Linear algebra Matrices - 2 of 2

Jesús García Díaz

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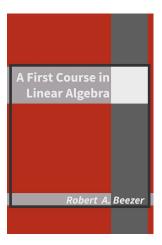
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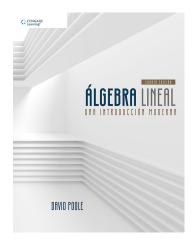
Contents

- Properties of addition and scalar multiplication
- Properties of matrix multiplication
- Properties of the transpose
- The inverse of a matrix
- Determinants
- O Properties of invertible matrices
 - Elementary matrices
- The Gauss-Jordan method for computing the inverse
- O Ending

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Bibliography





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http://linear.ups.edu/

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Theorem

Let A, B, and C be matrices of the same size and let c and d be scalar. Then

- A + B = B + A (commutativity)
- (A+B)+C)A+(B+C) (associativity)
- A + O = A
- A + (-A) = O
- c(A+B) = cA + cB (distributivity)
- (c+d)A = cA + dA (distributivity)
- c(dA) = (cd)A
- 1A = A

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We can define the **span** of a set of matrices to be the set of all linear combinations of the matrices.

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Describe the span $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle$, where

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

One way to do this is simply to write out a general linear combination of A_1 , A_2 , and A_3 . Thus,

$$c_1 A_1 + c_2 A_2 + c_3 A_3 = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} c_2 + c_3 & c_1 + c_3 \\ -c_1 + c_3 & c_2 + c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that a matrix
$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$$
 is in $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle$ when
$$\begin{bmatrix} c_2 + c_3 & c_1 + c_3 \\ -c_1 + c_3 & c_2 + c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$$

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Notice that a matrix
$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$$
 is in $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle$ when
 $\begin{bmatrix} c_2 + c_3 & c_1 + c_3 \\ -c_1 + c_3 & c_2 + c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$

The augmented matrix of this system is

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 1 & 1 & w \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & x \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & z \end{array}\right]$$

Notice that a matrix
$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$$
 is in $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle$ when
 $\begin{bmatrix} c_2 + c_3 & c_1 + c_3 \\ -c_1 + c_3 & c_2 + c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$

The augmented matrix of this system is

and row reduction produces

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$$\rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \left| \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2}y \\ -\frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2}y + w \\ \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}y \\ w - z \end{array} \right]$$

The only restriction comes from the last row, where clearly we must have w - z = 0 in order to have a solution. Thus, $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle$ consists of all matrices $\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$ for which w = z. That is, $\langle \{A_1, A_2, A_3\} \rangle = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & w \end{bmatrix} : w, x, y \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$

Note

Linear independence also makes sense for matrices. We say that matrices A_1 , A_2 ,..., A_k of the same size are **linearly independent** if the only solution of the equation

$$c_1A_1 + c_2A_2 + \dots + c_kA_k = O$$

is the trivial one: $c_1 = c_2 = \cdots = c_k = 0$. If there are nontrivial coefficients that satisfy this equation, then A_1 , A_2 ,..., A_k are called linearly dependent.

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Consider the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4\\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplying gives

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Consider the matrices

 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Multiplying gives

 $AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ $= \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Thus, $AB \neq BA$. So, in contrast to multiplication of real numbers, matrix multiplication is not commutative (the order of the factors in a product matters!).

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Theorem

Let A, B, and C be matrices (whose sizes are such that the indicated operations can be performed) and let k be a scalar. Then

- A(BC) = (AB)C (associativity)
- A(B+C) = AB + AC (left distributivity)
- (A+B)C = AC + BC (right distributivity)
- k(AB) = (kA)B = A(kB)
- $I_m A = A = A I_n$ if A is $m \times n$ (multiplicative identity)

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Theorem

Let A and B be matrices (whose sizes are such that the indicated operations can be performed) and let k be a scalar. Then

- $(A^T)^T = A$
- $(kA)^T = k(A^T)$
- $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
- $(A^r)^T = (A^T)^r$ $r \ge 0$

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Theorem

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Proof.

