



Course Name: Linear Algebra (MT 104)

**Topic: Matrix Operation (Exercise 2.1) & The Inverse of
a Matrix (Exercise 2.2)**

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2.1 Matrix Operations

- Matrix Addition
 - Theorem: Properties of Matrix Sums and Scalar Multiples
 - Zero Matrix
- Matrix Multiplication
 - Definition: Linear Combinations of the Columns
 - Row-Column Rule for Computing AB (alternate method)
 - Theorem: Properties of Matrix Multiplication
 - Identify Matrix
- Matrix Power
- Matrix Transpose
 - Theorem: Properties of Matrix Transpose
 - Symmetric Matrix



Matrix Notation

Two ways to denote $m \times n$ matrix A :

- 1 In terms of the *columns* of A :

$$A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_n]$$

- 2 In terms of the *entries* of A :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1j} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \cdots & a_{ij} & \cdots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mj} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Main diagonal entries: _____

Theorem (Addition)

Let A , B , and C be matrices of the same size, and let r and s be scalars. Then

a. $A + B = B + A$

b. $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$

c. $A + 0 = A$

d. $r(A + B) = rA + rB$

e. $(r + s)A = rA + sA$

f. $r(sA) = (rs)A$

Zero Matrix

$$0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



Matrix Multiplication

Multiplying B and \mathbf{x} transforms \mathbf{x} into the vector $B\mathbf{x}$. In turn, if we multiply A and $B\mathbf{x}$, we transform $B\mathbf{x}$ into $A(B\mathbf{x})$. So $A(B\mathbf{x})$ is the composition of two mappings.

Define the product AB so that $A(B\mathbf{x}) = (AB)\mathbf{x}$.



Suppose A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$ where

$$B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_p] \text{ and } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$B\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + x_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + x_p\mathbf{b}_p$$

and

$$A(B\mathbf{x}) = A(x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + x_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + x_p\mathbf{b}_p)$$

$$= A(x_1\mathbf{b}_1) + A(x_2\mathbf{b}_2) + \cdots + A(x_p\mathbf{b}_p)$$

$$= x_1A\mathbf{b}_1 + x_2A\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + x_pA\mathbf{b}_p = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ A\mathbf{b}_p] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_p \end{bmatrix}.$$



Therefore,

$$A(B\mathbf{x}) = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ A\mathbf{b}_p] \mathbf{x}.$$

and by defining

$$AB = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ A\mathbf{b}_p]$$

we have $A(B\mathbf{x}) = (AB)\mathbf{x}$.

Note that $A\mathbf{b}_1$ is a linear combination of the columns of A , $A\mathbf{b}_2$ is a linear combination of the columns of A , etc.

Each column of AB is a linear combination of the columns of A using weights from the corresponding columns of B .

Example

Compute AB where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 6 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} Ab_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}, & Ab_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -24 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} & &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 26 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} \\ \implies AB &= \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ -24 & 26 \\ 6 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example

If A is 4×3 and B is 3×2 , then what are the sizes of AB and BA ?

Solution:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} * & * \\ * & * \\ * & * \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$BA \text{ would be } \begin{bmatrix} * & * \\ * & * \\ * & * \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

which is _____.

If A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$, then AB is $m \times p$.

The definition $AB = [Ab_1 \ Ab_2 \ \cdots \ Ab_p]$ is good for theoretical work. When A and B have small sizes, the following method is more efficient when working by hand.

Row-Column Rule for Computing AB

If AB is defined, let $(AB)_{ij}$ denote the entry in the i th row and j th column of AB . Then

$$(AB)_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj},$$

i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{in} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{1j} \\ b_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (AB)_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$. Compute AB , if it is defined.

Solution: Since A is 2×3 and B is 3×2 , then AB is defined and AB is 2×2 .

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 28 & \blacksquare \\ \blacksquare & \blacksquare \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 28 & -45 \\ \blacksquare & \blacksquare \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 28 & -45 \\ 2 & \blacksquare \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 28 & -45 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } AB = \begin{bmatrix} 28 & -45 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Theorem (Multiplication)

Let A be $m \times n$ and let B and C have sizes for which the indicated sums and products are defined.

