

2.2 The Inverse of a Matrix

If A is $n \times n$ (square) and a matrix can be found such that

$$AX = XA = I$$

We call X the inverse of A (or A inverse) and denote it A^{-1} .

Q: How many inverses does a matrix have?

Assume B is any inverse of A . Then

$$BA = I$$

$$BAA^{-1} = IA^{-1}$$

$$BI = A^{-1}$$

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

So A^{-1} is unique.

The inverse is very useful. Consider $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$. If A is an $n \times n$ invertible matrix then

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

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

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

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

So (in theory) we can solve the linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ by finding A^{-1} and then multiplying \vec{b} on the left by A^{-1} .

Problem; While many square matrices do have inverses, the work necessary to compute them is much greater than solving $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ without using inverses.

That said, however, we will see that inverses play an important role and are quite useful.

For example, if A ($n \times n$) is invertible so that $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$ for any $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. This tells us that $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ is consistent and that it has a unique solution

Thm

If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then for each $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has the unique solution $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$

Thm

A) If A is invertible, then A^{-1} is invertible and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

proof: If $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$ then $\vec{x}A = A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$. But this says that

\vec{x} is an invertible matrix whose inverse is A . $\therefore (A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

B) If A and B are invertible $n \times n$ matrices, so is AB . Also

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

proof: Since A and B are invertible $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

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

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

so (AB) is invertible and its inverse $(AB)^{-1}$ is $B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

C) If A is invertible, then so is A^T and $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

proof: $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$

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

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

so the inverse of A^T is $(A^{-1})^T$.

Sometimes $(A^{-1})^T$ is denoted A^{-T}

Q: Given A , how do we find A^{-1} (if it exists)?

Assuming A^{-1} exists, set $B = A^{-1}$ so that $AB = I$.

$$AB = A[\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{b}_n] = [A\vec{b}_1 \ A\vec{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\vec{b}_n]$$

$$\text{but } AB = I = [\vec{e}_1 \ \vec{e}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{e}_n]$$

columns must match

so we get n linear systems

$$A\vec{b}_1 = \vec{e}_1$$

$$A\vec{b}_2 = \vec{e}_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A\vec{b}_n = \vec{e}_n$$

Each of these can be solved by row reducing $[A \ \vec{e}_i]$ to get \vec{b}_i

i.e. row reduce

$$[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{e}_1]$$

$$\vdots$$

$$[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{e}_n]$$

But we can do this all at once by row reducing

$$[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{e}_1 \ \vec{e}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{e}_n]$$

or

$$[A \ I]$$

Since if A is invertible it has n -pivot columns (why?) we know A is row equivalent to I . When we row reduce $[A \ I]$ we end up with $[I \ B']$, but recall that $B = A^{-1}$.

Thm An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible iff it is row equivalent to I_n .

Proof Let E be an elementary matrix, obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on I_n . Note that EA yields a matrix identical to performing the same row operation on A itself.

If A is row equivalent to I_n then there exist elementary matrices E_1, E_2, \dots, E_p such that

$$E_p E_{p-1} \dots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

In this case $A^{-1} = E_p E_{p-1} \dots E_2 E_1$ so A^{-1} exists

If A is invertible then A^{-1} exists such that $A^{-1}A = I_n$

Let E_1, E_2, \dots, E_p be elementary matrices such that

$$E_p \dots E_1 I_n = A^{-1}. \quad \text{These are the same operations}$$

that turn A into I_n since $E_p \dots E_1 A = A^{-1}A = I_n$

Therefore A is row equivalent to I_n .

Ex Find the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & 1 \end{array} \right] \sim$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & 1 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{So } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Check } AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4-3 & -2+2 \\ 6-6 & -3+4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I \quad \checkmark$$

$$A^{-1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4-3 & 2-2 \\ -6+6 & -3+4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I \quad \checkmark$$

For the 2×2 matrix $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ we know how to compute the inverse (and check for existence)

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

Which only exists if $ad-bc \neq 0$

Text discusses elementary matrices, which are obtained by performing a single row operation on I . If E is such a matrix the EA is that matrix which would result from performing the same row operations on A itself.

Discuss : 2.2: 16, 18, 22

Octave uses `inv(A)` to compute the inverse of A .
Sage uses `A.inverse()`