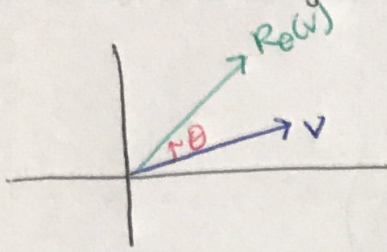


ex (for all those who want visual examples!)

Let $V = W = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $T = R_\theta: V \rightarrow V$ defined by $R_\theta(v) =$ the vector obtained by rotating the vector v through an angle θ while preserving its length.

eg.



Exer for you: If $w = R_\theta(v)$ then $w = \|v\|(\cos(\varphi + \theta), \sin(\varphi + \theta))$ where φ is the angle v makes with the x axis. Check R_θ is a linear map.

R_θ is injective (if $w = R_\theta(u) = R_\theta(v)$ then rotating w by angle $-\theta$ gives $u = v$) and surjective (given w , $R_\theta(R_{-\theta}(w)) = w$.)

Then it has an inverse, $R_{-\theta} \rightarrow$ verify that $R_\theta R_{-\theta} = R_{-\theta} R_\theta = I$.

How does this relate to matrices?

Def: An $n \times n$ matrix A is called invertible if there exists an $n \times n$ matrix B so that

$$AB = BA = I_n \quad \leftarrow \text{the } n \times n \text{ identity matrix } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thm: If A is invertible, the inverse of A is unique.

Proof: on your own.

Thm: If A is invertible, then $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

Proof: Let $B = (A^{-1})^{-1}$. We want to show $B = A$.

By definition, $A^{-1}B = BA^{-1} = I$ and we know $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$.

$$\text{So } A^{-1}B = I = A^{-1}A \Rightarrow A(A^{-1}B) = A(A^{-1}A)$$

$$(AA^{-1})B = (AA^{-1})A \Rightarrow IB = IA \Rightarrow B = A.$$

(other ways to prove as well.)

Thm: If A, B are $n \times n$ invertible matrices then AB is also $n \times n$ and invertible

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

Proof: $AB(\quad) = I$

$$AB(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = A(I_n)A^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I_n \quad \square$$

↑ Sometimes thought of as "socks-shoes" property

In practice, how do we know if a matrix is invertible?

ex: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ if A^{-1} exists, call it $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

then by definition, $AB = I_n \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

That is, $A \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ b_{31} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $A \begin{pmatrix} b_{12} \\ b_{22} \\ b_{32} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $A \begin{pmatrix} b_{13} \\ b_{23} \\ b_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

3 systems of equations, we usually find augmented matrix & row reduce to get solutions. $(A | \begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix})$, $(A | \begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix})$ & $(A | \begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{smallmatrix})$

We can solve all 3 systems at once.

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{R_2+R_1} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \text{continue} \rightarrow$$

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

these are unique solutions to all 3 systems
ie the entries of B.

Then $A^{-1} = B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

check: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$

∴ So: To find inverse, reduce $(A | I_n)$ to $(I_n | A^{-1})$

Thm: An $n \times n$ matrix is invertible \iff its row reduced echelon form is I_n .

Practice: Let's make a huge line of "if and only if" equivalencies.

Thm: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^n

if and only if

$$\begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} \text{ has } n \text{ pivots}$$

if and only if T is injective and surjective

if and only if

$$\dim(V) = n = \dim(W)$$

if and only if

if and only if

$$\text{rref} \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} = I_n$$

T is an isomorphism

if and only if

$$\begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix} \text{ is invertible}$$

if and only if

if and only if

The linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ associated with $\begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible

One More

Ex: We said $\mathcal{L}(V, W) = \{ \text{all linear maps from } V \text{ to } W \}$ is a vector space. To what space is it isomorphic?
 where $\dim(V) = n$ $\dim(W) = m$

Note: a linear transformation $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, V)$ is called a linear operator (since it only operates on V). If V is finite dimensional, what can you say about injectivity/surjectivity/invertibility of T ? What if V is infinite dimensional?