- a. $A(BC) = (AB)C$ (associative law of multiplication)
- b. $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ (left - distributive law)
- c. $(B + C)A = BA + CA$ (right-distributive law)
- d. $r(AB) = (rA)B = A(rB)$
for any scalar r
- e. $I_m A = A = A I_n$ (identity for matrix multiplication)

WARNINGS

Properties above are analogous to properties of real numbers. But **NOT ALL** real number properties correspond to matrix properties.

- ❶ It is not the case that AB always equal BA .
(see Example 7, page 98)
- ❷ Even if $AB = AC$, then B may not equal C .
(see Exercise 10, page 100)
- ❸ It is possible for $AB = 0$ even if $A \neq 0$ and $B \neq 0$.
(see Exercise 12, page 100)

Powers of A

$$A^k = \underbrace{A \cdots A}_k$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 21 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Transpose of A

If A is $m \times n$, the **transpose** of A is the $n \times m$ matrix, denoted by A^T , whose columns are formed from the corresponding rows of A .

Example

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



Example

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

Compute AB , $(AB)^T$, $A^T B^T$ and $B^T A^T$.

Solution:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)^T = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$



$$A^T B^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 & 10 \\ 2 & 0 & -4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Theorem (Matrix Transpose)

Let A and B denote matrices whose sizes are appropriate for the following sums and products.

- a. $(A^T)^T = A$ (i.e., the transpose of A^T is A)
- b. $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- c. For any scalar r , $(rA)^T = rA^T$
- d. $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ (i.e. the transpose of a product of matrices equals the product of their transposes in reverse order.)

Example

Prove that $(ABC)^T = \text{-----}$.

Solution: By Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}(ABC)^T &= ((AB)C)^T = C^T (\quad)^T \\ &= C^T (\quad) = \text{-----}.\end{aligned}$$



2.2 The Inverse of a Matrix

- The Inverse of a Matrix: Definition
- The Inverse of a Matrix: Facts
- The Inverse of a 2-by-2 Matrix
- The Inverse of a Matrix: Solution of Linear System
- The Inverse of a Matrix: Theorem
- Elementary Matrix
- Multiplication by Elementary Matrices
- The Inverse of Elementary Matrix
 - Examples
 - Theorem



The inverse of a real number a is denoted by a^{-1} . For example, $7^{-1} = 1/7$ and

$$7 \cdot 7^{-1} = 7^{-1} \cdot 7 = 1.$$

The Inverse of a Matrix

An $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be **invertible** if there is an $n \times n$ matrix C satisfying

$$CA = AC = I_n$$

where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. We call C the **inverse** of A .

Fact

If A is invertible, then the inverse is unique.

Proof: Assume B and C are both inverses of A . Then

$$B = BI = B(\text{-----}) = (\text{-----}) \text{-----} = I \text{-----} = C.$$

So the inverse is unique since any two inverses coincide. ■

Notation

The inverse of A is usually denoted by A^{-1} .

We have

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$$

Not all $n \times n$ matrices are invertible. A matrix which is *not* invertible is sometimes called a **singular** matrix. An invertible matrix is called **nonsingular** matrix.

Theorem

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. If $ad - bc \neq 0$, then A is invertible and

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

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

Theorem

If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then for each \mathbf{b} in \mathbf{R}^n , the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

Proof: Assume A is any invertible matrix and we wish to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. Then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{and so} \\ \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} \quad \text{or } \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}.$$

Suppose \mathbf{w} is also a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. Then $A\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{b}$ and

$$A\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{which means} \quad \mathbf{w} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}.$$

So, $\mathbf{w} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$, which is in fact the same solution.

Example

Use the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 3 \\ 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ to solve

$$\begin{aligned} -7x_1 + 3x_2 &= 2 \\ 5x_1 - 2x_2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Solution: Matrix form of the linear system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -7 & 3 \\ 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{14-15} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -3 \\ -5 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem

Suppose A and B are invertible. Then the following results hold:

- a. A^{-1} is invertible and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$
(i.e. A is the inverse of A^{-1}).
- b. AB is invertible and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- c. A^T is invertible and $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

Partial proof of part b:

$$\begin{aligned}(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) &= A(\text{-----})A^{-1} \\ &= A(\text{-----})A^{-1} = \text{-----} = \text{-----}.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, one can show that $(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = I$.