Let $row_i(X)$ be the i-th row of matrix X and let $col_j(X)$ be the j-th column of matrix X. Thus,

$$[(AB)^T]_{ij} = [AB]_{ji}$$

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Proof.

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= $row_j(A) \cdot col_i(B)$

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Theorem

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= $row_j(A) \cdot col_i(B)$
= $col_j(A^T) \cdot row_i(B^T)$

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Theorem

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Proof.

Let $row_i(X)$ be the i-th row of matrix X and let $col_j(X)$ be the j-th column of matrix X. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (AB)^T]_{ij} &= [AB]_{ji} \\ &= row_j(A) \cdot col_i(B) \\ &= col_j(A^T) \cdot row_i(B^T) \\ &= row_i(B^T) \cdot col_j(A^T) \end{aligned}$$

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Theorem

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Proof.

Let $row_i(X)$ be the i-th row of matrix X and let $col_j(X)$ be the j-th column of matrix X. Thus,

$$(AB)^{T}]_{ij} = [AB]_{ji}$$

= $row_{j}(A) \cdot col_{i}(B)$
= $col_{j}(A^{T}) \cdot row_{i}(B^{T})$
= $row_{i}(B^{T}) \cdot col_{j}(A^{T})$
= $[B^{T}A^{T}]_{ij}$

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Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2\\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Then

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Let

Then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A + A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Let

Then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
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$$BB^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 5 \\ 5 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Let

Then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A + A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$BB^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 5 \\ 5 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$B^{T}B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 10 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Theorem

(a) If A is a square matrix, then $A + A^T$ is a symmetric matrix. (b) For any matrix A, AA^T and A^TA are symmetric matrices.

Theorem

(a) If A is a square matrix, then $A + A^T$ is a symmetric matrix. (b) For any matrix A, AA^T and A^TA are symmetric matrices.

Proof.

(a)

$$(A + A^T)^T = A^T + (A^T)^T = A^T + A = A + A^T$$

Do you remember the definition of a symmetric matrix?

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Definition

If A is an $n\times n$ matrix, an inverse of A is an $n\times n$ matrix A' with the property that

$$AA' = I$$
 and $A'A = I$

where $I = I_n$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. If such an A' exists, then A is called **invertible**.

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Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then its inverse is unique.

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Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then its inverse is unique.

Proof.

Temporarily, assume that there are two different inverses

$$A'A = AA' = I$$

$$A''A = AA'' = I$$

Then,

Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then its inverse is unique.

Proof.

Temporarily, assume that there are two different inverses

$$A'A = AA' = I$$

$$A^{\prime\prime}A = AA^{\prime\prime} = I$$

Then,

A'=IA'

Theorem

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Proof.

Temporarily, assume that there are two different inverses

$$A'A = AA' = I$$

$$A^{\prime\prime}A = AA^{\prime\prime} = I$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} A' &= IA' \\ &= A''AA' \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then its inverse is unique.

Proof.

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$$A'A = AA' = I$$

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Theorem

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$$A'A = AA' = I$$

$$A''A = AA'' = I$$

Then,

$$A' = IA'$$

= A''AA
= A''I
= A''

Theorem

If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then the system of linear equations given by $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ for any \mathbf{b} in \mathbb{R}^n .



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$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
$$A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

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Theorem

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Proof.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
$$A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$
$$I\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$
$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

A is invertible and A^{-1} is unique. Therefore

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

which is unique.

$$2x + y = 3$$

$$-x + y = 0 \qquad \equiv \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \equiv \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$2x + y = 3$$

$$-x + y = 0 \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
What is the vector $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ that, under transformation $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, "lands" on $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$?

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$$2x + y = 3$$

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What is the vector $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ that, under transformation $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, "lands" on $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$?

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2x+y\\ -x+y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x\\ -x \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y\\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 2\\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$2x + y = 3$$

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where

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2x+y\\ -x+y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x\\ -x \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y\\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 2\\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, "to land" means: to express the vector of constants as a linear combination of the column vectors of the coefficients matrix.

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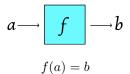


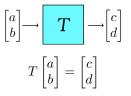
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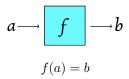


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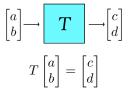
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Assume f is bijective.

