

Last time: · Algorithm for checking invertibility and computing inverses

Today: · more example applications, justifying the algorithm.

· Invertible linear maps. Relation to matrix inversion.

· Start § 2.8. Subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

↓ finished § 2.3.

$$I_2 \quad \begin{array}{c} \nearrow \\ \Rightarrow \\ \searrow \end{array} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{c} \nearrow A^{-1} \\ \end{array}$$

↑

1. Review of the algorithm

E.g.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow B = \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{↑ go on}} \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right]$

↓  
EF, no zero row  $\Rightarrow A$  is inv

so  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ .

Why the algorithm works:

(1) Every elt row op can be realized by left mult by a matrix.

(a). Scaling by a nonzero number  $c$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}}_A \rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b). interchanging two rows. e.g.,

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}}_A \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_E \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c). adding a multiple of a row to another row.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_A \xrightarrow[\downarrow +]{\times(-3)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_E \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Fact: For each elt row op, we can find a matrix  $E$  such that apply the op to  $A$  results in  $EA$ .

2). Matrices of the form  $E$  mentioned in (1) are all invertible.

"elementary row matrices"

3). Why the algorithm works :

if  $[A | I] \xrightarrow{\text{row ops}} [I | C]$ , then we can find elt row

matrices  $\bar{E}_1, \bar{E}_2, \dots, \bar{E}_r$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} \bar{E}_r \cdots \bar{E}_2 \bar{E}_1 A = I & \textcircled{1} \\ \bar{E}_r \cdots \bar{E}_2 \bar{E}_1 I = C & \textcircled{2} \end{cases}$$

Now,  $\textcircled{1} \Rightarrow A = (\bar{E}_r \cdots \bar{E}_1)^{-1} = \bar{E}_1^{-1} \cdots \bar{E}_r^{-1}$

So  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1} = (\bar{E}_1^{-1} \cdots \bar{E}_r^{-1})^{-1} = \bar{E}_r \bar{E}_{r-1} \cdots \bar{E}_2 \bar{E}_1 \stackrel{\textcircled{2}}{=} C.$

□

## 2. Invertible linear maps.

Def: A linear map  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is called invertible if there is a linear map  $S: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $S \circ T = \underline{\text{Id}}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  and  $T \circ S = \text{Id}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$

where  $\text{Id}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  denotes the identity map with  $\text{Id}_{\mathbb{R}^n}(x) = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Thm: Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear map and let  $A$  be its standard matrix. (e.g.,  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ). Then

the following are equivalent: (1)  $T$  is inv. (2)  $A$  is inv.

(3)  $T$  is surj (4)  $T$  is inj (5)  $T$  is both inj and surj.

(6)  $\text{EF}(A)$  has zero rows, ...

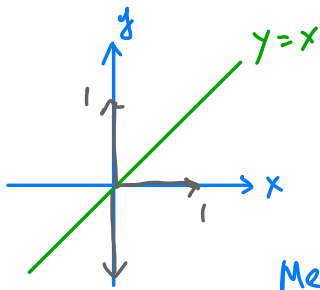
Moreover, if  $T$  is invertible (hence  $A$  is inv.), then the standard matrix of  $T^{-1}$  is  $A^{-1}$ , i.e.,  $T^{-1}(x) = A^{-1} \cdot x$ .  $\square$

Ex. Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be the map that first reflects points across  $y=x$  and then reflects points across the  $x$ -axis. Is  $T$  invertible? If so, find the formula for the inverse map.

$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ as usual

Sol.



We first find the standard matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} T(e_1) & T(e_2) \end{bmatrix}$  of  $T$ .

$$T(e_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(e_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{so } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Method 1.  $0 \cdot 0 - 1 \cdot (-1) = 1 \neq 0$ , so  $A$  is inv and  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Method 2.  $B = [A | I] = \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right],$

so  $A$  is inv and  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$I_2$

By the theorem,  $T^{-1}(v) = A^{-1} \cdot v$ , i.e.,  $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -y \\ x \end{bmatrix}$ .  
□

Eg. Find the inverse map of the linear map  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} x-3y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ .

Soln: Note that the standard matrix  $A$  of  $T$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

(two ways to get  $A$ .  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1} \text{ note that } \begin{bmatrix} x-3y \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ \textcircled{2} \text{ compute } A = \left[ T(e_1) \mid T(e_2) \right] = \left[ T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) \mid T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \right] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right.$ )

E.x. find  $A^{-1}$ , then compute  $T^{-1}\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ .

### 3. Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$

The set  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an example of a "vector space".

We'll define subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Def: A subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

if (1) the zero vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is in  $S$ . → "closure under addition"

(2) for all  $u, v \in S$ , we have  $u+v \in S$  as well.

and (3) for all  $v \in S$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $cv \in S$  as well. → "closure under scaling"

Examples/Nonexamples.

(a).  $n=2$ .  $S = \{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix} \}$ :  $S$  is not a subspace;

it violates all of (1) - (3)

(b)  $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  : not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ; it satisfies condition (1) but fails conditions (2) and (3).

(2) take  $u = v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , then  $u+v = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \notin S$ .

(3) take  $v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $c = 3$ , then  $cv = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \notin S$ .

(c).  $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  :  $S$  satisfies all of (1) - (3), so it's a subspace.

(d) For any  $n$  and any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the set  $S = \text{Span}\{v\} = \{cv \mid c \in \mathbb{R}\}$

is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  : (1).  $0 = 0 \cdot v \in S$  ✓ (2)  $c_1 v + c_2 v = \underbrace{(c_1 + c_2)}_c v \in S$ . ✓  
(3)  $d \underbrace{(cv)}_c = \underline{(dc)} v \in S$ . ✓

Next time:

More basic proofs  
about subspaces.