

Mon Feb 11

HW 4 due Fri

Office Hours Today 2-3

Reminder: Exam 1 is Fri May 1.

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Point of View:

We think of  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$

as a function that sends vector  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$

to vector  $\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x + a_{12}y \\ a_{21}x + a_{22}y \end{pmatrix}$

$$= x \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Eg Matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is the function that rotates vectors by  $90^\circ$  c.c.w.

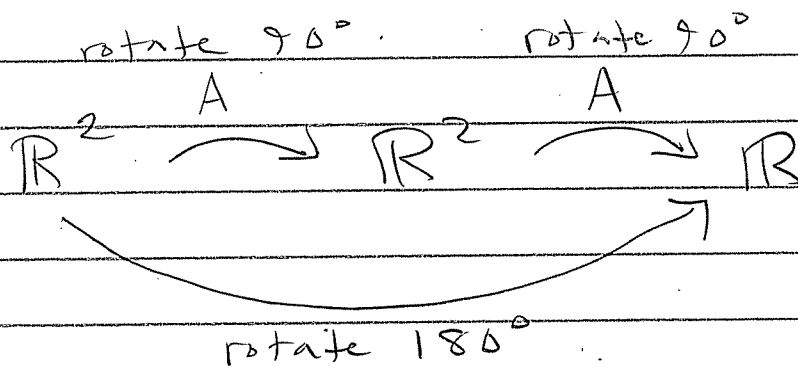
So what?

Functions can be composed.

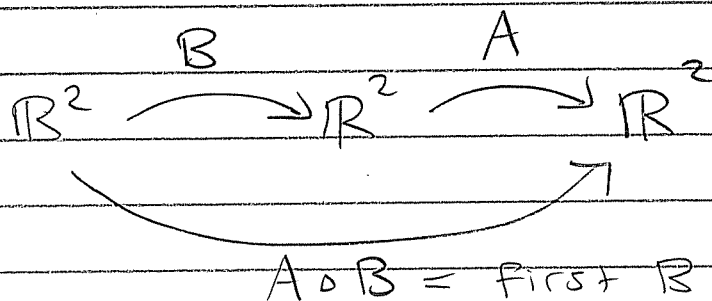
Let  $\mathbb{R}^2$  be the set of vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ .

$\mathbb{R}^2 =$  the Cartesian plane.

Schematically, we can draw functions as arrows



For general  $2 \times 2$  matrices  $A$  &  $B$ ,



$A \circ B$  is the composition of functions

$A \circ B =$  "A follows B".

Question: Is  $A \circ B$  also a matrix?

Answer: Yes! Let's compute what it is.

$$\text{Say } A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Starting with  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ , first do B

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11}x + b_{12}y \\ b_{21}x + b_{22}y \end{pmatrix}$$

then do A.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11}x + b_{12}y \\ b_{21}x + b_{22}y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}(b_{11}x + b_{12}y) + a_{12}(b_{21}x + b_{22}y) \\ a_{21}(b_{11}x + b_{12}y) + a_{22}(b_{21}x + b_{22}y) \end{pmatrix}$$

(Okay, factor out x and y.)

$$= \begin{pmatrix} (a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21})x + (a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22})y \\ (a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21})x + (a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22})y \end{pmatrix}$$

(Can we make it look nicer?)

$$= x \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

this matrix does "B and then A"  
what should we call it?

We can call it  $A \circ B$ .

But usually we shorten it to just  $AB$ .

The matrix product.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \overline{a_{11}} & \overline{a_{12}} \\ \overline{a_{21}} & \overline{a_{22}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (a_{11}, a_{12}) \circ \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \end{pmatrix} & (a_{11}, a_{12}) \circ \begin{pmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \end{pmatrix} \\ (a_{21}, a_{22}) \circ \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \end{pmatrix} & (a_{21}, a_{22}) \circ \begin{pmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

rows of A  
dot product with  
columns of B.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \\ \vec{a}_{2*} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_{m*} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{b}_{*1} & \vec{b}_{*2} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \vec{b}_{*1} & \vec{b}_{*2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*1} & \vec{a}_{1*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*2} \\ \vec{a}_{2*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*1} & \vec{a}_{2*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*2} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \vec{a}_{m*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*1} & \vec{a}_{m*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*2} \end{pmatrix}$$

This suggests how to define the product of general matrices.

$$\text{Suppose } A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_{m*} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_n$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{b}_{*1} & \dots & \vec{b}_{*p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_p$

Then we define

$$A \cdot B = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*1} & \dots & \vec{a}_{1*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vec{a}_{m*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*1} & & \vec{a}_{m*} \cdot \vec{b}_{*p} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_p$   
 $m \times p$

$m \times n$     $n \times p$   
 cancel

In short: IF

# columns of A = # rows of B,

we can define matrix AB where

entry of AB in row  $i$  & col  $j$  = (row  $i$  of A)  $\cdot$  (col  $j$  of B)

otherwise, AB is NOT DEFINED.

