text{R}_1 + R_2} \\ \xrightarrow{\text{R}_1 + R_3} \\ \xrightarrow{\text{R}_1 + R_4} \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -1 & 2a & 1 & b \\ 2 & (a-1) & 2a & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & (2a+1) & (a+1) & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 1-2a & -2 & -2b-2 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -1 & 2a & 1 & b \\ 0 & a & 0 & 0 & 1-b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & a & -b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -b-2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow -R_3 + R_4$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -1 & 2a & 1 & b \\ 0 & a & 0 & 0 & 1-b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & a & -b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1-a & -2 \end{array} \right]$$

If $a \neq 0$ this is in echelon form.

In this case if $a = -1$ the system has no solutions for any $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

if $a \neq -1$ a unique solution for any $b \in \mathbb{R}$

If $a = 0$ then the echelon form is

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & (1-b) \end{array} \right]$$

put $a=0$ and move R_2 to bottom.

In this case if $b \neq 1$ then system has no solutions

If $b = 1$ the system has infinitely many solutions.

Homogeneous Systems

A system of the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is a "homogeneous system"

$$\text{zero matrix } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Such a system has always $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ as a solution.

This is the "trivial solution".

If this is not the unique solution, this system has "infinitely many non-trivial solutions".

If this is not the unique solution, this system has infinitely many other solutions called "non-trivial solutions!"

ex:

$$\begin{aligned} x+y-z+t+u &= 0 \\ -x+2y+3z-t+2u &= 0 \\ 2x+y-z+2t-u &= 0 \\ x+6y+4z+t+4u &= 0 \\ 8y+7z+6u &= 0 \\ 3x+7y+3z+3t+3u &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

G.E. →

$$\begin{aligned} x+y-z+t+u &= 0 \\ -y+2z-3u &= 0 \\ 5z-6u &= 0 \\ x = -t+2u \\ y = -\frac{9}{5}u \\ z = \frac{6}{5}u \end{aligned}$$

The general solution is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -t+2u \\ -\frac{9}{5}u \\ \frac{6}{5}u \\ t \\ u \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + u \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -\frac{9}{5} \\ \frac{6}{5} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u, t \in \mathbb{R}$$

if we denote $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -\frac{9}{5} \\ \frac{6}{5} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{array}{l} t=1 \\ u=0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} t=0 \\ u=1 \end{array}$$

Any solution of the system is a "combination" of x_1 and x_2 . x_1 and x_2 are called the "fundamental solutions".

Invertible Matrices :

Definition: A matrix A is "invertible" if there is a matrix B such that $AB = I$ and $BA = I$.

(the identity matrix)

Note: Since both AB and BA are defined, an invertible matrix must be a square matrix!

Prop: let A be an invertible matrix.

There is a unique matrix B s.t $AB = BA = I$.

Pf: Suppose B_1 and B_2 are matrices s.t

$$AB_1 = B_1A = I \quad \text{and} \quad AB_2 = B_2A = I.$$

Then $B_1 = B_1 \cdot I = B_1 \cdot (AB_2) = (B_1 \cdot A) \cdot B_2 = I \cdot B_2 = B_2$

Thus $B_1 = B_2$ and of proof

Defn: let A be an invertible matrix. The unique matrix denoted by A^{-1} satisfying $A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = I$

Defn: Let A be a square matrix. A^{-1} satisfying $A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = I$ is the "inverse of A ".

ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ then $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

since $A \cdot A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $A^{-1} \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

ex: $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ claim: B has no inverse!

Suppose $B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix}$

$$B \cdot B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} x+z=1 \\ y+t=0 \end{array} \Rightarrow 1=0 \text{ not possible!}$$

$$x+z=0$$

$$y+t=1$$

This B is NOT invertible!

Note: Some matrices ~~are~~ invertible and some are not invertible!
Q) Why do we care about invertible matrices?

Question: 1) How can we determine if a matrix is invertible?
2) How can we compute the inverse of A .
(efficiently?)

Prop: If A_1 and A_2 are invertible $n \times n$ matrices
then $A_1 \cdot A_2$ is invertible with $(A_1 \cdot A_2)^{-1} = A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}$.

Proof: $(A_1 \cdot A_2) \cdot (A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}) = A_1 \underbrace{(A_2 \cdot A_2^{-1})}_{=I} \cdot A_1^{-1} = A_1 \cdot A_1^{-1} = I$
 $(A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}) \cdot (A_1 \cdot A_2) = A_2^{-1} \underbrace{(A_1^{-1} \cdot A_1)}_{=I} \cdot A_2 = A_2^{-1} \cdot A_2 = I$

so, $(A_1 \cdot A_2)^{-1} = A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}$ end of proof.

Corollary: If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r are invertible then
 $A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdots A_r$ is invertible with
 $(A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdots A_r)^{-1} = A_r^{-1} \cdot A_{r-1}^{-1} \cdots A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}$

$A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdots A_r$ is invertible with

$$(A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdots A_r)^{-1} = A_r^{-1} \cdot A_{r-1}^{-1} \cdots A_2^{-1} \cdot A_1^{-1}$$

Pf: Previous prop + induction.

