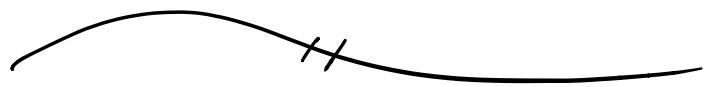


HW4 due Thursday before class.

Office Hours Today : 1:45 - 2:15

Tomorrow : 4-5.



Recall, if A is $l \times m$ & B is $m \times n$ then the matrix AB exists. It has shape $l \times n$ and is defined by requiring that

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

for all $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Meaning : AB is the matrix of the linear function $A \circ B$.

How to compute? Memorize!

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

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

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

dot product!

One more formula:

$$AB = \sum_{k=1}^m (\text{kth col } A) (\text{kth row } B)$$

↑
NOT dot product!

Remark: If $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are $n \times 1$ column vectors, then

$\vec{x}^T \vec{y}$ is 1×1 matrix, i.e., scalar.

It is just the dot product.

If $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is $m \times 1$

$\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is $n \times 1$

then $\vec{x} \vec{y}^T$ is an $n \times m$ matrix,

it is not a scalar. Matrices of the form (column)(row) are called

"rank 1 matrices" because they have rank 1 (one pivot in RREF).

We will see more of them when we discuss "projection."

Example :

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

(2nd row AB)

$$= (2\text{nd row } A) B$$

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

$$= (1-2+0 \quad 0+2+6 \quad 1+0+9)$$

$$= (-1 \ 8 \ 10)$$

(3rd col AB)

$$= A (3\text{rd col } B)$$

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

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1+0+3 \\ 1+0+9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally :

$$AB = \sum_{k=1}^3 (\text{kth col } A) (\text{kth row } B)$$

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

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1-1+0 & 0+1+2 & 1+0+3 \\ 1-2+0 & 0+2+6 & 1+0+9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 8 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

Rules of Matrix Arithmetic :

Let A, B, C be matrices,

Let s, t be scalars,

Then the following formulas hold
(whenever they are defined):

$$A + B = B + A$$

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

$$AO = O \quad \& \quad OA = O$$

$$AI = A \quad \& \quad IA = A$$

[O & I are zero & identity matrices]

$$(s+t)A = sA + tA$$

$$t(A+B) = tA + tB$$

$$A(BC) = (AB)C$$

$$A(B+C) = AB + AC$$

$$(A+B)C = AC + BC$$

Note that this includes vector arithmetic as a special case because:

- vectors are matrices,
- dot product is matrix multiplication.

Warning: $AB \neq BA$ in general.

One more operation: Transpose.

$$(ij \text{ entry } A^T) = (ji \text{ entry } A).$$

Then I claim:

$$(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T \quad (\text{Surprise!})$$

Let's check:

Suppose A is $l \times m$, B is $m \times n$, so that AB is $l \times n$.

Then A^T is $m \times l$, B^T is $n \times m$, so

that $A^T B^T$ is not defined

(unless $l=n$). However, $B^T A^T$ is

always defined and has shape

$$B^T \cdot A^T = B^T A^T$$

$$n \times \boxed{m} \quad \boxed{m} \times l \quad \quad n \times l$$

match ✓

So, $(AB)^T$ & $B^T A^T$ exist

and have the same shape. So they must be equal, right?

Check:

$$\begin{aligned} & ij \text{ entry } (AB)^T \\ &= ji \text{ entry } AB \\ &= (j\text{th row } A) \underset{\uparrow}{(i\text{th col } B)} \\ &\quad \text{dot product is symmetric} \\ &= (i\text{th row } B^T) \underset{\downarrow}{(j\text{th col } A^T)} \\ &= ij \text{ entry } B^T A^T \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$A = (1 \ 2 \ 3), \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AB = (1+0+3 \quad 0+2+6) = (4 \ 8)$$

$$(AB)^T = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

On the other hand:

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B^T A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1+0+3 \\ 0+2+6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$



Invertibility:

We say that A & B are inverse matrices if

$$AB = I \quad \& \quad BA = I.$$

Remarks:

- If B exists, it is unique so we can call it the inverse

of A & give it a special notation:

" A^{-1} " = the inverse of A

- If A^{-1} exists then A must be SQUARE. (Subtle.)
- If A, B are SQUARE and if $AB = I$ then necessarily $BA = I$. (Subtle and hard to prove!)

Thus we only have to check one of the equations $AB = I$ \Leftrightarrow
 $BA = I$ \smile



How to compute the inverse (or show that it doesn't exist):

Sometimes we can use geometry.

Examples:

• Let R_θ be 2×2 matrix that rotates c.c.w. by angle θ .

