## Topic 4-Inverse of a matrix

With numbers we have multiplicative inverses. For example,  $3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 1$ .

We write  $3^{-1} = \frac{1}{3}$ .

If is the multiplicative inverse for 3.

What about for matrices?

Def: Let A be an nxn matrix. [So, A is a square matrix]. We say that A is <u>invertible</u> if there exists an nxn matrix B where  $AB = BA = I_n$ If AB=BA=In, we say that A and B are inverses of each other.

Since  $AB = BA = I_2$ we know A and B are inverses of each other. Theorem: Suppose that A is an nxn matrix that is invertible, ie an inverse for A exists.

Then there exists only one nxn matrix B that is the inverse of A, ie where

AB = BA = In.

Notation: If A is invertible, then we denote its unique inverse by A-1.

Ex: A = (21)We saw in the previous

example that  $A^{-1} = (-11)$ 

How to find A-1 for a square matrix A if it exists

Let A be an nxn matrix.

① A-lexists if and only if one can row reduce A down to In.

2) Procedure: Start with the matrix (A | In)

Do row reduction on the above matrix until the left side is either In or has a row of

If you end up with a row zeros on the left side, A-I does not exist.

If you end up with In on the left side then A-1 exists left side then A-1 exists and its the matrix on side.

Ex: Find A-1, if it exists,

when 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.  $\Rightarrow 2 \times 2$ 

(A |  $I_2$ ) =  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

Goal: row reduce until left form

side is in reduced row echelon form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2R_1+R_2 \to R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-R_2 + R_2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

row echelon form but not reduced row echelon form but not reduced row echelon form

$$-R_2 + R_1 \to R_1$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R \mid B \end{pmatrix}$$

So, A-lexists and  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

When 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overline{A}$$
  $\overline{I_3}$ 

$$\frac{-\frac{1}{3}R_{2} \rightarrow R_{2}}{0} = \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1$$

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Since we were able to reduce the left side into  $\mathbb{I}_3$ , the right side is  $A^{-1}$ .

So,  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 \\ 4/3 & -2 & 1 \\ -\frac{5}{3} & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Ex: Find A-1 if it exists (

When  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ -2 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$ 

make this a 0

$$\frac{2R_1+R_2\rightarrow R_2}{\Rightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
row of zeros

So, 
$$A^{-1}$$
 does not exist for  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ -2 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$ .

HW 4-Part 1

(11)

make t

When  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 & -9 \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\frac{1}{10}R_{2} \rightarrow R_{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & | -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -7/10 & 1/5 & 1/10 & 0 \\ 0 & -10 & 7 & | -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & | & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 7 & -7/10 & 1/5 & 1/10 & 0 \\ 0 & -10 & 7 & -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
make into zeros

Thus, 
$$A^{-1}$$
 does not exist When  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 & -9 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Theorem: Let A and B be nxn matrices that are both invertible [That is, A-1 and B-1 both exist. (1) Then, AB is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ 2) Also, AT is invertible and  $(A^{T})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{T}$ 

Note:  $(AB)^{-1} \neq A^{-1}B^{-1}$ You have to flip the order because sometimes  $B^{-1}A^{-1} \neq A^{-1}B^{-1}$ 

There's another way to represent a system of linear equations. (14) Given the system  $a_{11} \times_{1} + a_{12} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{1n} \times_{n} = b_{1}$   $a_{21} \times_{1} + a_{22} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{2n} \times_{n} = b_{2}$   $a_{21} \times_{1} + a_{22} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{2n} \times_{n} = b_{m}$   $a_{m_{1}} \times_{1} + a_{m_{2}} \times_{2} + \cdots + a_{m_{n}} \times_{n} = b_{m}$  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$ The system (\*) can be represented by the matrix equation AX = 6matrix multiplication

Ex: Consider the system

$$\begin{array}{c} x + 2y = 3 \\ 4x + 5y = 6 \end{array}$$

Let's make the matrix equation that represents the system.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{\lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}, \vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's look at  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ .

$$\frac{12}{45} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 45 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{2\times2}{2\times2} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$
answer is  $2\times1$ 

$$\begin{pmatrix} (12) \cdot (3) \\ (45) \cdot (9) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

This becomes

his becomes
$$\left(\begin{array}{c} x + 2y \\ 4x + 5y \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ 6 \end{array}\right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} 4x + 5y \end{array}\right)$$

$$+ A \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\times} = b$$

This is the same as

$$4x + 2y = 3$$
  
 $4x + 5y = 6$ 

Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 14 & -12 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, X = \begin{pmatrix} X & Y & Y \\ Y & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 14 & 12 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's look at  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 14 & -12 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ y \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} (1 & 4 & -2 & 1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \times & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ (2 & 0 & 1 & 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \times & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 14 & -12 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \times & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

his becomes

This is the same as

Theorem: Let A be an (19) nxn matrix. Suppose A-1 exists.
Then for each vector b in IRn there exists exactly one Solution to the equation  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ . This solution is  $\vec{X} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$ .

Proof: Suppose A-1 exists.

 $A(A^{-1}\vec{b}) = (AA^{-1})\vec{b} = T_n\vec{b} = \vec{b}$ Then Thus,  $\vec{X} = \vec{A}^{-1}\vec{b}$  solves  $\vec{A}\vec{X} = \vec{b}$ . Why is that the only solution? Suppose you had a solution  $\vec{\chi}_{o}$   $+ \vec{\chi} = \vec{b}$ .

So, Ax. = B

Multiply both sides by A-1 on the left to get

 $A^{-1}(AX_{o}) = A^{-1}b$ 

So,  $T_{\Lambda} \times_{\circ} = A^{-1}b$ 

Thus,  $X_o = A^{-1}b^{-1}$ So the only solution is  $A^{-1}b$ . Ex: Find all the solutions to

(21)

We can re-write this in matrix form.

Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 3 \\ -2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ -4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

The system (\*) becomes A = b

On Monday we showed that  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 & 1 \\ 4/3 & -2 & 1 \\ -5/3 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

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Since A-l exists, the system (\*) will have exactly one Solution and that solution  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{matrix} x \\ x \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} A^{-1} \\ b \end{matrix}$  $= \frac{3}{4/3} - 2 \frac{9}{-4} - \frac{9}{5} - \frac{5}{5} = \frac{3 \times 3}{3 \times 1}$   $\frac{3 \times 3}{3 \times 1} = \frac{3 \times 1}{3 \times 1} =$ 

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 18+12+5\\12+8+5\\-15-12-5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 35\\25\\-32 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Thus,

$$\chi = 35$$
,  $y = 25$ ,  $z = -32$ 

is the only solution to

$$3x + 37 = 9$$
  
 $x + 9 + 22 = -9$   
 $-2x + 39 = 5$