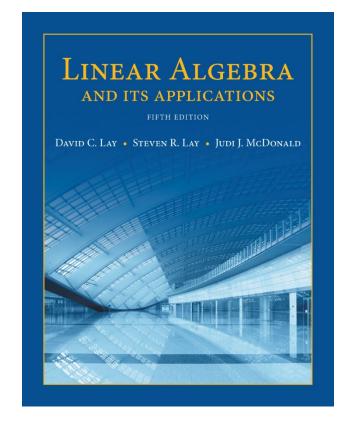
Matrix Algebra

2.2

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 such that

$$CA = I$$
 and $AC = I$

where $I = I_n$, the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

- In this case, C is an **inverse** of A.
- In fact, C is uniquely determined by A, because if B were another inverse of A, then

$$B = BI = B(AC) = (BA)C = IC = C$$

• This unique inverse is denoted by A^{-1} , so that

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

• Theorem 4: 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.

- The quantity ad bc is called the **determinant** of A, and we write $\det A = ad - bc$
- This theorem says that a 2×2 matrix A is invertible if and only if det $A \neq 0$

- Theorem 5: If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then for each **b** in \mathbb{R}^n , the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.
- **Proof:** Take any **b** in \mathbb{R}^n .
- A solution exists because if $A^{-1}b$ is substituted for x, then $Ax = A(A^{-1}b) = (AA^{-1})b = Ib = b$.
- So $A^{-1}b$ is a solution.
- To prove that the solution is unique, show that if \mathbf{u} is any solution, then \mathbf{u} must be $A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.
- If Au = b, we can multiply both sides by A^{-1} and obtain $A^{-1}Au = A^{-1}b$, $Iu = A^{-1}b$, and $u = A^{-1}b$.

Theorem 6:

a. If A is an invertible matrix, then A^{-1} is invertible and

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

b. If A and B are $n \times n$ invertible matrices, then so is AB, and the inverse of AB is the product of the inverses of A and B in the reverse order. That is,

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

c. If A is an invertible matrix, then so is A^T , and the inverse of A^T is the transpose of A^{-1} . That is,

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

• **Proof:** To verify statement (a), find a matrix C such that

$$A^{-1}C = I$$
 and $CA^{-1} = I$

- These equations are satisfied with A in place of C. Hence A^{-1} is invertible, and A is its inverse.
- Next, to prove statement (b), compute:

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

- A similar calculation shows that $(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = I$
- For statement (c), use Theorem 3(d), read from right to left, $(A^{-1})^T A^T = (AA^{-1})^T = I^T = I$.
- Similarly, $A^{T}(A^{-1})^{T} = I^{T} = I$

- Hence A^T is invertible, and its inverse is $(A^{-1})T$.
- The generalization of Theorem 6(b) is as follows: The product of $n \times n$ invertible matrices is invertible, and the inverse is the product of their inverses in the reverse order.
- An invertible matrix A is row equivalent to an identity matrix, and we can find by watching the row reduction of A to I.
- An **elementary matrix** is one that is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on an identity matrix.

• Example 5: Let
$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$

$$E_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute E_1A , E_2A , and E_3A , and describe how these products can be obtained by elementary row operations on A.

• **Solution:** Verify that
$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g - 4a & h - 4b & i - 4c \end{bmatrix}, E_2 A = \begin{bmatrix} d & e & f \\ a & b & c \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix},$$

$$E_{3}A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 5g & 5h & 5i \end{bmatrix}$$

• Addition of $_4$ times row 1 of A to row 3 produces E_1A .

- An interchange of rows 1 and 2 of A produces E_2A , and multiplication of row 3 of A by 5 produces E_3A .
- Left-multiplication (that is, multiplication on the left) by E_1 in Example 1 has the same effect on any $3 \times n$ matrix.

• Since $E_1 \cdot I = E_1$, we see that E_1 itself is produced by this same row operation on the identity.

- Example 5 illustrates the following general fact about elementary matrices.
- 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 operation on I_m .
- Each elementary matrix *E* is invertible. The inverse of *E* is the elementary matrix of the same type that transforms *E* back into *I*.

- Theorem 7: 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 also transforms I_n into A^{-1} .
- **Proof:** Suppose that *A* is invertible.
- Then, since the equation Ax = b has a solution for each **b** (Theorem 5), A has a pivot position in every row.
- Because A is square, the n pivot positions must be on the diagonal, which implies that the reduced echelon form of A is I_n . That is, $A \sim I_n$.

- Now suppose, conversely, that $A \sim I_n$.
- Then, since each step of the row reduction of A corresponds to left-multiplication by an elementary matrix, there exist elementary matrices $E_1, ..., E_p$ such that $A \sim E_1 A \sim E_2(E_1 A) \sim ... \sim E_p(E_{p-1} ... E_1 A) = I_n$
- That is,

$$E_p...E_1 A = I_n \tag{1}$$

• Since the product $E_p...E_1$ of invertible matrices is invertible, (1) leads to

$$(E_p...E_1)^{-1}(E_p...E_1)A = (E_p...E_1)^{-1}I_n$$

$$A = (E_p ... E_1)^{-1}$$

• Thus A is invertible, as it is the inverse of an invertible matrix (Theorem 6). Also,

$$A^{-1} = \left[(E_p ... E_1)^{-1} \right]^{-1} = E_p ... E_1$$

- Then $A^{-1} = E_p ... E_1 \cdot I_n$, which says that A^{-1} results from applying $E_1, ..., E_p$ successively to I_n .
- This is the same sequence in (1) that reduced A to I_n .
- Row reduce the augmented matrix $\begin{bmatrix} A & I \end{bmatrix}$. If A is row equivalent to I, then $\begin{bmatrix} A & I \end{bmatrix}$ is row equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} I & A^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$. Otherwise, A does not have an inverse.

• Example 2: Find the inverse of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ if it exists.}$$

Solution:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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• Theorem 7 shows, since $A \sim I$, that A is invertible, and

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, check the final answer.

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -9/2 & 7 & -3/2 \\ -2 & 4 & -1 \\ 3/2 & -2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

ANOTHER VIEW OF MATRIX INVERSION

• It is not necessary to check that $A^{-1}A = I$ since A is invertible.

- Denote the columns of I_n by $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$.
- Then row reduction of $\begin{bmatrix} A & I \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} I & A^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$ can be viewed as the simultaneous solution of the n systems

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_1 \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_2 \quad A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_n \quad (2)$$

where the "augmented columns" of these systems have all been placed next to A to form

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & \mathbf{e}_1 & \mathbf{e}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{e}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & \cdot I \end{bmatrix}$$

ANOTHER VIEW OF MATRIX INVERSION

• The equation $AA^{-1} = I$ and the definition of matrix multiplication show that the columns of A^{-1} are precisely the solutions of the systems in (2).