

## Invertibility Theorem (Square matrices)

The following are equivalent

(a)  $A$  invertible

(b)  $Ax = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$

(c) Reduced row echelon of  $A$  is  $I$

(d)  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution  $\forall b \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Proof (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b) Assume  $A^{-1}$  exists. Then if  $Ax = 0$ , does  $x = 0$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= 0 \\ A^{-1}Ax &= 0 \\ Ix &= 0 \\ x &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Proof (b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c) Assume  $Ax = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ .

$$[A \mid 0] \sim [I^* \mid 0]$$

If  $I^* \neq I$  then  $\exists x$  s.t.  $Ax \neq 0$  contradicts assumpt.

Proof (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (d) By assuming (c) we are assured

$$[Ax \mid b] \sim [I \mid b^*]$$

for some  $b^*$  in which case  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution

(d)  $\Rightarrow$  (a) Constructive proof

$$e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{sole one in } i^{\text{th}} \text{ row}$$

We assume  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution for each  $b$ .

$$Ax_i = e_i$$

defines  $n$  systems each having a unique solution  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then

$$A \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & | \\ \vdots & \vdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$   
is  $A^{-1}$

□

Theorem

$AB$  invertible  $\Rightarrow A$  and  $B$  invertible

Pf We show  $B^{-1}$  exists since  $Bx = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$   
and appeal to equivalency Theorem

Let  $x_0$  be any  $x_0$  such that  $Bx_0 = 0$ . Then

$$(1) \quad (AB)x_0 = A(Bx_0) = A0 = 0$$

By the invertibility of  $AB$  this implies  $x_0 = 0$ .  
Thus we have

$$Bx_0 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_0 = 0$$

so that  $B^{-1}$  exists.

Then

$$(2) \quad (AB)B^{-1} = A(BB^{-1}) = AI = A$$

Rewritten

$$A = \underbrace{(AB)B^{-1}}_{\text{product of invertible matrices}}$$

$A$  being the product of invertible matrices is therefore invertible

## Symmetric Matrices

Defn:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  symmetric  $\Leftrightarrow A = A^T$

It is easy to see that if  $A, B$  are symmetric then

i)  $A^T$  symmetric

ii)  $A+B$  symmetric

iii)  $kA$  symmetric  $\forall k \in \mathbb{R}$

From this we see the space of symmetric matrices is closed under addition. It is not closed under matrix multiplication.

EXAMPLE  $A, B$  symmetric  $\nRightarrow AB$  symmetric

$$\begin{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ A & B & & C \end{matrix}$$

Clearly  $A = A^T, B = B^T$  but  $C \neq C^T$

Theorem

If  $A, B$  are symmetric,  $AB$  is symmetric if and only if  $A$  and  $B$  commute

Pf

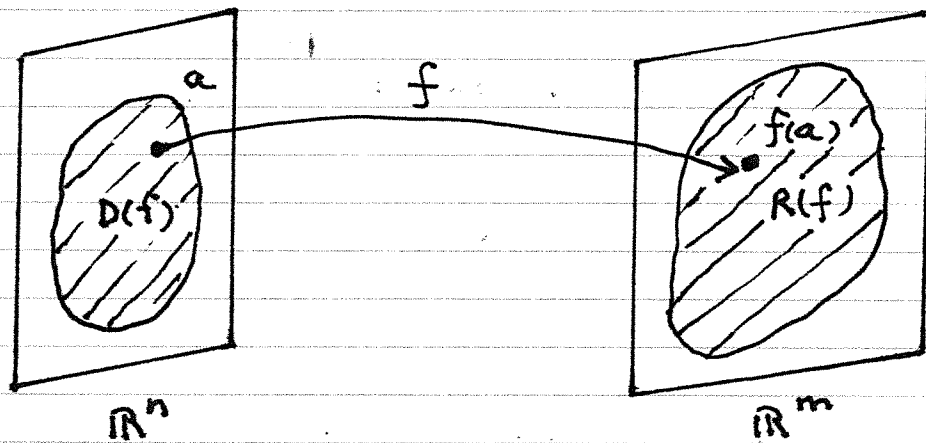
$$(AB)^T = \overset{\text{always}}{\underbrace{B^T A^T}} = \overset{\text{by assumption}}{\underbrace{(BA)}}$$

Thus  $(AB)^T = AB$  only if  $AB = BA$

□

## Mappings and Matrix Transformations

A mapping  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  has its domain  $D(f) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Here  $f$  maps into the codomain. The range  $R(f)$  of  $f$  can be a proper subset of the codomain. Such mappings are also called transformations and  $f(a)$  is said to be the image of  $a$  under  $f$ .