Examples:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad (1 \ 2 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = (1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot (-1)) \\ = (7)$$

$1 \times 3 \quad 3 \times 1 \quad 1 \times 1$

$n$ -row  $\cdot$   $n$ -col =  $1 \times 1$  matrix  
(number)

[ The dot product is a special example of the matrix product. ]

② Square Matrices can always multiply

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A \cdot B & = & AB \\ \underbrace{\quad \quad} & & \underbrace{\quad \quad} \\ n \times n \quad n \times n & & n \times n \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} B \cdot A & = & BA \\ \underbrace{\quad \quad} & & \underbrace{\quad \quad} \\ n \times n \quad n \times n & & n \times n \end{array}$$

But, watch out!

Usually we have  $AB \neq BA$   
(not commutative)

eg. let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

#

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Wed Feb 13

HW 4 due Fri

Office Hours Today 3-4

Exam 1 Fri Mar 1.

Today: Matrix Algebra

The matrix product is a simultaneous generalization of

(1) Multiplication of numbers

$$(1 \times 1) \cdot (1 \times 1) = (1 \times 1)$$

(2) Dot product of vectors

row  $\cdot$  column = number

$$(1 \times n) \cdot (n \times 1) = (1 \times 1)$$

(3) Composition of Functions

$$(\text{Rotate by } \alpha) \circ (\text{Rotate by } \beta) = \text{Rotate by } \alpha + \beta$$



The definition has a few forms.

Given  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and

$n \times p$  matrix  $B$

we define the  $m \times p$  matrix  $AB$  by

•  $i, j$  entry of  $AB = (\textit{i}^{\text{th}} \textit{row } A) (\textit{j}^{\text{th}} \textit{col } B)$   
 $1 \times 1 \qquad 1 \times n \qquad n \times 1$

•  $i^{\text{th}} \textit{ row of } AB = (\textit{i}^{\text{th}} \textit{ row } A) \cdot B$   
 $1 \times p \qquad 1 \times n \qquad n \times p$

•  $j^{\text{th}} \textit{ col of } AB = A \cdot (\textit{j}^{\text{th}} \textit{ col } B)$   
 $m \times 1 \qquad m \times n \qquad n \times 1$

Example:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 & 1(-1) + 0 \cdot 3 \\ 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 0 & 0(-1) + 1 \cdot 3 \\ 2 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 0 & 2(-1) + 1 \cdot 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

$$\text{OR } AB = A \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \left( A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad A \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \left( \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \left( 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + 0 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, -1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{as expected } \checkmark$$

$$\text{OR } AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} B = \begin{pmatrix} (1 \ 0) B \\ (0 \ 1) B \\ (2 \ 1) B \end{pmatrix} = \text{etc.}$$

Note  $BA$  is NOT DEFINED.

Matrix Algebra behaves mostly as you expect.

Let  $A, B, C$  be matrices

Let  $\alpha$  be a number.

If the sums and products are defined, then we have.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A+B &= B+A \\ \alpha(A+B) &= \alpha A + \alpha B \\ A+(B+C) &= (A+B)+C \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{addition} \\ \text{laws.} \end{array}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A(\alpha B) &= (\alpha A)B = \alpha(AB) \\ C(A+B) &= CA + CB \\ (A+B)C &= AC + BC \\ A(BC) &= (AB)C \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{product} \\ \text{laws.} \end{array}$$

However, BE CAREFUL.

We generally have

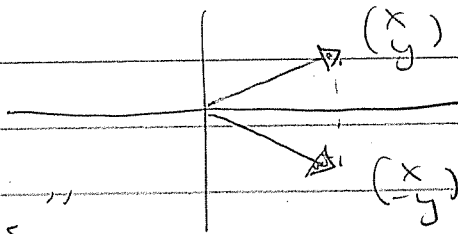
$$AB \neq BA$$

even when both are defined.

Example:

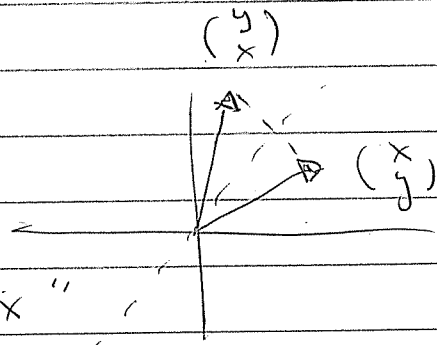
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Reflect across x-axis



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

Reflect across line  $y=x$



Then

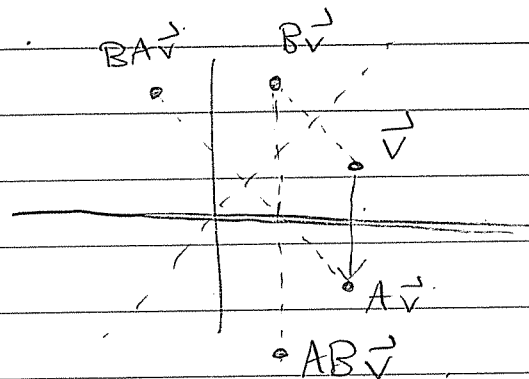
$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

"Rotate  $90^\circ$  c.w."

