One-sided inverses

These notes are a small extension of the material on pages 53–55 of the text.

Definition 1. Suppose V and W are vector spaces over a field F, and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V,W)$. A left inverse for T is a linear map $S \in \mathcal{L}(W,V)$ with the property that $ST = I_V$ (the identity map on V). That is, we require

$$ST(v) = v$$
 (all $v \in V$).

A right inverse for T is a linear map $S' \in \mathcal{L}(W, V)$ with the property that $TS' = I_W$ (the identity map on W). That is, we require

$$TS'(w) = w \quad (all \ w \in W).$$

What are these things good for? I've said that one of the most basic problems in linear algebra is solving an equation like

$$Tx = c$$
 (QUESTION)

(with $c \in W$ specified); you are to find the unknown $x \in V$. If S is a left inverse of T, then we can apply S to this equation and get

$$x = I_V(x) = STx = Sc.$$
 (LEFT)

What this calculation proves is

Proposition 2. Suppose S is a left inverse of T. Then the only possible solution of (QUESTION) is x = Sc.

This does not say that Sc really is a solution; just that it's the only candidate for a solution. Sometimes that's useful information.

On the other hand, suppose S' is a right inverse of T. Then we can try x = S'c and get

$$Tx = TS'c = I_W c = c.$$
 (RIGHT)

This calculation proves

Proposition 3. Suppose S' is a right inverse of T. Then x = S'c is a solution of (QUESTION).

This time the ambiguity is uniqueness: we have found one solution, but there may be others. Sometimes that's all we need.

Example. Suppose $V = W = \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ (polynomials), and $D = \frac{d}{dx}$. We would like to "undo" differentiation, so we integrate:

$$(Jp)(x) = \int_0^x p(t) dt.$$

The fundamental theorem of calculus says that the derivative of this integral is p; that is, $DJ = I_p$. So J is a right inverse of D; it provides a solution (not the only one!) of the differential equation $\frac{dq}{dx} = p$. If we try things in the other direction, there is a problem:

$$JD(p) = \int_0^x p'(t) \, dt = p(x) - p(0).$$

That is, JD sends p to p - p(0), which is not the same as p. So J is not a left inverse to D; since D has a nonzero null space, we'll see that no left inverse can exist.

Theorem 4. Suppose V and W are finite-dimensional, and that $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

- 1) The operator T has a left inverse if and only if Null(T) = 0.
- 2) If S is a left inverse of T, then Null(S) is a complement to Range(T) in the sense of Proposition 2.13 in the text:

$$W = \operatorname{Range}(T) \oplus \operatorname{Null}(S).$$

- 3) Assuming that Null(T) = 0, there is a one-to-correspondence between left inverses of T and subspaces of W complementary to Range(T).
- 4) The operator T has a right inverse if and only if Range(T) = W.
- 5) If S' is a right inverse of T, then Range(S') is a complement to Null(T) in the sense of Proposition 2.13 in the text:

$$V = \text{Null}(T) \oplus \text{Range}(S').$$

- 6) Assuming that Range(T) = W, there is a one-to-correspondence between right inverses of T and subspaces of V complementary to Null(T).
- 7) If T has both a left and a right inverse, then the left and right inverses are unique and equal to each other. That, is there is a unique linear map $S \in \mathcal{L}(W,V)$ characterized by either of the two properties $ST = I_V$ or $TS = I_W$. If it has one of these properties, then it automatically has the other.

The theorem is also true exactly as stated for possibly infinite-dimensional V and W, but the proof requires a little more cleverness.

Proof. For (1), suppose first that a left inverse exists. According to Proposition 2, the equation Tx = 0 has at most one solution, namely x = S0 = 0. That says precisely that Null(T) = 0. Conversely, suppose Null(T) = 0. Choose a basis (v_1, \ldots, v_n) of V. By the proof of the rank plus nullity theorem, (Tv_1, \ldots, Tv_n) is a basis of Range(T); so in particular it is a linearly independent set in W. We may therefore extend it to a basis

$$(Tv_1,\ldots,Tv_n,w_1,\ldots w_n)$$

of W.

To define a linear map S from W to V, we need to pick the images of these n+p basis vectors; we are allowed to pick any vectors in V. If S is going to be a left inverse of T, we are *forced* to choose

$$S(Tv_i) = v_i;$$

the choices of Sw_j can be arbitrary. Since we have then arranged for the equation STv = v to be true for all elements of a basis of V, it must be true for all of V. Therefore S is a left inverse of T.

For (2), suppose $ST = I_V$; we need to prove the direct sum decomposition shown. So suppose $w \in W$. Define v = Sw and $r = Tv = TSw \in W$. Then $r \in \text{Range}(T)$, and

$$n = w - r = w - TSw$$

satisfies

$$Sn = Sw - STSw = Sw - I_VSw = Sw - Sw = 0;$$

so $n \in \text{Null}(S)$. We have therefore written w = r + n as the sum of an element of Range(T) and of Null(S). To prove that the sum is direct, we must show that $\text{Null}(S) \cap \text{Range}(T) = 0$. So suppose Tv (in Range(T)) is also in Null(S). Then

$$v = STv = 0$$

(since $Tv \in \text{Null}(S)$) so also Tv = 0, as we wished to show.

For (3), we have seen that any left inverse gives a direct sum decomposition of W. Conversely, suppose that $W = \operatorname{Range}(T) \oplus N$ is a direct sum decomposition. Define a linear map S from W to V by

$$S(Tv + n) = v$$
 $(v \in V, n \in N).$

This formula makes sense because there is only one v with image Tv (by Null(T) = 0); it defines S on all of W by the direct sum hypothesis. This construction makes a left inverse S with Null(S) = N, and in fact it is the *only* way to make a left inverse with this null space.

Parts (4)–(6) are proved in exactly the same way.

For (7), if the left and right inverses exist, then Null(T) = 0 and Range(T) = W. So the only possible complement to Range(T) is 0, so the left inverse S is unique by (3); and the only possible complement to Null(T) is V, so the right inverse is unique by (6). To see that they are equal, apply S' on the right to the equation $ST = I_V$; we get

$$S' = I_V S' = STS' = SI_W = S,$$

so the left and right inverses are equal.

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