Part b of Theorem can be generalized to three or more invertible matrices: $(ABC)^{-1} = \text{-----}$

Earlier, we saw a formula for finding the inverse of a 2×2 invertible matrix. How do we find the inverse of an invertible $n \times n$ matrix? To answer this question, we first look at **elementary** matrices.

Elementary Matrices

An **elementary matrix** is one that is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on an identity matrix.

Example

$$\text{Let } E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}.$$

E_1 , E_2 , and E_3 are elementary matrices. Why?

Observe the following products and describe how these products can be obtained by elementary row operations on A .

$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ 2d & 2e & 2f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_2 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ g & h & i \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_3 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 3a+g & 3b+h & 3c+i \end{bmatrix}$$

If an elementary row operation is performed on an $m \times n$ matrix A , the resulting matrix can be written as EA , where the $m \times m$ matrix E is created by performing the same row operations on I_m .

Elementary matrices are *invertible* because row operations are *reversible*. To determine the inverse of an elementary matrix E , determine the elementary row operation needed to transform E back into I and apply this operation to I to find the inverse.

Example

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

Example

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{3}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Then}$$

$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{3}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

Example (cont.)

So

$$E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I_3.$$

Then multiplying on the right by A^{-1} , we get

$$E_3 E_2 E_1 A \text{-----} = I_3 \text{-----}.$$

So

$$E_3 E_2 E_1 I_3 = A^{-1}$$

The elementary row operations that row reduce A to I_n are the same elementary row operations that transform I_n into A^{-1} .

Theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if and only if A is row equivalent to I_n , and in this case, any sequence of elementary row operations that reduces A to I_n will also transform I_n to A^{-1} .

Algorithm for Finding A^{-1}

Place A and I side-by-side to form an augmented matrix $[A \ I]$. Then perform row operations on this matrix (which will produce identical operations on A and I). So by Theorem:

$$[A \ I] \text{ will row reduce to } [I \ A^{-1}]$$

or A is not invertible.

Example

Find the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, if it exists.

Solution:

$$[A \ I] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \dots \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Order of multiplication is important!

Example

Suppose A, B, C , and D are invertible $n \times n$ matrices and $A = B(D - I_n)C$.

Solve for D in terms of A, B, C and D .

Solution:

$$A = B(D - I_n)C$$

$$D - I_n = B^{-1}AC^{-1}$$

$$D - I_n + I_n = B^{-1}AC^{-1} + I_n$$

$$D = B^{-1}AC^{-1} + I_n$$



2.3 Characterizations of Invertible Matrices

- The Invertible Matrix Theorem
- The Invertible Matrix Theorem: Examples



The Invertible Matrix Theorem

Let A be a square $n \times n$ matrix. The the following statements are equivalent (i.e., for a given A , they are either all true or all false).

- a. A is an invertible matrix.
- b. A is row equivalent to I_n .
- c. A has n pivot positions.
- d. The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.
- e. The columns of A form a linearly independent set.
- f. The linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow A\mathbf{x}$ is one-to-one.

The Invertible Matrix Theorem (cont.)

- g. The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each \mathbf{b} in \mathbf{R}^n .
- h. The columns of A span \mathbf{R}^n .
- i. The linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow A\mathbf{x}$ maps \mathbf{R}^n onto \mathbf{R}^n .
- j. There is an $n \times n$ matrix C such that $CA = I_n$.
- k. There is an $n \times n$ matrix D such that $AD = I_n$.
- l. A^T is an invertible matrix.

Example

Use the Invertible Matrix Theorem to determine if A is invertible, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ -4 & 11 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ -4 & 11 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \dots \sim \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 16 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{3 pivots positions}}$$

Circle correct conclusion: Matrix A is / is not invertible.



Example

Suppose H is a 5×5 matrix and suppose there is a vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbf{R}^5 which is not a linear combination of the columns of H . What can you say about the number of solutions to $H\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$?

Solution: Since \mathbf{v} in \mathbf{R}^5 is not a linear combination of the columns of H , the columns of H do not span \mathbf{R}^5 .

So by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, $H\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has

infinitely many solutions.

1

For an invertible matrix A ,

$$A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^n$$

and

$$AA^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^n.$$