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

"Rotate  $90^\circ$  c.c.w."

So  $AB \neq BA$



## Application of Matrix Algebra :

Problem 2.2.11 from HW 3.

A system of linear equations can't have just 2 solutions. Why?

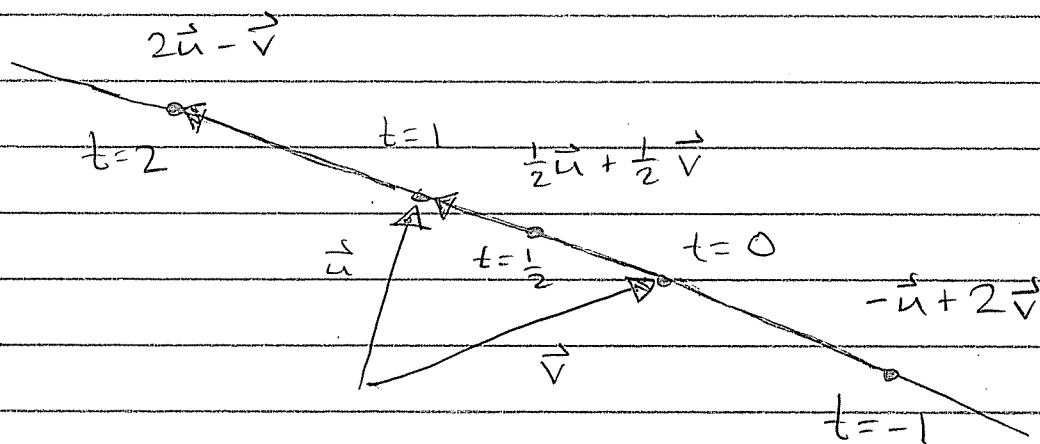
Consider the linear system

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

and suppose we have 2 solutions, say

$$A\vec{u} = \vec{b} \quad \& \quad A\vec{v} = \vec{b}$$

Thinking of  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}$  as points in some  $n$ -dimensional space, what is the line that connects them?



The line connecting  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  has parametric equation

$$t\vec{u} + (1-t)\vec{v} \quad \text{for all } t.$$

Claim: Then every point on the line satisfies  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ .

Indeed, let  $\vec{x} = t\vec{u} + (1-t)\vec{v}$ . Then

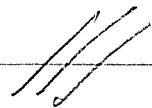
$$A\vec{x} = A(t\vec{u} + (1-t)\vec{v}).$$

$$= tA\vec{u} + (1-t)A\vec{v}$$

$$= t\vec{b} + (1-t)\vec{b}$$

$$= \cancel{t\vec{b}} + \vec{b} - \cancel{t\vec{b}}$$

$$= \vec{b}.$$



Hence  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  must have  $\infty$  many solutions, including a whole line.

HW 3 total 30  
Ave 28

Fri Feb 15

HW 4 due NOW

HW 5 due next Fri Feb 22

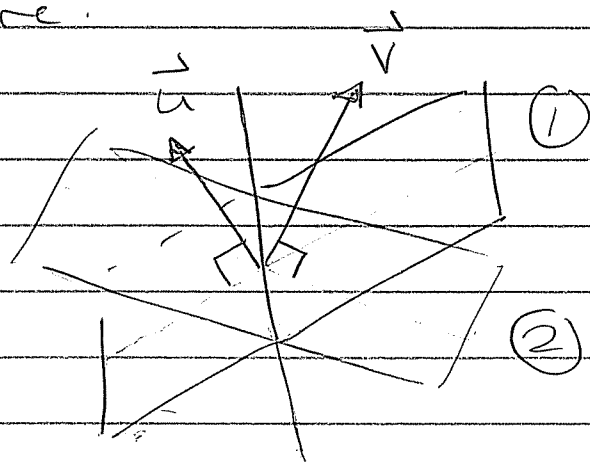
Exam 1 Fri Mar 1

Today: HW 4 discussion.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} u_1 x + u_2 y + u_3 z = 0 & (1) \\ v_1 x + v_2 y + v_3 z = 0 & (2) \end{cases}$$

$$\text{In vector form } \begin{cases} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{x} = 0 & (1) \\ \vec{v} \cdot \vec{x} = 0 & (2) \end{cases}$$

Picture:



Solutions  $\vec{x}$  are  $\perp$  to both  $\vec{u}$  &  $\vec{v}$ .

We expect a line of solutions

unless  $\vec{u} = k\vec{v}$

$$(1) = k(2)$$

In this case we have

$$u_1 = kv_1, \quad u_2 = kv_2, \quad u_3 = kv_3$$

$$\boxed{\frac{u_1}{v_1} = \frac{u_2}{v_2} = \frac{u_3}{v_3}} = k$$

BAD.