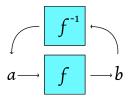


Assume T is invertible.

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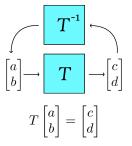
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$$f(a) = b$$

Assume f is bijective.

$$f^{-1}(f(a)) = f^{-1}(b) = a$$

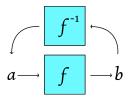


Assume T is invertible.

$$T^{-1}T\begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix} = T^{-1}\begin{bmatrix}c\\d\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix}$$

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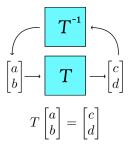


$$f(a) = b$$

Assume f is bijective.

$$f^{-1}(f(a)) = f^{-1}(b) = a$$

$$(f^{-1} \circ f)(a) = a$$



Assume T is invertible.

$$T^{-1}T\begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix} = T^{-1}\begin{bmatrix}c\\d\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix}$$
$$T^{-1}T\begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}a\\b\end{bmatrix}$$

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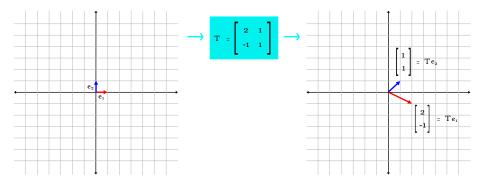
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$$2x + y = 3$$

-x + y = 1
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

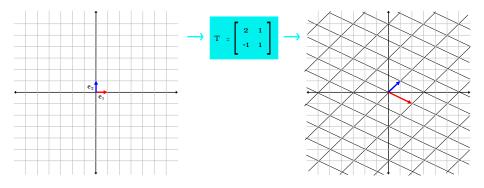
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

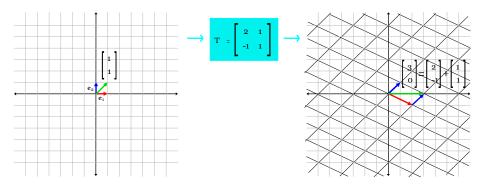
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + y \\ -x + y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ -x \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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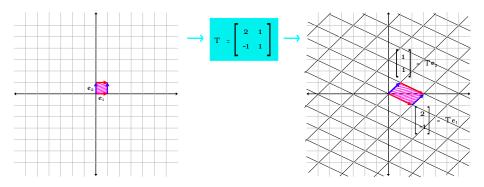
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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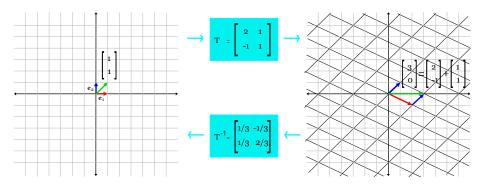
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det
$$T = det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = (2)(1) - (-1)(1) = 2 + 1 = 3$$

2



$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = T^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & -1/3 \\ 1/3 & 2/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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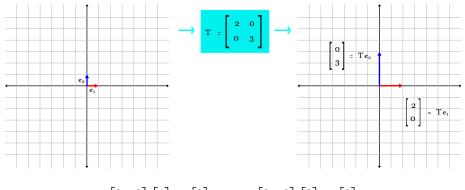
$$2x = 3$$

$$y = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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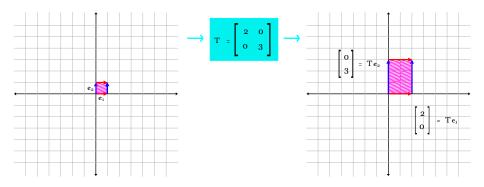
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

2

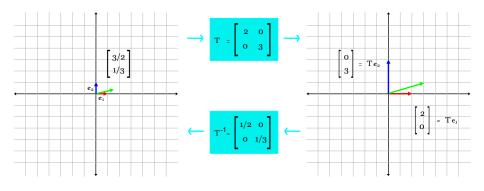
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det
$$T = det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = (2)(3) - (0)(0) = 6 + 0 = 6$$