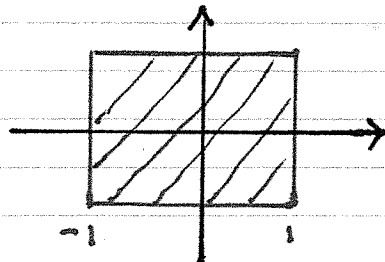


domain  $D(f) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \text{ defined}\}$

range  $R(f) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : \exists x \in D(f) \text{ with } y = f(x)\}$

EXAMPLE  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos x_2 \\ \sin x_1 \end{pmatrix}$

: clearly  $D(f) = \mathbb{R}^2$  but since  $-1 \leq \sin z, \cos z \leq 1$ ,



$$R(f) = [-1, 1]^2$$

Definition  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a matrix transformation if  $\exists A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  such that

$$T(x) = Ax$$

Note that not all mappings from  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  are matrix transformations. For instance  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is not. Were it there would be an  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $f(x) = ax$ .

### EXAMPLE

$$T(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 - 7x_2 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $T(x) = T_A(x) = Ax$  where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -7 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If  $x = (3, 1)^T$  then it's easy to compute  $T(x) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 10 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

### Notation convention

By convention  $T_A(x) \equiv Ax$ . The subscript  $A$  is a reminder that  $T_A$  is a matrix transformation defined by  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .

EXAMPLE  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  matrix transformation

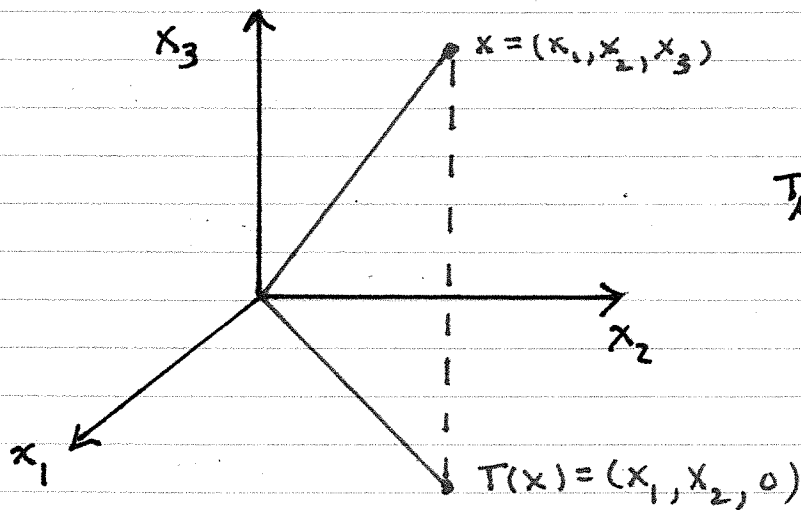
$$T_A(x) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 + x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly the domain  $D(T_A) = \mathbb{R}^2$ . Noting

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$y = T(x)$  has a soln for all  $y \Rightarrow \text{range } R(T) = \mathbb{R}^2$

EXAMPLE Projection onto  $(x_1, x_2)$ -plane



$$T_A(x) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$D(T_A) = \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$R(T_A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x_3 = 0\} \quad x_3 = 0 \text{ plane.}$$

Language:  $T_A(x)$  is the "image" of  $x$  under  $T_A$

## EXAMPLE    Rotation in $(x_1, x_2)$ -plane

$$T_\theta(x) \equiv Ax = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} x$$

To see why this is rotation of  $x$  we first express  $x$  in polar coordinates

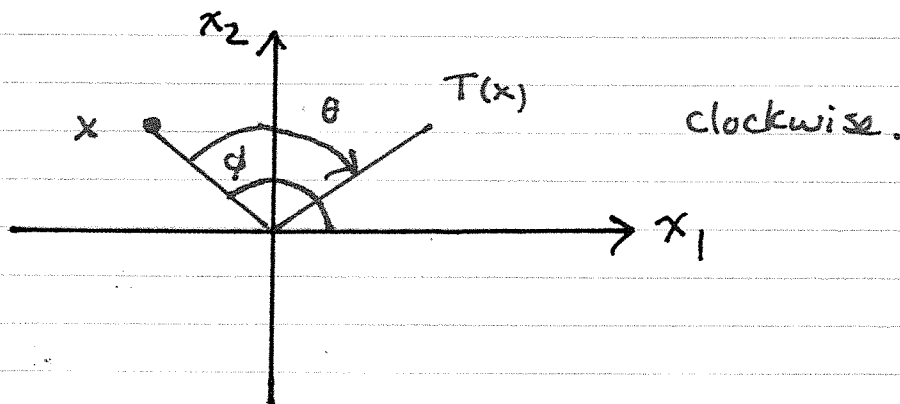
$$x = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \phi \\ r \sin \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

Expanding  $T_\theta(x)$  yields

$$T_\theta(x) = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \theta \cos \phi + r \sin \theta \sin \phi \\ r \cos \theta \sin \phi - r \sin \theta \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