So let's assume either  $\frac{u_1}{v_1} \neq \frac{u_2}{v_2}$  ✓

or  $\frac{u_2}{v_2} \neq \frac{u_3}{v_3}$ , or both.

Without loss of generality, say.

$$\frac{u_1}{v_1} \neq \frac{u_2}{v_2} \implies u_1 v_2 \neq u_2 v_1$$

$$\implies u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1 \neq 0$$

Also assume without loss that  $u_1 \neq 0$ .

Now let's solve:

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & 0 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{2} \end{array}$$



Replace ② by  $② - \frac{v_1}{u_1} ①$ .

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & v_2 - \frac{v_1}{u_1} u_2 & v_3 - \frac{v_1}{u_1} u_3 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & \frac{u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1}{u_1} & \frac{u_1 v_3 - u_3 v_1}{u_1} & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Multiply by  $u_1$  to get.

$$\begin{array}{l} ①' \\ ②' \end{array} \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & 0 \\ 0 & u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1 & u_1 v_3 - u_3 v_1 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Next replace ①' by  $①' - \left( \frac{u_2}{u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1} \right) ②'$ :

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1 & 0 & u_3 - \left( \frac{u_2}{u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1} \right) (u_1 v_3 - u_3 v_1) & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1 & 0 & \frac{u_3 (u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1) - u_2 (u_1 v_3 - u_3 v_1)}{u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1} & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1 & 0 & \frac{u_3 \downarrow u_1 v_2 - u_3 \cancel{u_2 v_1} - u_2 \downarrow u_1 v_3 + u_2 \cancel{u_3 v_1}}{u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1} & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Multiply through by  $u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1$  :

$$\left( u_1(u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) \quad 0 \quad u_1(u_3v_2 - u_2v_3) \quad | \quad 0 \right)$$

Divide by  $u_1$  to get

$$\begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1}'' \\ \textcircled{2}'' \end{array} \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 & 0 & u_3v_2 - u_2v_3 & 0 \\ 0 & u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 & u_1v_3 - u_3v_1 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$\begin{array}{ccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \text{pivot variables} & & \text{free variable} \\ x, y & & z \end{array}$

Let  $z = t$ . Then

$$x = - \left( \frac{u_3v_2 - u_2v_3}{u_1v_2 - u_2v_1} \right) t$$

$$y = - \left( \frac{u_1v_3 - u_3v_1}{u_1v_2 - u_2v_1} \right) t$$

$$z = t$$

I don't like that. Reparametrize:

$$\text{Let } t = (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) \cdot s$$

Finally we have

$$x = (u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2) s$$

$$y = (u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3) s$$

$$z = (u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1) s$$



So we never have to do this again,  
let's give it a name.

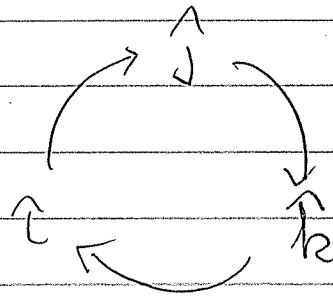
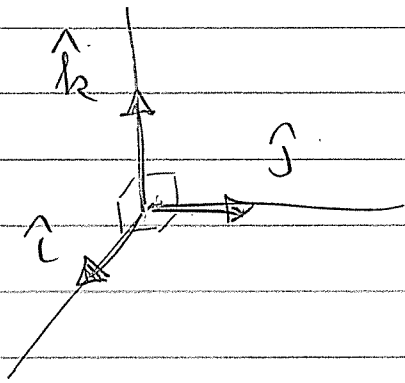
Define the cross product

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2 \\ u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3 \\ u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Very important in physics/chemistry.

Define the standard basis vectors

$$\hat{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{j} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{k} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



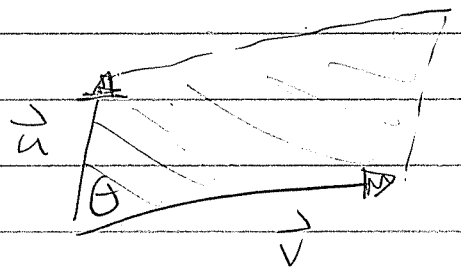
Then  $\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k}$   
 $\hat{j} \times \hat{k} = \hat{i}$   
 $\hat{k} \times \hat{i} = \hat{j}$  } "Right-Handed" System.

In general, note.

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = -(\vec{v} \times \vec{u})$$

anti-commutative

Fun Fact: Given



$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\| \cdot \cos \theta$$

$$\|\vec{u} \times \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\| \cdot \sin \theta$$

= area of parallelogram.

