

# MA 110: Lecture 04

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Spring 2025

**Recall:** A square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is said to be **invertible** if there is  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{BA},$$

and in this case,  $\mathbf{B}$  is called an **inverse** of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

We have seen examples of square matrices that are invertible and also those that are not invertible. Further we noted that:

- If a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is invertible, then it has a unique inverse, and it is denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- If a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is invertible, then so is its transpose  $\mathbf{A}^T$  and in this case,

$$(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T.$$

We now relate the invertibility of a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  to the solutions of the homogeneous system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$ .

### Proposition

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible if and only if the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has **only** the zero solution.

Proof. Suppose  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible. Then by definition, there is  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  satisfies  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{BAx} = \mathbf{B(Ax)} = \mathbf{B0} = \mathbf{0}$ . Thus the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution.

Conversely, suppose the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution. Let  $\mathbf{y} = [y_1 \ \cdots \ y_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ . We transform the augmented matrix  $[\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{y}]$  to a matrix  $[\mathbf{A}'|\mathbf{y}']$ , where  $\mathbf{A}'$  is in REF. By our previous result,  $\mathbf{A}'$  has  $n$  nonzero rows, and so back substitution gives a unique  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ \cdots \ x_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}'$ . Hence  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$ .

Further, the process of the back substitution shows that the entries  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  of  $\mathbf{x}$  are given as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &= c'_{nn}y'_n \\ x_{n-1} &= c'_{(n-1)(n-1)}y'_{n-1} + c'_{(n-1)n}y'_n \\ &\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \\ x_2 &= c'_{22}y'_2 + \cdots + \cdots + \cdots + c'_{2n}y'_n \\ x_1 &= c'_{11}y'_1 + c'_{12}y'_2 + \cdots + \cdots + \cdots + c'_{1n}y'_n, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{y}' = [y'_1 \ \cdots \ y'_n]^\top$  and  $c'_{jk} \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $j, k = 1, \dots, n$ .

Also, since  $\mathbf{y}'$  is obtained from  $\mathbf{y}$  by performing EROs (which are of the type  $R_i \longleftrightarrow R_j$ ,  $R_i + \alpha R_j$  and  $\alpha R_j$ ) on  $[\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{y}]$ , we see that each  $y'_1, \dots, y'_n$  is a linear combination of the entries  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  of  $\mathbf{y}$ . As a result, each  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is a linear combination of  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ .

Thus there is  $c_{jk} \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $j, k = 1, \dots, n$  (not depending on  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ ) such that

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= c_{11}y_1 + c_{12}y_2 + \cdots + c_{1n}y_n \\x_2 &= c_{21}y_1 + c_{22}y_2 + \cdots + c_{2n}y_n \\&\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \\x_n &= c_{n1}y_1 + c_{n2}y_2 + \cdots + c_{nn}y_n.\end{aligned}$$

Define  $\mathbf{C} := [c_{jk}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{y}$ , and so  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ . Letting  $\mathbf{y} := \mathbf{e}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ , we see that  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C})\mathbf{e}_k = \mathbf{e}_k$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . Hence  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}$ . We still need to show that  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ . For this, consider the linear system  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Note that  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ . Thus the linear system  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution.

Hence by what we have proved above, there is  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{I}$ . Now,  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{I}\mathbf{D} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C})\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{D}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}$ , and so  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible. □

## Corollary

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . If there is  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that either  $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$  or  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I}$ , then  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}$ .

Proof. Let  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be such that  $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  satisfies  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{BAx} = \mathbf{B(Ax)} = \mathbf{B0} = \mathbf{0}$ . Thus the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution. By the previous proposition,  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible. Then there is  $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{AC} = \mathbf{I}$ , and  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$ . Hence  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}$ .

Next, let  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be such that  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I}$ . Then  $\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{I}^T = \mathbf{I}$ . By what we have just proved,  $\mathbf{A}^T$  is invertible, and  $(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^T$ . Hence  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{A}^T)^T$  is invertible, and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{B}^T)^T = \mathbf{B}$ . □

**Note:** The above result is a definite improvement over requiring the existence of a matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  satisfying both  $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$  and  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I}$  for the invertibility of a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## Proposition

Let **A** and **B** be square matrices. Then **AB** is invertible if and only if **A** and **B** are invertible, and then  $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .

