

Section 2.2: The Inverse of a Matrix

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Abstract

The inverse of a matrix is analogous to the multiplicative reciprocal: we want to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, and so we'd like to say that $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}/A$ - but we don't know how to say that with matrices! Let's find out....

First of all, this concept only applies when matrices are square: so only $n \times n$ matrices could possibly be invertible.

Definition: An $n \times n$ matrix A is **invertible** if there exists an $n \times n$ matrix C (the **inverse** of A) such that

$$CA = I = AC$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} C_{m \times n} A_{n \times m} = I_{m \times m} \\ A_{n \times m} C_{m \times n} = I_{n \times n} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow m=n \text{ square}$$

The inverse C is denoted A^{-1} , and is unique. A square matrix for which the inverse fails to exist is called **singular**.

A simple formula exists for the inverse of a two-by-two matrix: if A is given by

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

then, provided $ad - bc \neq 0$,

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

Otherwise, if $ad - bc = 0$, then A is singular. The quantity $ad - bc$ is called the determinant of A : $\det(A) \equiv ad - bc$.

Example: #1, p. 126 (check!)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A) = 2 = 8 \cdot 4 - 6 \cdot 5 \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{A^{-1} \text{ exists.}}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot A^{-1} = ? = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \underline{I}_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem: 5 if A is invertible, then $Ax = b$ has a unique solution for each b : $x = A^{-1}b$.

Example: #5, p. 126 (check!)

$$\begin{aligned} 7x_1 + 6x_2 &= 2 \\ 5x_1 + 4x_2 &= -1 \end{aligned} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1}A \cdot \underline{x} &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \underline{x} &= \underline{I} \cdot \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: 6

(a) If A is invertible, then $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$. ("A is the inverse of A^{-1} ."

Example: #1, p. 126 (check!)

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 4/2 & -6/2 \\ -5/2 & 8/2 \end{bmatrix} & \det(A^{-1}) &= \frac{4}{2} \cdot \frac{8}{2} - \left(-\frac{6}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{5}{2}\right) \\ & & &= \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2 = \frac{1}{2} \\ (A^{-1})^{-1} &= 2 \begin{bmatrix} 8/2 & 6/2 \\ 5/2 & 4/2 \end{bmatrix} & \text{(Note: } \det(A^{-1}) &= \frac{1}{\det(A)} \text{)} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = A \end{aligned}$$

(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, in the reverse order: $(AB)^{-1} \cdot AB = \underline{I}$

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

$$B^{-1}A^{-1} \cdot A \cdot B =$$

$$\underline{I}$$

More generally, the inverse of a product of any number of invertible matrices is the product of the inverses in reverse order.

$$B^{-1} \underline{I} \cdot B =$$

$$B^{-1} \cdot B = \underline{I}.$$

Example: #15, p. 126

ABC , A, B, C invertible $n \times n$ matrices.

Claim: $(ABC)^{-1} = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}$

$$\begin{array}{l} C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}ABC \\ \hline \underline{I} \\ \hline \underline{I} \\ \hline \underline{I} \end{array} \quad \Bigg| \quad ABC\underline{x}$$

(c) If A is invertible, then so is A^T , and the inverse of A^T is the transpose of A^{-1} :

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

The inverse of the transpose is the transpose of the inverse.

Definition: an **elementary matrix** is one that is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on an identity matrix. Each elementary matrix is invertible.

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 .

Example: #28, p. 127

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{2} \\ \textcircled{3} \end{matrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{2} \\ \textcircled{3} - 4\textcircled{1} \end{matrix}$$

$$\bar{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad EA = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

Theorem: 7 Matrix $A_{n \times n}$ is invertible if and only if A is row equivalent to I_n . The elementary row operations that transform A into I_n simultaneously transforms I_n into A^{-1} .

Theorem 7 suggests a method for finding A^{-1} : row reduce the augmented matrix $[AI_n]$. If A is row equivalent to I_n , then $[AI_n]$ is row equivalent to $[I_n A^{-1}]$.

Example: #1, p. 126

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{matrix} A & I_2 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 6 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 6 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2/8 & -5/8 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \sim \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 6 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -5 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \\ \sim \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 0 & 16 & -24 \\ 0 & 2 & -5 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & -5/2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \\ \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{I_2} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{A^{-1}} \end{array}$$

Claim:

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ -5/2 & 3/2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -5/2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

Example: #18, p. 126

P invertible and $A = P B P^{-1}$,

Solve for B in terms of A ,

$$P \cdot P^{-1} = I = P^{-1} P$$

$$A P = P B P^{-1} P = P B I = P B$$

$$P^{-1} A P = P^{-1} (P B) = \underbrace{P^{-1} P}_{I} B = I B = B$$

$$\boxed{B = P^{-1} A P}$$

Example: #19, p. 126

$C^{-1}(A+X)B^{-1} = I$ has a soln, X :

$$C \cdot C^{-1}(A+X)B^{-1} = C \cdot I$$

$$I \cdot (A+X)B^{-1} = C$$

$$(A+X)B^{-1} = C$$

$$(A+X)B^{-1} \cdot B = C B$$

$$(A+X) = C B$$

$$\boxed{X = C B - A}$$

Example: #21, p. 126 why are the columns of A linearly independent when A is invertible?

A is row-equivalent to I_n , with n basic variables (n pivots); so A must have n basic variable (n pivots). So it can't have any linearly dependent columns.

Note: A^{-1} is generally not calculated: we don't need to know its entries to solve $Ax = b$ (similar to the notion that we don't need to row reduce to reduced row echelon form to solve: we can stop with a triangular matrix).