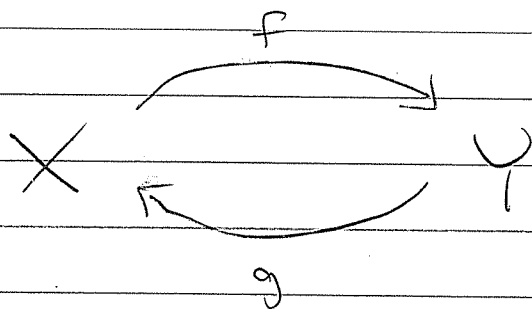
HW 5 due Fri

Office Hours Today 2-3

Exam 1 Fri Mar 1.

When is a function invertible?

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be sets. We say a function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is invertible if there exists a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$



such that

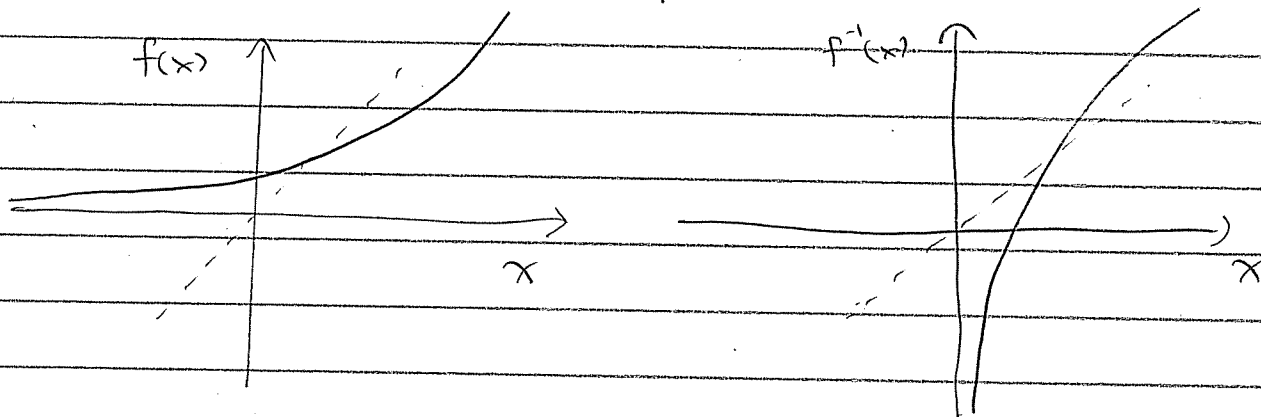
- $g \circ f =$  "do nothing" function on  $X$ . ("identity")
- $f \circ g =$  "do nothing" function on  $Y$

Notation: In this case we say

$$g = f^{-1} = \text{the inverse of } f$$

## Examples from Calculus:

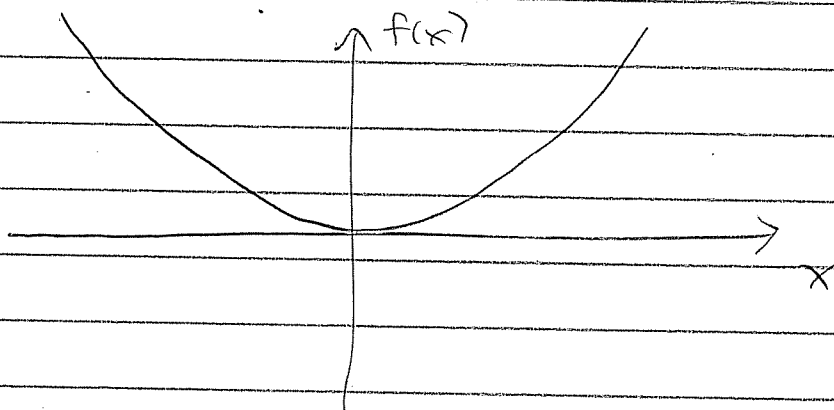
- ① The function  $f(x) = e^x$   
 $f$ : all numbers  $\rightarrow$  positive numbers



is invertible with inverse  $f^{-1}(x) = \log(x)$ .

Check:  $e^{\log(x)} = \log(e^x) = x \quad \checkmark$

- ② The function  $f(x) = x^2$   
 $f$ : all numbers  $\rightarrow$  positive numbers

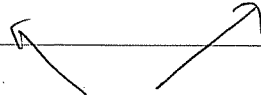


is NOT invertible! Why not?