2

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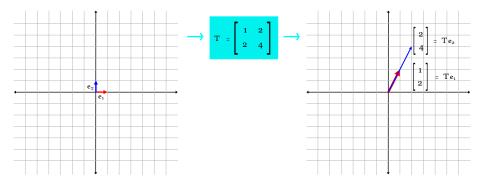
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = T^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/2 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

2

$$\begin{aligned} x + 2y &= -1 \\ 2x + 4y &= -2 \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

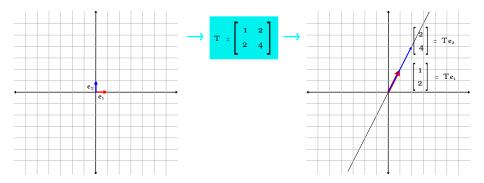
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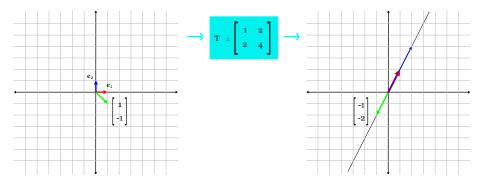
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

2



det
$$T = det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = (1)(4) - (2)(2) = 4 - 4 = 0$$

2

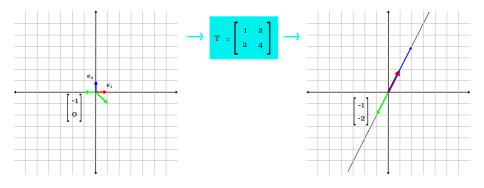


$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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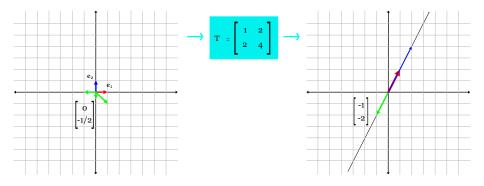
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

2

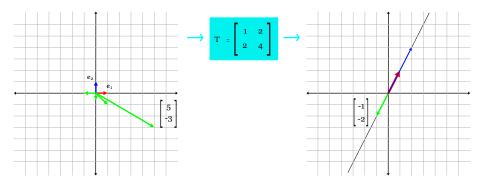
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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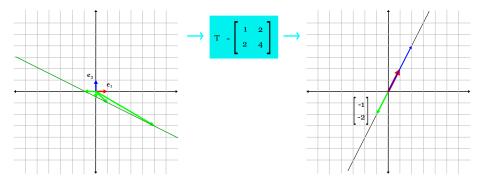


$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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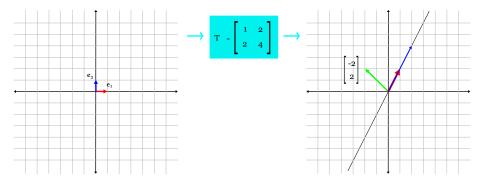
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$$S\left(\mathcal{LS}\left(T, \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ -2 \end{bmatrix}\right)\right) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x\\ (-x/2) - (1/2) \end{bmatrix} : x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

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$$S\left(\mathcal{LS}\left(T, \begin{bmatrix} -2\\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right)\right) = \emptyset$$

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Theorem

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If
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
, then A is invertible if $ad - bc \neq 0$, in which case

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

If ad - bc = 0, then A is not invertible. The expression ad - bc is called the **determinant** of A, denoted det A.

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$$\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} da - bc & db - bd \\ -ca + ca & -cb + ad \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$= (ad - bc) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem

If
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
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Proof.

$$\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} da - bc & db - bd \\ -ca + ca & -cb + ad \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} da - bc & 0 \\ 0 & -cb + ad \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= (ad - bc) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Can you see the last step?

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Definition

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$. Then the **determinant** of A is the scalar

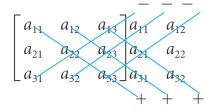
$$\det A = |A| = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$
$$\det A = a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + a_{13} \det A_{13}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{3} (-1)^{1+j} a_{1j} \det A_{1j}$$

For any square matrix A, det A_{ij} is called the (i,j)-minor of A.

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Another method for calculating the determinant of a 3×3 matrix is analogous to the method for calculating the determinant of a 2×2 matrix.



