

Inverse

1. Inverse Matrices

A matrix A is invertible if we can find the A^{-1} such that

$$A \cdot A^{-1} = I \text{ and } A^{-1} \cdot A = I$$

and I is the Identity Matrix.

Pivot

A pivot is the first non-zero element in a row of a matrix that has been transformed into row echelon or reduced row echelon form.

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

The invertible matrices

- We can find the inverse of matrix if and only if elimination produces n pivots
- matrix A cannot have two different inverse \rightarrow If $BA = I$ and $CA = I$, then $B = C$
- If A invertible then $Ax = b$ solving by $x = A^{-1}b$
- Suppose there is a nonzero vector x (x, y, z, \dots have the answer) such that $Ax = 0 \rightarrow A$ not invertible. Because no matrix bring the zero back.
- If the above A is invertible, then $Ax = 0$ then $x = 0$ so there have no solution for solving.

Formula to find the inverse of 2×2 matrix is:

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

Note:

- The $ad - bc$ is $\det A$.
- Its invertible if and only if $ad - bc$ is not zero.
- If $A = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & d_n \end{bmatrix}$ then $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{d_1} & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & \frac{1}{d_n} \end{bmatrix}$

2. The Inverse of a Product

If A and B are invertible matrices, their product AB is also invertible. The inverse is given by:

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

Example:

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. The inverse of AB requires first computing the B^{-1} and A^{-1} , after that multiplying $B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}$

As you can see the order must be reverse.

Ex1:

Inverse of an elimination matrix If an Elimination Matrix E subtracts 5 times row 2, then E^{-1} adds 5 times row 1 from row 2.

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, E^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So the exchange symbol from plus and minus only work with if the matrix is there **have 1 on the diagonal of Upper and Lower triangular matrix** otherwise use another method.

3. Calculating A^{-1} Using Gauss-Jordan Elimination

Steps:

1. Combine A with I to form an augmented matrix $[A \mid I]$.
2. Apply row operations to transform A into I. The operations on I result in A^{-1}

Multiply $[A \mid I]$ by A^{-1} to get $[I \mid A^{-1}]$

In short is making the A to I.

Example

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

Make an augmented matrix by combining matrix A with identity matrix.

We will get

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Make the left side turn into the identity matrix using elimination technique then you will get the inverse of matrix A or A^{-1} on the right side of the line.

Symmetric Matrices

A matrix A is symmetric if it equals its transpose (change rows to columns and columns to rows):

$$A = A^T$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here, $A^T = A$, so A is symmetric.

Tridiagonal Matrices

A tridiagonal matrix is a square matrix where nonzero entries. In short is have 3 diagonal line in the matrix.

Example:

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

This tridiagonal matrix is also symmetric.

Product of Pivots

The product of pivots is the determinant of the matrix in triangular form (upper or lower triangular matrix).

- During Gaussian Elimination, the diagonal entries of the resulting triangular matrix are the pivots.
- The det of the matrix is the product of these pivots.

Properties:

- If any pivot is zero, the det is zero, and the matrix is singular (non-invertible).

Example:

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

Gaussian elimination produces $U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Pivots: 2, 1

$\text{Det}(A) = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$

Combined Example: Symmetric, Tridiagonal Matrix and Pivots

Let K be a symmetric, tridiagonal matrix:

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

- $K = K^T$
- Tridiagonal because it no zero in the diagonal zone.
- Pivots

Eliminate below the main diagonal:

- Subtract $-\frac{1}{2}$ of row 1 from row 2.
- Subtract $-\frac{1}{2}$ of row 2 from row 3.

Pivots: 2, $\frac{3}{2}$, $\frac{4}{3}$

Determinant: $2 \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{3} = 4$

Example:

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, solve $[A \mid I]$:

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

Perform elimination to get $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$

4. Elimination and Factorization (A=LU)

Factorize A into:

- L - Lower triangular matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 0 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$
- U - Upper triangular matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

Process:

- Forward elimination transform A to U by multiplies by a matrix E_{ij} to produce zero in the (i, j) position.

- Backward substitution involves L to revert to the original system.

If A is 3 x 3, we multiply by E_{21}, E_{31}, E_{32} it will produce 0 in the position (2, 1), (3, 1), (3, 2) positions to get the upper triangular U.

Tricks:

We can move to another side to make a new equation.

$$(E_{32}, E_{31}, E_{21})A = U \rightarrow A = (E_{21}^{-1}E_{31}^{-1}E_{32}^{-1})U$$

After we inverse to opposite side and order we will get the product of 3 inverses is L by the formula.

$$A = LU$$

l_{ij}

l_{ij} is the multiplier value used to eliminate the element in the i-th row and j-th column of a matrix during the elimination process. It is calculated as:

$$l_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}}{a_{jj}}$$

Where:

- a_{ij} - The element being eliminated.
- a_{jj} - The pivot element (on the diagonal)

Example:

Consider the matrix A:

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

Steps:

1. Eliminate the first column below the pivot ($a_{11} = 2$)

For row 2 (i=2):

$$l_{21} = \frac{-3}{2}$$

Update row 2:

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - l_{21}R_1 = [-3 \quad -1 \quad 2] - \frac{-3}{2}[2 \quad 1 \quad -1]$$

Update row 3:

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - l_{31}R_1$$

Then the E_{21} :

$$E_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{-3}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Resulting Matrix:

After eliminating the first column, the matrix becomes:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The multipliers $l_{21} = -1.5$ and $l_{31} = -1$ were used to perform these operations.

Connection to L in LU Decomposition

In **LU decomposition**, the lower triangular matrix L contains the multipliers l_{ij} . For the above example, L would be:

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1.5 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $l_{21} = -1.5$ Multiplier used to eliminate the first element in row 2.
- $l_{31} = -1.5$ Multiplier used to eliminate the first element in row 3.

Properties of Multipliers

1. We store multiplier inside the L below the diagonal.
2. The diagonal of L (Lower triangular) always contain 1s.
3. Multiplier don't change when applying Gaussian elimination without row exchanges.

Example:

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

1. Eliminate 6 using row operations.
2. Result in $L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$
So $A = LU$

5. Singular v. Invertible Matrices

A matrix is invertible (nonsingular) if:

- All rows/columns are independent (no zero rows/columns or called $\det(A) \neq 0$)
- The matrix has a full rank.
- The determinant of the matrix is 0: $\det(A) \neq 0$
- The rows and columns are linearly independent.

Ex:

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

- The rows [1, 2] and [3, 4] are linearly independent.
- $\det(A) = 1 \cdot 4 - 2 \cdot 3 = -2 \neq 0$, so A is invertible.

A matrix is Singular (does not have an inverse) if:

- The determinant of the matrix is 0: $\det(A) = 0$
- The rows or columns of the matrix are linearly dependent (some rows or columns can be expressed as linear combinations of others).
- The matrix does not have a full rank (more on this below).

Ex:

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

- The second row $([2, 4])$ is a multiple of the first row $([1, 2])$
- $\det(A) = 1 \cdot 4 - 2 \cdot 2 = 0$, so A is singular.

6. Cost of Elimination

- Computational Time:
For $n * n$ matrices, the cost of Gaussian elimination is proportional to n^3
- Efficiency:
Sparse matrices (with many zero entries) reduce computational cost significantly.