$\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  $\mathbb{R}$ 

Suppose we had  $f^{-1}: \text{pos. numbers} \rightarrow \text{all numbers}$

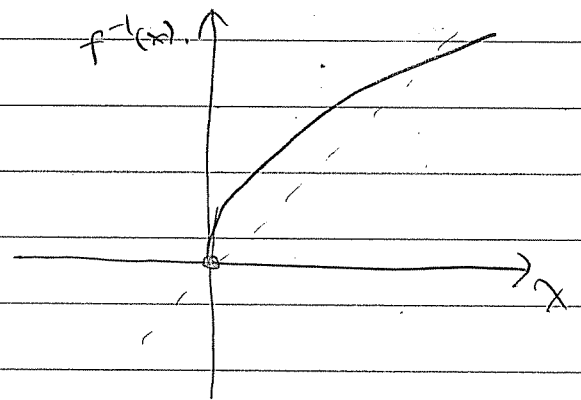
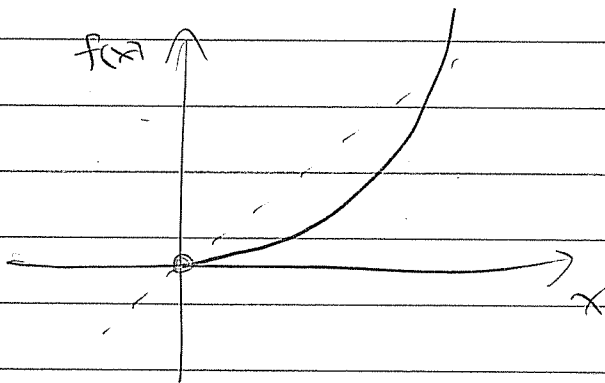
Then  $f^{-1}(4) = 2$ , or  $-2$  ?



we must make a choice.

So we change the domain:

$f(x) = x^2$  from  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  pos. numbers  $\rightarrow$   $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  pos. numbers



Now it's invertible with  $f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Check } f \circ f^{-1}(x) &= f(f^{-1}(x)) \\ &= f(\sqrt{x}) \\ &= (\sqrt{x})^2 = x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } f^{-1} \circ f(x) &= f^{-1}(f(x)) \\ &= f^{-1}(x^2) \\ &= \sqrt{x^2} = x \end{aligned}$$

When is a matrix function invertible?

Say  $A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by

$$\vec{x} \mapsto A\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{pmatrix}$$

Can we find another matrix that undoes this?

We want matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that

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

Suppose  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$ .

By definition of multiplication we have

$$AA^{-1} = A \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} = \left( A \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} \quad A \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

which gives two matrix equations

$$A \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \& \quad A \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

SOLVE FOR  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ !



Example: let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$ ,

$$\text{so } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ \& } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Solve: } \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/2 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 3/2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/2 \end{array} \right)$$

We conclude  $\alpha = 3/2$ ,  $\gamma = -1/2$ .

$$\text{Next, } \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 \end{array} \right)$$

We conclude  $\beta = -1/2$ ,  $\delta = 1/2$ .

$$\Rightarrow A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 3/2 & -1/2 \\ -1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's Check:

$$A A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} + & + \\ + & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3/2 & -1/2 \\ -1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

$$A^{-1} A = \begin{pmatrix} 3/2 & -1/2 \\ -1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

We are happy.

TRICK (Gauss Jordan Method):

We could have solved both systems at once:

$$\left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/2 & 1/2 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 3/2 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/2 & 1/2 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\boxed{\left( A \mid I \right) \xrightarrow{\text{RREF.}} \left( I \mid A^{-1} \right)}$$

Try to invert  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$  :

$$\left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

↑  
oops. No pivot!

This means  $A^{-1}$  does not exist

Say "A is not invertible"

or "A is a singular matrix"

Fun Fact :

Matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case

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

Wed Feb 20

HW 5 due Friday  
Office Hours Today 3-4

Recall the matrix product.

Given  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and  $n \times p$  matrix  $B$   
define the  $m \times p$  matrix  $AB$  by

$i, j$  entry  $AB = (i\text{th row } A)(j\text{th col } B)$

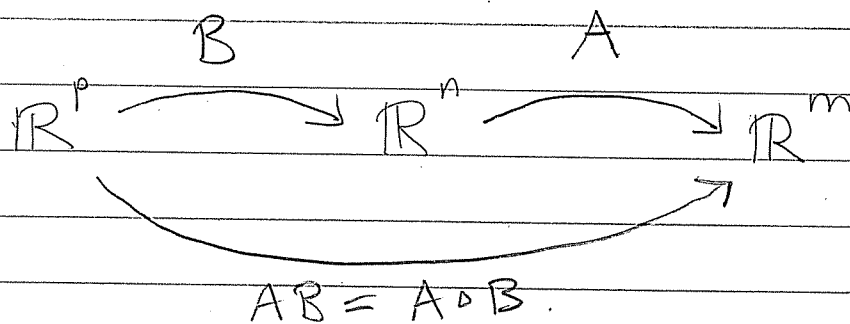
OR  $i\text{th row } AB = (i\text{th row } A) B$

OR  $j\text{th col. } AB = A(j\text{th col } B)$ .

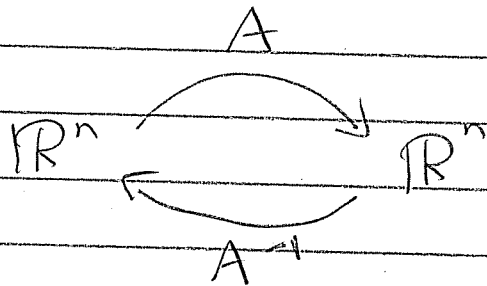
It has the defining property:

$$A(B\vec{x}) = (AB)\vec{x}$$

for all  $p \times 1$  column vectors  $\vec{x}$ .  
This is composition of functions.