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Definition

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be an $n \times n$ matrix, where $n \ge 2$. Then the **determinant** of A is the scalar

$$\det A = |A| = a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + \dots + (-1)^{1+n} a_{1n} \det A_{1n}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{1+j} a_{1j} \det A_{1j}$$

By combining a minor with its plus or minus sign

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1j} C_{1j}$$

where C_{ij} is called the **(i,j)-cofactor of A**. This way of defining the determinant is often referred to as **cofactor expansion along the first row**.

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Theorem

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

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

Theorem

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Proof.

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

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$$(A^{-1})^{-1}A^{-1} = I$$
$$(A^{-1})^{-1}A^{-1}A = IA$$
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$$(A^{-1})^{-1}I = A$$
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Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix and c is a nonzero scalar, then cA is invertible matrix and

$$(cA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}A^{-1}$$

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$$(cA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}A^{-1}$$

Theorem

If A and B are invertible matrices of the same size, then AB is invertible and

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

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 $(AB)^{-1}AB = I$

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$$(AB)^{-1}AB = I$$
$$(AB)^{-1}ABB^{-1} = IB^{-1}$$

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$$(AB)^{-1}ABB^{-1} = IB^{-1}$$
$$(AB)^{-1}AI = B^{-1}$$

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If A and B are invertible matrices of the same size, then AB is invertible and

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$$(AB)^{-1}ABB^{-1} = IB^{-1}$$

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

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

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

Theorem

If A and B are invertible matrices of the same size, then AB is invertible and

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

$$(AB)^{-1}AB = I$$

$$(AB)^{-1}ABB^{-1} = IB^{-1}$$

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Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then A^n is invertible for all nonnegative integers n and

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Proof.

Base case

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Base case

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

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Base case

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

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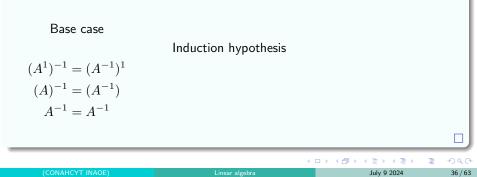
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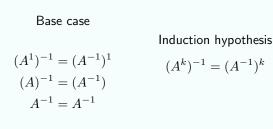


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Proof.



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If A is an invertible matrix, then A^n is invertible for all nonnegative integers n and

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

Proof. Base case $(A^1)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^1$	Induction hypothesis $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$	Induction step		
$(A)^{-1} = (A^{-1})$ $A^{-1} = A^{-1}$				
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If A is an invertible matrix, then A^n is invertible for all nonnegative integers n and

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Base case $(A^{1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{1}$ $(A)^{-1} = (A^{-1})$ $A^{-1} = A^{-1}$	Induction hypothesis $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$	Induction step $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$

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Theorem

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Base case $(A^{1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{1}$ $(A)^{-1} = (A^{-1})$ $A^{-1} = A^{-1}$	Induction hypothesis $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$	Induction step $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$ $(A^k)^{-1}A^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k A^{-1}$ $(AA^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{k+1}$

Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then A^n is invertible for all nonnegative integers n and

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Proof.

Base case $(A^{1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{1}$ $(A)^{-1} = (A^{-1})$ $A^{-1} = A^{-1}$	Induction hypothesis $(A^k)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^k$	Induction step $(A^{k})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{k}$ $(A^{k})^{-1}A^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{k}A^{-1}$ $(AA^{k})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{k+1}$ $(A^{k+1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{k+1}$
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Theorem

If A is an invertible matrix, then A^T is invertible and

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

Proof.

This is left as homework.

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Theorem

If A_1 , A_2 ,..., A_n are invertible matrices of the same size, then $A_1A_2\cdots A_n$ is invertible and

$$(A_1 A_2 \dots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1} \dots A_2^{-1} A_1^{-1}$$

Proof.

This is left as homework.

