

Lecture VIII §1.9 Matrix Inverses

Recall • I_n = identity matrix of size $n \times n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ($I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$)
• If A is an $m \times n$ matrix $\Rightarrow AI_n = I_m A = A$ (Identity $\leftrightarrow 1$ in \mathbb{R})

§1 Multiplication of numbers vs. matrices

(1) $ab = ba$ for numbers but $AB \neq BA$ for matrices

Example : $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $AB = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(2) $ab = 0$ means either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$ for numbers but
 $AB = 0$ can hold with $A \neq 0$ & $B \neq 0$. (Example above)

(3) $a \neq 0$ means we can always find $b = \frac{1}{a}$ with $ab = 1$
but there are nonsingular matrices (A) for which $AB = I$
or $BA = I$ has no solution. (example above) $I = \text{Identity matrix}$

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Let us try to solve $AB = I_2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

cannot be solved because
of (2,2) entry ($0 \neq 1$)
so no B can work!

§2. Invertible matrices:

Definition: An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if there exists
an $n \times n$ matrix B satisfying $AB = I_n = BA$.
Such a matrix B is called the "inverse of A ". It is unique,

and we denote it by A^{-1} .

Q Why is it unique? A: If B, B' are two $n \times n$ matrices with $AB = BA = I_n$ & $AB' = B'A = I_2$, then

$$B = B I_n = B (A B') \underset{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{use } I_n = AB'}}{=} (BA) B' \underset{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{Assoc}}}{=} I_n B' \underset{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{use } BA = I_n}}{=} B'$$

 A^{-1} doesn't always exist (example above)

Example: (1) I_n is always invertible since $I_n I_n = I_n$
so $I_n^{-1} = I_n$

(2) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible with $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Check: $AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+0 & -1+1 \\ 0+0 & 0+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2$

$$A^{-1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+0 & -1+1 \\ 0+1 & 1+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2$$

Significance of invertible matrices for linear systems.

Proposition: If $A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$ is a system with n eqns & n unknowns

and A is invertible, then the system has a unique solution, namely $A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$

Why? • $A(A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}) = (AA^{-1}) \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = I_n \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$

so it is a solution.

• It is the unique solution. If, $A \underline{x} = \underline{b}$ multiply both sides by A^{-1} on the right: $A^{-1}(A \underline{x}) = A^{-1} \underline{b}$

But $A^{-1}(A \underline{x}) \stackrel{\text{Assoc.}}{=} (A^{-1}A) \underline{x} = I_n \underline{x} = \underline{x}$

Conclude: $\underline{x} = A^{-1} \underline{b}$ is the only solution to the system.

Observation: This is the most important feature of invertible matrices, which in fact characterizes them, and allows us to compute A^{-1} using Gauss-Jordan Elimination. This will also show the converse of the assertion in Proposition 1, namely

Proposition 2: Fix a matrix A of size $n \times n$. If every linear system $A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution, then A is invertible.

♀ Why?

A Build n convenient linear systems by varying \vec{b} .

We know by our hypothesis that these systems have unique solutions.

Take \vec{b} to be $\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, ..., $\vec{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

called coordinate vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

These are the columns of the identity matrix I_n .

• We build the solution vectors $\vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ x_{21} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n1} \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{12} \\ x_{22} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n2} \end{bmatrix}$, ..., $\vec{x}_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1n} \\ x_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ x_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

to $A\vec{x}_1 = \vec{e}_1$, $A\vec{x}_2 = \vec{e}_2$, ..., $A\vec{x}_n = \vec{e}_n$, resp.

Then, $X = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 & \dots & \vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \dots & x_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$ satisfies

$$AX = A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 & \vec{x}_2 & \dots & \vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\vec{x}_1 & \dots & A\vec{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1 & \vec{e}_2 & \dots & \vec{e}_n \end{bmatrix} = I_n$$

NOTE: We still have to check $XA = I_n$ as well, but we will see next time that this is automatic.

Q: What is $RE(A)$ for A of size $n \times n$ that has unique solutions to any system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$?

Proposition 3: $RE(A) = I_n$, in particular $A \sim_{\text{row}} I_n$.

Proof: $r = \text{rank}(A) = \# \text{ non-zero rows of } A \leq n = \# \text{ rows}(A)$

• If $r < n$, then we have at least 1 free parameter for $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$, so we cannot have unique solutions.

• Conclusion: $r = n = \# \text{ columns of } A$. & so every step of the staircase $\rightarrow [A|\vec{0}]$ has length 1.

$$\text{So } RE(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_n$$

This leads to an algorithm for computing A^{-1} !

We need to solve all n systems $A\vec{x}_1 = \vec{e}_1$, $A\vec{x}_2 = \vec{e}_2$, ..., $A\vec{x}_n = \vec{e}_n$
We can do this simultaneously!

§4. Algorithm for computing A^{-1} :

① Form the $n \times 2n$ matrix $[A | \vec{e}_1 | \vec{e}_2 | \dots | \vec{e}_n] = [A | I_n]$

② Use Gauss-Jordan elimination to get A into reduced form

$$[A | I_n] \xrightarrow{\text{row operations}} [RE(A) | B] = [I_n | B]$$

↓
Prop 3

Conclude: Columns of B solve the n original systems

$$A \text{ Col}_i(B) = \vec{e}_i, \dots, A \text{ Col}_n(B) = \vec{e}_n$$

In particular $AB = I_n$.

Next time: We'll see that $B = A^{-1}$, ie B also satisfies

$$BA = I_n.$$

Idea: Since $[A | I_n] \sim_{\text{row}} [I_n | B]$ then $I_n \sim_{\text{row}} B$, and this will say B is invertible.

The same row operations will give $[B | I_n] \longrightarrow [I_n | A]$
(in reverse order)

forcing $BA = I_n$.

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ Let's compute A^{-1} .

$$[A | I_3] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

← fix this

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow -R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_3 \\ R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - R_3}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

← fix this!

EF

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 3R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -5 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

I_3
 A^{-1}

Check: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5+6 & 3-3 & 2-3+1 \\ -10+10 & 6-5 & 4-5+1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Also $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5+6+0 & -15+15 & -5+3+2 \\ 2-2 & 6-5 & 2-1-1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_3$

Q: How did we know A was invertible?

A: We didn't! So far, our only test for invertibility is:

$$A \rightsquigarrow RE(A) = I_n? \begin{cases} \text{YES} \rightarrow A \text{ invertible} \\ \text{NO} \rightarrow A \text{ is NOT invertible} \end{cases}$$

Later in the course we will have a different test, via determinants

$\det(A)$ is a number: • $\det(A) \neq 0$ means A is invertible

(A $n \times n$ matrix) • $\det(A) = 0$ ——— is NOT ———.