If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  square, then it might have an inverse



i.e.  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

But it might not.

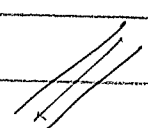
To compute the inverse, apply row operations to the augmented matrix

$$(A \mid I) \xrightarrow{\text{RREF}} (I \mid A^{-1})$$

"Gauss-Jordan method"

If elimination fails it means  $A^{-1}$  does not exist.

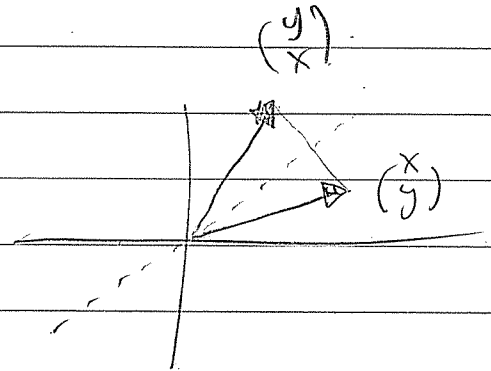
i.e. "A is not invertible"  
OR "A is singular"



Sometimes we can guess the inverse without computation.

$$\text{eg } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix}$$

"Reflect across line  $y=x$ ".



Reflect twice = Do nothing.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

==

$$\text{eg. Let } R_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

= rotate by  $\theta$  c.c.w.

Rotate by  $0$  = Do nothing.

$$R_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Rotate by  $\theta$ )  $\circ$  (Rotate by  $-\theta$ ) = Do nothing.

$$R_\theta R_{-\theta} = I$$

Hence

$$R_{\theta}^{-1} = R_{-\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(-\theta) & -\sin(-\theta) \\ \sin(-\theta) & \cos(-\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

eg. "Diagonal" matrices are easy.

If  $a, b, c \neq 0$  Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/c \end{pmatrix}$$

otherwise the inverse doesn't exist.

eg.  $E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$E\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 - 2x_1 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can undo this by adding 2 times the 1st coord. to the 2nd coord.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 - 2x_1 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ (x_2 - 2x_1) + 2x_1 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

We conclude

$$E^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

These  $E, E^{-1}$  are called "elementary matrices" or "elimination matrices".

Why?

Consider a  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -\vec{a}_{1*} & - \\ -\vec{a}_{2*} & - \\ -\vec{a}_{3*} & - \end{pmatrix}$  ①

Then  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \\ \vec{a}_{2*} \\ \vec{a}_{3*} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_{1*} \\ \vec{a}_{2*} - 2\vec{a}_{1*} \\ \vec{a}_{3*} \end{pmatrix}$  ②-2①

We subtracted 2① from ②



We can do the whole elimination process with "elimination matrices"

$$E_k \cdots E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I$$

So what? Then we have

$$A^{-1} = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_3 E_2 E_1$$

Example:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Elimination

$$\begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{2} \end{matrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1}' = \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{2}' = \textcircled{2} - \textcircled{1} \end{matrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1}'' = \textcircled{1}' \\ \textcircled{2}'' = \frac{1}{2} \textcircled{2}' \end{matrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \textcircled{1}''' = \textcircled{1}'' - \textcircled{2}'' \\ \textcircled{2}''' = \textcircled{2}'' \end{matrix}$$

We did it in 3 steps.

Matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{elementary matrices}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{I}.$$

elementary matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$



Fri Feb 22

HW5 due NOW

Exam 1 next Friday in class

- closed book

- no cheating

Today: HW5 discussion

Recall, we can do elimination with  
"elimination matrices"  $E$ . If

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

Then  $EA = (\textit{i}^{\text{th}} \text{ row } A)$  by  
 $(\textit{i}^{\text{th}} \text{ row } A) + l(\textit{j}^{\text{th}} \text{ row } A)$ .

Eg                              3.

$$1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & l \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+lg & b+lh & c+li \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}$$

Replace  $(a \ b \ c)$  by  $(a \ b \ c) + l(g \ h \ i)$   
          (1)                        (1) + l · (3)



Goal: Apply elementary matrices to convert  $A$  into  $I$ . If possible, we get

$$\underbrace{E_k \cdots E_2 E_1}_{} A = I.$$

the inverse of  $A$ .

$$A^{-1} = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_2 E_1$$

This explains the Gauss-Jordan method.

$$(A \mid I)$$

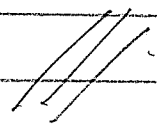
$$\rightarrow (E_1 A \mid E_1 I)$$

$$\rightarrow (E_2 E_1 A \mid E_2 E_1 I)$$

⋮

$$\rightarrow (E_k \cdots E_1 A \mid E_k \cdots E_1 I)$$

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



Example Computation:  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$ .