Definition

If A is an invertible matrix and n is a positive integer, then A^{-n} is defined by

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

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Solve the following matrix equation for X (assuming that the matrices involved are such that all of the indicated operations are defined)

$$A^{-1}(BX)^{-1} = (A^{-1}B^3)^2$$

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$$\begin{split} A^{-1}(BX)^{-1} &= (A^{-1}B^3)^2 \Rightarrow ((BX)A)^{-1} = (A^{-1}B^3)^2 \\ &\Rightarrow [((BX)A)^{-1}]^{-1} = [(A^{-1}B^3)^2]^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow (BX)A = [(A^{-1}B^3)(A^{-1}B^3)]^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow (BX)A = B^{-3}(A^{-1})^{-1}B^{-3}(A^{-1})^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow BXA = B^{-3}AB^{-3}A \\ &\Rightarrow B^{-1}BXAA^{-1} = B^{-1}B^{-3}AB^{-3}AA^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow IXI = B^{-4}AB^{-3}I \\ &\Rightarrow X = B^{-4}AB^{-3} \end{split}$$

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Definition

An **elementary matrix** is any matrix that can be obtained by performing an elementary row operation on an identity matrix.

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Theorem

Let *E* be the elementary matrix obtained by performing an elementary row operation on I_n . If the same elementary row operation is performed on an $n \times r$ matrix *A*, the result is the same as the matrix *EA*.

Theorem

Let *E* be the elementary matrix obtained by performing an elementary row operation on I_n . If the same elementary row operation is performed on an $n \times r$ matrix *A*, the result is the same as the matrix *EA*.

Proof.

It follows from the definition of matrix multiplication and identity matrix. Since it is kind of intuitive, we omit the proof. $\hfill\square$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ e & f & g & h \\ i & j & k & l \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ i & j & k & l \\ e & f & g & h \end{bmatrix}$$

So,

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$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then E_1 corresponds to $R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$, which is undone by doing $R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$ again.

Thus, $E_1^{-1} = E_1$.

$$E_1^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then E_2 comes from $4R_2$, which is undone by $\frac{1}{4}R_2$. So,

$$E_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then E_3 comes from $-2R_1 + R_3$, which is undone by $2R_1 + R_3$. So,

$$E_3^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Can you see why elementary matrices are invertible? Besides, the inverse of an elementary matrix is invertible too.

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Of course, this comes from how they relate to systems of equations whose augmented matrix has the identity as reduced row-echelon form (so, there are no free variables) and to the notion of nonsingular matrices.

Can you see why elementary matrices are invertible? Besides, the inverse of an elementary matrix is invertible too.

Of course, this comes from how they relate to systems of equations whose augmented matrix has the identity as reduced row-echelon form (so, there are no free variables) and to the notion of nonsingular matrices.

Theorem

Each elementary matrix is invertible, and its inverse is an elementary matrix that performs a row-operation of the same type.

The fundamental theorem of invertible matrices (version 1)

Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The following statements are equivalent

- A is nonsingular.
- $\mathcal{LS}(A, \mathbf{0})$ has only the trivial solution.
- $\mathcal{N}(A)$ has only the zero vector.
- $\mathcal{LS}(A, \mathbf{b})$ has a unique solution for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- A is invertible.
- $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution for every $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.
- The reduced row-echelon form of A is I_n .
- A is a product of elementary matrices.

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If possible, express
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 as a product of elementary matrices.

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We row reduce A as follows

$$A \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3\\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2R_1 + R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3\\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 + R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-\frac{1}{3}R_2} I_2$$

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So, $E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I$, where

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $E_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/3 \end{bmatrix}$

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Therefore,

$$A = (E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} E_4^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Theorem

Let A be a square matrix. If B is a square matrix such that either AB = I **OR** BA = I, then A is invertible and $B = A^{-1}$.

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Proof.

Let BA = I.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
 Let us now find A^{-1} .
 $BA\mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{0}$
 $I\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
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Proof.

Let BA = I.

$A\mathbf{x} = 0$	Let us now find A^{-1} .
$BA\mathbf{x} = B0$	BA = I
$I\mathbf{x} = 0$	
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Let AB = I.