Proof. Let **A** and **B** be invertible. Using the associativity of matrix multiplication, we easily see that

$$(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1})(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}.$$

Hence **AB** is invertible and  $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  by the previous corollary.

Conversely, let **AB** be invertible. Then there is **C** such that  $(\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{AB})$ . Since  $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}$ , we see that **A** is invertible, and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{BC}$ . Also, since  $(\mathbf{CA})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{I}$ , we see that **B** is invertible and  $\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{CA}$ , again by the previous corollary. □

## Proposition

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

(i) If there is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $B$  such that  $BA = I_{m \times m}$  then  $n \leq m$ .

(ii) If there is an  $n \times m$  matrix  $C$  such that  $AC = I_{n \times n}$  then  $m \leq n$ .

(iii) If there are matrices  $B$  and  $C$  such that  $BA = I$ ,  $AC = I$  then  $m = n$  and  $B = C$ .

Proof. Indeed, if  $BA = I$  and if  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  is a vector such that  $Ax = 0$  then  $x = Ix = BAx = 0$ . On the other hand if  $n > m$  then there is at least one nonzero solution to  $Ax = 0$ . This proves (i). For (ii), note that  $AC = I$  implies  $I = C^T A^T$ , so by (i), as  $A^T$  is of order  $n \times m$ ,  $m \leq n$ . For (iii), if  $BA = I = AC$  then by (i) and (ii) we know  $n = m$ . Again,  $B = BI = B(AC) = (BA)C = IC = C$ . □



# Row Canonical Form (RCF)

As we have seen, a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  may not have a unique REF. However, a special REF of  $\mathbf{A}$  turns out to be unique.

An  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is said to be in a **row canonical form** (RCF) or a **reduced row echelon form** (RREF) if

- (i) it is in a row echelon form (REF),
- (ii) all pivots are equal to 1 and
- (iii) in each pivotal column, all entries above the pivot are (also) equal to 0.

For example, the matrix

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

is in a RCF, where  $*$  denotes any real number.

**Note:** If  $\mathbf{A}$  is in REF, then in each pivotal column, all entries below the pivot are 0. If  $\mathbf{A}$  is in fact in RCF and has  $r$  nonzero rows, then the  $r \times r$  submatrix formed by the first  $r$  rows and the  $r$  pivotal columns is the  $r \times r$  identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ .

Suppose an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is in RCF and has  $r$  nonzero rows. If  $r = n$ , then it has  $n$  pivotal columns, that is, all its columns

are pivotal, and so  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$  if  $m = n$ , and  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{O} \end{bmatrix}$  if  $m > n$ ,

where  $\mathbf{I}$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix and  $\mathbf{O}$  is the  $(m - n) \times n$  zero matrix.

To transform an  $m \times n$  matrix to a RCF, we first transform it to a REF by elementary row operations of type I and II. Then we multiply a row containing a pivot  $p$  by  $1/p$  (which is an elementary row operation of type III), and then we add a suitable nonzero multiple of this row to each preceding row.

Every matrix has a unique RCF. (Proof by induction on  $n$ )

## Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & -5 & -2 & 4 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 10 & 0 & 15 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{EROs}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -2 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is in REF,

$$\xrightarrow{\text{EROs}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{EROs}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is in RCF.

Recall: A square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible if and only if the homogeneous linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution.

### Proposition

An  $n \times n$  matrix is invertible if and only if it can be transformed to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix by EROs.

Proof. Suppose  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is invertible. Using EROs, transform  $\mathbf{A}$  to a matrix  $\mathbf{A}' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}'$  is in a RCF. Since  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution. Hence  $\mathbf{A}'$  has  $n$  nonzero rows, and so each of the  $n$  columns of  $\mathbf{A}'$  is pivotal. Also, the number of rows of  $\mathbf{A}$  is equal to the number of its columns, that is,  $m = n$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{I}$ .

Conversely, suppose  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be transformed to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$  by EROs. Since  $\mathbf{Ix} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  for  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ , we see that the linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the zero solution. Hence  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible. □