Using trig identities to simplify

$$T_\theta(x) = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos(\phi - \theta) \\ r \sin(\phi - \theta) \end{pmatrix}$$



Note how  $T_\theta$  composes:  $T_{\theta_1}(T_{\theta_2}(x)) = T_{\theta_1 + \theta_2}(x)$



EXAMPLE Let  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  where

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

is not known. But suppose we know the image of  $y, z$  under  $T_A$ . Specifically

$$(1) \quad T_A(y) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = u$$

$$(2) \quad T_A(z) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = u$$

Collectively (1)-(2) are four eqns for  $(a, b, c, d)$ :

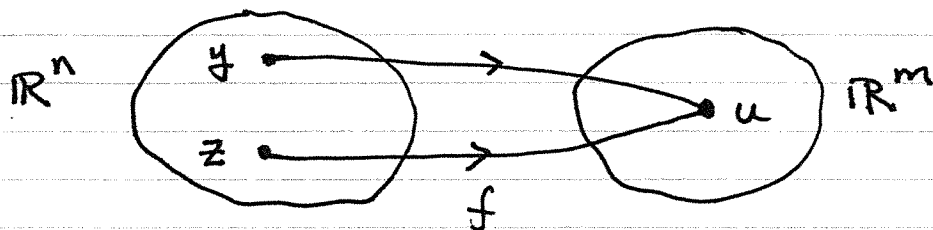
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving we find  $a=0, b=1, c=0, d=1$

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

A final remark is  $A^{-1}$  DNE. Can be seen from

$$T_A(y) = T_A(z) \quad y \neq z$$



Theorem  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a matrix transformation if and only if the following hold for all  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$

(1)  $T(u+v) = T(u) + T(v)$  additive prop.

(2)  $T(ku) = kT(u)$  homogeneity prop.

Pf First assume  $T(x) = Ax$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . Then

$$T(u+v) = A(u+v) = Au + Av = T(u) + T(v).$$

$$T(ku) = A(ku) = kAu = kT(u)$$

Now assume  $T$  satisfies (1)-(2). We must show  $\exists A$  such that

$$T(x) = Ax \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Claim that  $(e_i)$  are standard basis vectors)

(3)  $A = [T(e_1) \mid T(e_2) \mid \dots \mid T(e_n)]$

Noting  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$

$$Ax = x_1 T(e_1) + x_2 T(e_2) + \dots + x_n T(e_n)$$

$$= T(x_1 e_1) + T(x_2 e_2) + \dots + T(x_n e_n)$$

$$= T(x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n)$$

$$= T(x)$$

property (2)

property (1)

□

Remark Any transformation satisfying (1)-(2) in the theorem is said to be a linear transformation.

EXAMPLE A matrix transformation  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by

$$T_A \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad T_A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Use these to compute  $T_A(e_i)$ ,  $i=1,2$ .

$$T_A \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - T_A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = T_A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\uparrow$   
 $e_1$

Similarly

$$T_A \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - 2T_A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = -T_A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - 2 \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -7 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\uparrow$   
 $e_2$

Hence

$$A = [T(e_1) \mid T(e_2)]$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 7 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $T_A(x) = Ax$ .

## Determinants

There are many ways to define the determinant  $\det(A)$  of a square matrix  $A$ . Not found in our text but in "Matrices and Linear Transformations, C. Cullen 1966 is

Defn  $\det: \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$(i) \quad \det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) \quad \forall A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$$(ii) \quad \det(E_1(k)) = k \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{R}$$

where  $E_1(k)$  is the elementary matrix obtained by multiplying the 1<sup>st</sup> row of  $I$  by  $k \neq 0$ .

Not done here but (i) - (ii) can be used to show how to compute matrices

### EXAMPLE

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (2)(1) - (-1)(3) = 5$$

### EXAMPLE (Cofactor Expansion)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} + & - & + \\ \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} & = & 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \end{array}$$

$$= (-6) - 2(-2) + 3(4)$$

$$= 10$$

## Determinant Properties (without proof) $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$(1) \quad \det I = 1$$

$$(2) \quad \det A^T = \det A$$

$$(3) \quad \det(A^{-1}) = (\det A)^{-1}$$

$$(4) \quad \det(A) = 0 \Rightarrow A^{-1} \text{ D.N.E.}$$

$$(5) \quad \det(AB) = \det A \det B$$

$$(6) \quad \det(cA) = c^n \det A \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(7) \quad A \text{ upper or lower triangular then}$$
$$\det(A) = a_{11} a_{22} \cdots a_{nn} = \prod_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$$

Note that  $\det(A+B) \neq \det A + \det B$  as is illustrated in the following.

### EXAMPLE

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A+B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here

$$\det A + \det B = 1 + 8 = 9$$

$$\det(A+B) = 23$$

↙ not equal ↘