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

 $\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

 $\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$ $= AB\mathbf{b}$

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

b = Ib= ABb= A(Bb)

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{b} &= I\mathbf{b} \\ &= AB\mathbf{b} \\ &= A(B\mathbf{b}) \end{aligned}$

So, $\mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{b}$ is the only solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. By the fundamental theorem of invertible matrices, A^{-1} exists, so it satisfies $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$.

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

$\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$	Let us now find A^{-1} .
$=AB\mathbf{b}$	AB = I
$= A(B\mathbf{b})$	

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

$\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$	Let us now find A^{-1} .
$=AB\mathbf{b}$	AB = I
$=A(B\mathbf{b})$	$A^{-1}AB = A^{-1}I$

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Cont.

Let AB = I.

$\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$	Let us now find A^{-1} .	
$= AB\mathbf{b}$	AB = I	
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Let AB = I.

$\mathbf{b} = I\mathbf{b}$	Let us now find A^{-1} .
$= AB\mathbf{b}$	AB = I
$=A(B\mathbf{b})$	$A^{-1}AB = A^{-1}I$
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So, $\mathbf{x} = B\mathbf{b}$ is the only solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. By the fundamental theorem of invertible matrices, A^{-1} exists, so it satisfies $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$.	$B = A^{-1}$

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Elementary matrices

Theorem

Let A be a square matrix. If a sequence of elementary row operations reduces A to I, then the same sequence of elementary row operations transforms I into A^{-1} .

Elementary matrices

Theorem

Let A be a square matrix. If a sequence of elementary row operations reduces A to I, then the same sequence of elementary row operations transforms I into A^{-1} .

Proof.

 ${\cal A}$ is row equivalent to ${\cal I},$ then there is a series of k elementary matrices multiplied by the left such that

$$E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I$$

Elementary matrices

Theorem

Let A be a square matrix. If a sequence of elementary row operations reduces A to I, then the same sequence of elementary row operations transforms I into A^{-1}

Proof.

A is row equivalent to I, then there is a series of k elementary matrices multiplied by the left such that

$$E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I$$

By setting $B = E_k \cdots E_2 E_1$, this is BA = I. So, by the previous theorem, A is invertible and $A^{-1} = B$. Applying the same sequence of row operations to I is equivalent to multiplying by the left the same sequence of elementary matrices

$$E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 I = BI$$
$$= B$$
$$= A^{-2}$$

The Gauss-Jordan method for computing the inverse

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Find the inverse of

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Add the identity to the right and proceed with Gauss-Jordan elimination

$$[A|I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{-2R_1+R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-R_1+R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\xrightarrow{-2R_1+R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 & | & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-R_1+R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 6 & | & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & | & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{-\frac{1}{2}R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & | & 1 & -1/2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & | & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-R_2+R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & | & 1 & -1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -2 & 1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Summary

- Matrices can be added together (addition) and multiplied by a scalar or between them.
- Matrix multiplication is not commutative.
- If $A^T = A$, the matrix A is symmetric. $A + A^T$, AA^T , and A^TA are symmetric matrices.
- A square matrix A is invertible if AA' = I = A'A. A' is its inverse and is unique.
- If A is invertible, then $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ for any \mathbf{b} .

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Summary

- Matrices can be seen as transformations (functions) that squishes, expand, rotate, or flip the original space.
- To undo a series of transformations, do them backwards. Namely, $(A_1A_2\cdots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1}\cdots A_2^{-1}A_1^{-1}$.
- If A is a product of elementary matrices, then A is invertible.
- Knowing AB = I **OR** BA = I is enough to guarantee that A is invertible and $B = A^{-1}$.

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Homework

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find A^{-1} . Using A^{-1} , solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1$, $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2$, and $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_3$. Finally, use Gauss-Jordan elimination to simultaneously solve the three systems.

- Prove that if A is an invertible matrix, then A^T is invertible and $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$.
- Prove that if a symmetric matrix is invertible, its inverse is symmetric too.
- Prove that $(A^r)^T = (A^T)^r$ for every $r \ge 0$.
- Use mathematical induction to prove that $(A_1A_2\cdots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1}\cdots A_2^{-1}A_1^{-1}$ for every $n \ge 1$.

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Next topics

- Subspaces.
- Basis.
- Dimension.
- Rank.

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Thank you

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