

The inverse of a matrix

- Definition An $n \times n$ matrix A is **invertible** if there is a matrix B such that

$$AB = BA = I$$

 In that case, B is the **inverse** of A and we write $A^{-1} = B$

Example)

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

Note • The inverse of a matrix is **unique**.

→ Suppose that B and C are both inverses of A

$$\rightarrow C = CI = \underbrace{CAB}_{I=AB} = IB = B$$

• Why we do not write $\frac{A}{B}$?
 $\Rightarrow AB^{-1} \neq B^{-1}A$

• If $AB = I$, then $BA = I$?
 \Rightarrow Yes.

p) First, we will borrow some concepts such as basis (linearly independent vectors)

i) Let $\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n\}$ be bases of the space. We first show that $\{B\vec{x}_1, B\vec{x}_2, \dots, B\vec{x}_n\}$ is also a basis.

Suppose $\{B\vec{x}_1, \dots, B\vec{x}_n\}$ is not a basis. Then, there exist $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$ not all equal to zero such that

$$c_1 B\vec{x}_1 + c_2 B\vec{x}_2 + \dots + c_n B\vec{x}_n = 0 \quad — (*)$$

Pre-multiplying (*) with A , we get

$$c_1 \underbrace{AB\vec{x}_1}_{=I} + c_2 AB\vec{x}_2 + \dots + c_n AB\vec{x}_n = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow c_1 \vec{x}_1 + c_2 \vec{x}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{x}_n = 0$$

This is contradiction with $\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n\}$ being a basis.

* Hence, $\{B\vec{x}_1, \dots, B\vec{x}_n\}$ is a basis, and every vector \vec{y} can be represented as a linear combination of those vectors.

$$\Rightarrow \forall \vec{y}, \exists \vec{x} \text{ s.t. } B\vec{x} = \vec{y} \quad — (**)$$

ii) Now, to prove $BA = I$, it is identical to show that,

$$\forall \vec{y}, BA\vec{y} = \vec{y} \quad — (***)$$

Then, substituting $(**)$ to the LHS of $(***)$ we get

$$\forall \vec{y}, BA\vec{y} = BAB\vec{x} = B(AB)\vec{x} = B\vec{x} = \vec{y}$$
, which completes the proof.

② Solving systems using matrix inverse.

Theorem) Let A be invertible, then the system $A\vec{x} = \vec{B}$ has the unique solution

$$\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{B} \\ \rightarrow A\vec{x} = \vec{B} \rightarrow A^{-1}A\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{B} \rightarrow \vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{B}$$

Example) Solve $\begin{cases} -7x_1 + 3x_2 = 2 \\ 5x_1 - 2x_2 = 1 \end{cases}$ using matrix inversion.

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 3 \\ 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Recipe for computing the inverse

- To solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{B}$, we do row reduction on $[A | \vec{B}]$
- To solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{I}$, we do row reduction on $[A | \vec{I}]$

• To compute A^{-1}

- Form the augmented matrix $[A | \vec{I}]$
- Compute the reduced echelon form (aka Gauss-Jordan elimination)
- If A is invertible, the result is of the form $[\vec{I} | A^{-1}]$

$$[A | \vec{I}] \xrightarrow{\text{G.J.}} [\vec{I} | A^{-1}]$$

• Example) Find the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R2 \leftrightarrow R3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R3 \leftarrow R3 + \frac{3}{2}R1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{R1 \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}R1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \quad \text{Hence } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem) Suppose A and B are invertible,

- A^T is invertible, $(A^T)^{-1} = A$
- A^T is invertible, $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- $\Rightarrow (A^T)^T A^T = (A A^T)^T = I^T = I$

- (AB) is invertible, $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- $\Rightarrow (B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}(\underline{A^{-1}A})B = B^{-1}B = I$

Theorem) Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, then the following statements are equivalent.

- (a) A is invertible
- (b) A is row equivalent to I
- (c) A has n pivots.
- (d) $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution
- (e) $\exists B$ s.t. $AB = I$
- (f) $\exists C$ s.t. $CA = I$

• Matrices that are not invertible are often called singular.

• Vector spaces and subspaces

• Definition) A vector space is a nonempty set V of vectors, which may be added and scaled.

• Axioms ($u, v, w \in V, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$)

- (a) $u+v \in V$
- (b) $v+u = u+v$ (commutativity)
- (c) $(u+v)+w = u+(v+w)$ (associativity)
- (d) $\exists 0 \in V$, s.t. $u+0 = u$
- (e) $\exists -u \in V$, s.t. $u+(-u) = 0$
- (f) $cu \in V$
- (g) $c(u+v) = cu+cv$ (distributivity)
- (h) $(c+d)u = cu+du$
- (i) $(cd)u = c \cdot (du)$
- (j) $1u = u$

Example) $M_{2 \times 2} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ is vector space?

\Rightarrow i) zero vector : $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

ii) addition $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} a+e & b+f \\ c+g & d+h \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}$

iii) scaling $r \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} ra & rb \\ rc & rd \end{bmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}$

Example) Let \mathbb{P}_n be the set of all polynomials of degree at most $n \geq 0$.
Is \mathbb{P}_n a vector space?

\rightarrow Members of \mathbb{P}_n are of the form

$p(t) = a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n$
where $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and t is a variable.

Then, we can define the addition and scaling as follows:

i) addition : $[a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n] + [b_0 + b_1t + \dots + b_nt^n]$
 $\triangleq (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)t + \dots + (a_n + b_n)t^n \in \mathbb{P}_n$

ii) scaling $r(a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n) \triangleq (ra_0) + (ra_1)t + \dots + (ra_n)t^n \in \mathbb{P}_n$

Note that

$$(a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n) \xleftarrow{\text{isomorphic}} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$

Example) Let \mathbb{K} be the set of all polynomials of degree exactly 3.
Is \mathbb{K} a vector space?

\Rightarrow No. \because reason 1: \mathbb{K} does not contain the zero polynomial,
i.e., $0+0t+\dots+0t^3 \notin \mathbb{K}$

reason 2: \mathbb{K} is not closed under addition.

$$(3t^3 + t) \in \mathbb{K}$$

$$(-3t^3 + 3t+5) \in \mathbb{K}$$

$$\hookrightarrow (3t^3 + t) + (-3t^3 + 3t+5) = 4t+5 \notin \mathbb{K}$$