(as exercise: Find two invertible matrices A_1, A_2 s.t. $(A_1 + A_2)$ is not invertible)

Prop: Every elementary matrix is invertible. Therefore by above corollary a product of elementary matrices is invertible.

Proof: let ε be an elementary row operation and let $\varepsilon(I)$ be the corresponding elementary matrix. Let ε' be the inverse of the elem. row op. ε .

Then, $\underbrace{\varepsilon(I)}_{\text{elem. matrix}} \cdot \underbrace{\varepsilon'(I)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{a previous} \\ \text{thm}}} = \varepsilon(\varepsilon'(I)) = I \Rightarrow (\varepsilon(I))^{-1} = \varepsilon'(I)$

similarly $\underbrace{\varepsilon'(I)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{elem.} \\ \text{matrix}}} \cdot \underbrace{\varepsilon(I)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{a previous} \\ \text{thm}}} = \varepsilon'(\varepsilon(I)) = I$ i.e. $\varepsilon(I)$ is invertible.

end of proof.

Theorem: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1) A is a product of elementary matrices
- 2) A is invertible
- 3) A is NOT row equivalent to a matrix with a zero row.
- 4) A is row equivalent to the identity matrix.

Proof: 1) \Rightarrow 2) This is the previous proposition.

2) \Rightarrow 3) Suppose A is invertible and suppose A is row equivalent to a matrix $B = \begin{bmatrix} R_1 & \rightarrow \\ R_2 & \rightarrow \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ R_n & \rightarrow \end{bmatrix}$ with $R_i = [0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]$.

Since A is r.e. to $B = P \cdot A$ for some matrix P , which is a product of elementary matrices. Since P and A are invertible, we have that B is invertible. ($\Rightarrow P$ is invertible)

But then we have $\underbrace{B \cdot B^{-1}}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{the } i\text{th row of} \\ \text{this matrix is}}} = I$

But then we have $\underbrace{B \cdot B = I}_{\text{the } i\text{-th row of this matrix is}} \rightarrow$ the i th row of this matrix is $[0 0 \dots 0 1 0 \dots 0]$
 the i -th row of this matrix is $[0 0 \dots 0]$ since the i th row of B is $[0 \dots 0]$

So this is a contradiction.

3) \Rightarrow 4) A is equivalent to a matrix R in reduced row echelon form.

Since A is not r.e. to a matrix with a zero row, R has no zero rows.

So, R is an $n \times n$ matrix in reduced row echelon form and does not have a zero row.

Thus, $R = I$. (Why?)

4) \Rightarrow 1) Suppose A is r.e. to I .

so, $A = PI$ where P is a product of elem. matrices.

Hence $A = P$ end of proof.

This theorem provides an algorithm to find A^{-1} or to tell a matrix A is not invertible.

Note: Suppose A is r.e. to B by elem. row operations say E_1, E_2, \dots, E_r .

i.e. $B = E_r \dots E_3 E_2 E_1(A)$

in other words if $P = (E_r E_r, \dots, E_3 E_2 E_1)(I)$

then $B = PA$. So, to find P we should apply the row operations which produce B out of A to I .

i.e. $([A | I] \xrightarrow{\text{row op.}} [B | P]) \Rightarrow B = PA$

Hence to find A^{-1} :

start with $[A | I] \rightarrow [R | P]$ \downarrow row reduced echelon matrix

start with $[A|I] \xrightarrow{\text{row ops}} [I|\tilde{A}^-]$ row reduced echelon matrix

Case 1: R has a zero row.

In this case (by Thm) A is not invertible.

Case 2: R has no zero rows. In this $R = I$.

$$\text{So, } [A|I] \xrightarrow{\text{row ops}} [I|P] \Rightarrow PA = I$$

Also $[P|I] \xrightarrow[\text{row ops in reverse order}]{} [I|A] \Rightarrow AP = I$

in other words $\tilde{A}^- = P$.

Summary: start with $[A|I]$ and apply elem. row ops
to get $[R|P]$

If R has a zero row then A is not invertible

If R has no zero rows then $\tilde{A}^- = P$

shortly: $[A|I] \longrightarrow [I|\tilde{A}^-]$

ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is A invertible? If yes, find \tilde{A}^- .

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\frac{1}{2}R_1 + R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow -2R_2 + R_1$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \xleftarrow[2R_2]{\frac{1}{2}R_1} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

(lets check: $A\tilde{A}^- = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\tilde{A}^-\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$)

ex: same question: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow[-R_1+R_3]{-2R_1+R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

so A is R.E to

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

So A is R.E to
a matrix with a zero
row, thus by thm
A is NOT invertible!

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad \text{↓ } R_2 + R_3$$

a matrix
with a zero row

ex: $A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{array} \right]$ some question.