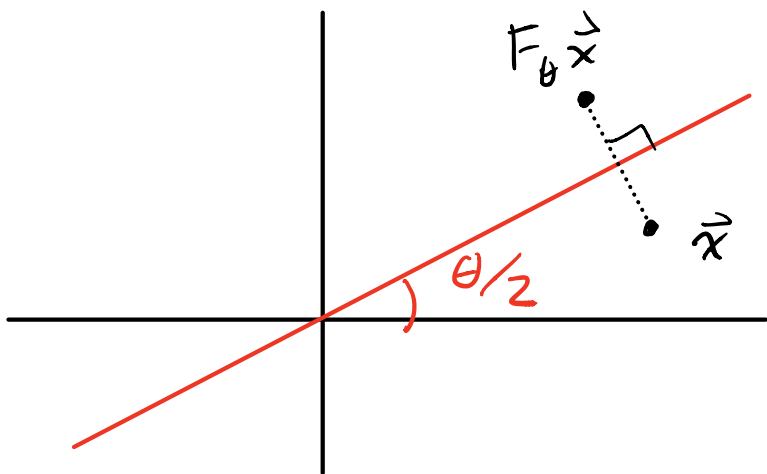
Then R_θ^{-1} exist and

$$\begin{aligned} R_\theta^{-1} &= \text{rotate clockwise by } \theta \\ &= \text{rotate c.c.w. by } -\theta \\ &= R_{-\theta}. \end{aligned}$$

Explicitly:

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

• Let F_θ be 2×2 matrix that reflects across the line with angle $\frac{\theta}{2}$



Then F_θ^{-1} = do the same
reflection again
 $= F_\theta$

Remark: Multiply both sides
by F_θ to get

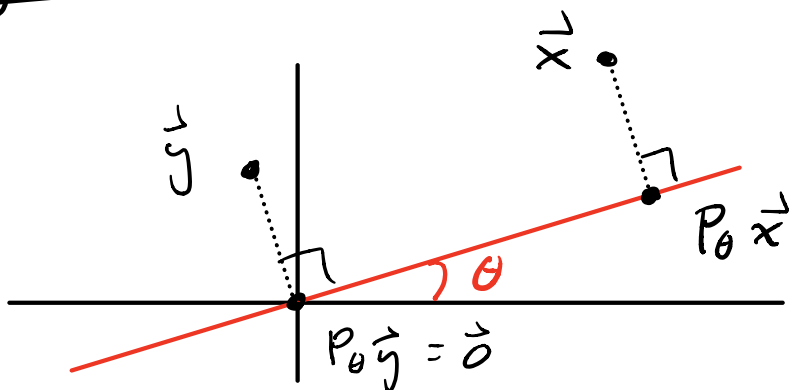
$$F_\theta = F_\theta^{-1}$$

$$F_\theta F_\theta = F_\theta F_\theta^{-1}$$

$$(F_\theta)^2 = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Meaning: Performing the same
reflection twice is the same as
"doing nothing."

- Let P_θ be 2×2 matrix that
projects onto the line of slope θ :



I claim that P_θ^{-1} does not exist.

Why not?

Let \vec{y} be any nonzero vector that projects to zero:

$$P_\theta \vec{y} = \vec{0}$$

But then the inverse P_θ^{-1} cannot exist. If it did, then we could multiply on the left to get

$$P_\theta^{-1} P_\theta \vec{y} = P_\theta^{-1} \vec{0}$$

$$I \vec{y} = \vec{0}$$

$$\vec{y} = \vec{0}$$

Contradiction!

[See Hw 4.5 (b).]



Other times we have to use algebra.

Claim: Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ with
determinant $\det(A) = ad - bc$.

Then A^{-1} exists $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$,
in which case, we have

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof: We only need to check
that $A^{-1}A = I$:

$$A^{-1}A = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} ad - bc & bd - bd \\ -ac + ac & -bc + ad \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} \cancel{ad - bc} & 0 \\ 0 & \cancel{ad - bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

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



For general $n \times n$ matrix A , it is still true that

$$A^{-1} \text{ exists } \iff \det(A) \neq 0,$$

but the explicit formula is too terrible to memorize, so instead we use Gaussian elimination to compute it.

The Algorithm:

- Form the "augmented" matrix

$$\left(A \mid \underline{I} \right)$$

\nearrow
 $n \times n$ identity

- Put this matrix in RREF.
- If you obtain a matrix of the form

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B} \end{array} \right)$$

↑
n × n identity

then $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ is the (unique) inverse.

- If you don't obtain a matrix of this form then the inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1} does not exist.

Example: Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

To compute \mathbf{A}^{-1} we form the "augmented" matrix $(\mathbf{A} | \mathbf{I})$ and then compute the RREF:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{2} = \textcircled{2} - 2\textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{3} = \textcircled{3} - 1\textcircled{1} \end{array}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \textcircled{2} = -1\textcircled{2}$$

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

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \textcircled{1} = \textcircled{1} - 2\textcircled{2}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \text{ DONE.}$$

We conclude that the matrix
A is invertible, with inverse

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Check:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -4+8-3 & 2-2+0 & 1-4+3 \\ -8+12-4 & 4-3+0 & 2-6+4 \\ -4+8-4 & 2-2+0 & 1-4+4 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Next time I'll tell you why this method works.