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 1 & & 1 & & \\ & 1 & 2 & & 1 & \\ & & 1 & 2 & & \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} \textcircled{1} & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & 2 & 1 & & 1 & \\ & & 1 & 2 & & \end{array} \right) \frac{1}{2} \textcircled{1}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & 3/2 & 1 & -1/2 & 1 & \\ & & 1 & 2 & & \end{array} \right) \textcircled{2} - \frac{1}{2} \textcircled{1}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & \textcircled{1} & 2/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 & \\ & & 2 & & 1 & \end{array} \right) \frac{2}{3} \textcircled{2}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & 1 & 2/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 & \\ & & 4/3 & 1/3 & -2/3 & 1 \end{array} \right) \textcircled{3} - \textcircled{2}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & 1 & 2/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 & \\ & & \textcircled{1} & 1/4 & -2/4 & 3/4 \end{array} \right) \frac{3}{4} \textcircled{3}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1/2 & & 1/2 & & \\ & \textcircled{1} & & -1/2 & 1 & -1/2 \\ & & 1 & 1/4 & -2/4 & 3/4 \end{array} \right) \textcircled{2} - \frac{2}{3} \textcircled{3}$$

$$\rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & & & 3/4 & -1/2 & 1/4 \\ & 1 & & -1/2 & 1 & -1/2 \\ & & 1 & 1/4 & -1/2 & 3/4 \end{array} \right) \textcircled{1} - \frac{1}{2} \textcircled{2}$$

Conclusion.

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right)^{-1} = \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 3/4 & -1/2 & 1/4 \\ -1/2 & 1 & -1/2 \\ 1/4 & -1/2 & 3/4 \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{😊}$$

Q: When does Gauss-Jordan fail?

A: When elimination on A creates a row of zeroes.

If this happens it means we have

$$c_1(\text{row } 1) + c_2(\text{row } 2) + \dots + c_n(\text{row } n) = \vec{0}$$

for some nontrivial coefficients  $c_i$ .  
(i.e. not all zero).

"redundancy"

We call this a "dependence" among the rows.

Eg. The vectors  $(1, 1, 2)$ ,  $(2, -1, -1)$   
and  $(-2, 4, 6)$  are dependent

$$1(1, 1, 2) - 1(2, -1, -1) + \frac{1}{2}(-2, 4, 6) = (0, 0, 0)$$

This means that

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -2 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \text{ has no inverse}$$

In fact, we can say:

For a square matrix  $A$ .

$A$  is invertible  $\iff$  Rows of  $A$   
are independent



HW 4 Average 28/30:

Exam 4 this Friday

- absolutely NO CHEATING.

Office Hours Today 2-3

Now: Discussion of inverses.

True or False: Invertible matrices  
are square.

TRUE!

One can imagine  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and  
 $n \times m$  matrix  $B$  such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & B & = I_m \\ m \times n & n \times m & m \times m \text{ identity} \end{array}$$

and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} B \cdot A & = & I_n \\ n \times m & m \times n & n \times n \text{ identity} \end{array}$$

But it turns out this is  
impossible unless  $m = n$ .

Example: Try to find the "inverse" of  $2 \times 3$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Say  $B = \begin{pmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{pmatrix}$ . We want

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+2b+3c & d+2e+3f \\ a+b+c & d+e+f \end{pmatrix} \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Get 4 linear equations:

$$a + 2b + 3c = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$a + b + c = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$d + 2e + 3f = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$d + e + f = 1 \quad (4)$$

... some work ... (omitted)

pivot variables  $a, b, d, e$ .

free parameters  $c = s, f = t$ .

Solution:

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Lots of "right inverses"

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We also want

$$BA = \begin{pmatrix} a & d \\ b & e \\ c & f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+d & 2a+d & 3a+d \\ b+e & 2b+e & 3b+e \\ c+f & 2c+f & 3c+f \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Get 9 linear equations

$$a + d = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$b + e = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$c + f = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$2a + d = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$2b + e = 1 \quad (5)$$

$$2c + f = 0 \quad (6)$$

$$3a + d = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$3b + e = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$3c + f = 1 \quad (9)$$

9 linear equations in 6 unknowns  
probably HAS NO SOLUTION.

I'll show this with less work.

Observe that

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

Now suppose  $B \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Then we must have

$$B \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Is this possible? NO.

      
In general, if  $A$  sends some nonzero  $\vec{x}$  to  $\vec{0}$ , then  $A$  HAS NO LEFT INVERSE

Otherwise:  $BA = I$

Then  $BA \vec{x} = I \vec{x}$

$$B \vec{0} = \vec{x} \neq \vec{0} \text{ IMPOSSIBLE!}$$

In general, consider  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{A} \mathbb{R}^m$$

Consider the system

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \quad \begin{array}{l} m \text{ linear equations} \\ \text{in } n \text{ unknowns} \end{array}$$

If  $m < n$  there will be  $\infty$  many solutions.

Choose  $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$  with  $A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ .

It follows that  $A$  has  
NO LEFT INVERSE,

so  $A$  is not "invertible"