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{-2R_1+R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & -15 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{-3R_1+R_3}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -24 & 20 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 18 & -15 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & -4 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\begin{matrix} 4R_3+R_2 \\ -5R_3+R_1 \end{matrix}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & -4 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad \text{↓ } -4R_2+R_3$$

$\mathbb{I} \quad A^{-1} \quad (\text{Check!})$

Corollary: Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

A and B are row equivalent $\iff B = PA$ for some
invertible matrix P .

Pf: (\Rightarrow) A and B are r.e

$\Rightarrow B = P \cdot A$ where P is a product
of elem. matrices.

We observed above that such a matrix P
is invertible.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $B = P \cdot A$ where P is invertible.

But we observed that an invertible is a product
of elementary matrices. So, A and B are r.e.
end of proof.

Theorem: A matrix is row equivalent
to a unique matrix in row reduced echelon form.

To a unique matrix in row reduced echelon form.

Pf: Skip! (Idea: Suppose A is r.e to R_1 in r.r.e.f
 $A \xrightarrow{\quad} R_2 \xrightarrow{\quad}$
so R_1 and R_2 are row equivalent.
This means there is an invertible matrix P
s.t. $R_1 = PR_2$. One can show $R_1 = R_2$)

Cor: Two $m \times n$ matrices are row equivalent

\Leftrightarrow They are row equiv. to the same
matrix in row reduced echelon
form.

Pf: (\Rightarrow) Suppose A is r.e to B .

A is r.e to R_1 in r.r.e.f

B is $\xrightarrow{\quad} R_2 \xrightarrow{\quad}$

So R_1 is r.e. R_2 thus $R_1 = R_2$ by Thm.

(\Leftarrow) Clear!
end of proof

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 5 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ $B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 & -5 \\ -1 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Are A and B row equivalent?

Idea: Reduce A to a matrix R_1 in r.r.e.f.

$\xrightarrow{\quad} B \xrightarrow{\quad} R_2 \xrightarrow{\quad}$

and check if $R_1 = R_2 \rightarrow$ Yes, A and B are r.e

\rightarrow No, A and B are NOT r.e.

in our example both A and B

are row equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
(heck this!)

so A and B are r.e.

in \Downarrow
r.r.e.f.

Invertibility and systems of linear equations

Definition: let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
" " " " " if there is $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $BA = I$

Definition: let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
A has a "left inverse" if there is $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $BA = I$
"right inverse" if there is $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $A \cdot C = I$

Theorem: let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. The following are equivalent:

- 1) A has a left inverse
- 2) The homogeneous system $AX=0$ has only the trivial solution $X=0$.
- 3) A is invertible
- 4) A has a right inverse.

Pf: 1) \Rightarrow 2): Suppose $B \cdot A = I$ for some B .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } AX=0 &\Rightarrow B(AX) = B \cdot 0 \\ &\Rightarrow (BA) \cdot X = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow IX = 0 \Rightarrow X = 0 \end{aligned}$$

so the only solution is $X=0$.

2) \Rightarrow 3): Suppose $AX=0$ has only trivial solution $X=0$

Let R be a matrix in r.r.e.f equivalent to A .

Then $RX=0$ is equiv. to $AX=0$,

hence $RX=0$ has only trivial solution.

If R has a zero row then the system $RX=0$ will have a free variable, thus a nonzero solution.

Hence the system $AX=0$ will have a nonzero solution.

So, R cannot have a zero row and hence $R=I$.

So, A is invertible by a previous result.

3) \Rightarrow 4): Clear!

4) \Rightarrow 1): Suppose $A \cdot B = I$ for some $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

So, B has a left inverse A .

By 1) \Rightarrow 2) \Rightarrow 3): B is invertible. So

$$A = A \cdot I = A \cdot (B \cdot B^{-1}) = (A \cdot B) \cdot B^{-1} = I \cdot B^{-1} = B^{-1}$$

So A is invertible and has a left inverse.

So A is invertible and has a left inverse.

end of proof

[Note: This tells us the following: $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
If $A \cdot B = I$ then $B \cdot A = I$ hence $B = A^{-1}$.]

Corollary: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then the following are equivalent

- 1) A is invertible
- 2) $Ax = B$ has a unique solution for any B .
- 3) $Ax = B$ has _____ for some B .

Pf: 1) \Rightarrow 2) Suppose A is invertible.

$$\text{Then } Ax = B \iff A^{-1}(Ax) = A^{-1}B \iff x = A^{-1}B$$

2) \Rightarrow 3) Clear!

3) \Rightarrow 1) Suppose there is B s.t. $Ax = B$ has a unique solution say x_1 .

Claim: $Ax = 0$ has only the trivial solution $x = 0$

(if not, there is $x_2 \neq 0$ s.t. $Ax_2 = 0$)

But then $A(x_1 + x_2) = Ax_1 + Ax_2 = B + 0 = B$,
hence $x_1 + x_2 \neq x_1$ is another solution to $Ax = B$,

This shows A is invertible

end of proof.