

Chapter 5 Inverses

Definition 5.1 Let \mathbf{A} be a square matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. The *inverse of matrix \mathbf{A}* , denoted by $\mathbf{A}^{-1} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$, is matrix with the property that,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1}.$$

If \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists, then \mathbf{A} is called *invertible*.

Example Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then \mathbf{B} is an inverse of \mathbf{A} because,

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 3/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, we can write $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$, and equivalently $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}$.

That is, from the definition of inverse, if matrix \mathbf{B} is an inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} , then matrix \mathbf{A} is also an inverse of matrix \mathbf{B} .

In showing that matrix \mathbf{B} is an inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} , it will be shown in the next theorem that it is sufficient to show just either $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$, or $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I}$. To show this, we need the following definitions of left and right inverses.

Definition 5.2 Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} be square matrices in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. Then the matrix \mathbf{B} is a *left inverse* of \mathbf{A} if $\mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$, and the matrix \mathbf{C} is a *right inverse* of \mathbf{A} if $\mathbf{AC} = \mathbf{I}$.

Theorem 5.1 Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{C} be matrices in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. If the matrix \mathbf{B} is a *left inverse* of \mathbf{A} while the matrix \mathbf{C} is a *right inverse* of \mathbf{A} , then $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

Proof By definition of inverse, it is sufficient to show just that $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$. By the assumption,

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{BI} = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{AC}) = (\mathbf{BA})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{IC} = \mathbf{C}. \square$$

By this theorem, we also conclude that if \mathbf{A} has an inverse, this inverse is the only inverse of \mathbf{A} .

Corollary 5.1 The inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} , if exists, is unique.

Proof Directly by Theorem 5.1. \square

Example As we have seen in the proof of Theorem 3.5, for any elementary matrix \mathbf{E} , there exists another elementary matrix \mathbf{F} such that $\mathbf{FE} = \mathbf{I}$. Then by Theorem 5.1, we also have $\mathbf{EF} = \mathbf{I}$, and so $\mathbf{E}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{F}^{-1} = \mathbf{E}$.

Problem Leon [1994], # 18 a, 19, page 62.

19. Let \mathbf{A} be a nonsingular matrix and let \mathbf{B} be an $n \times r$ matrix. Show that the reduced row echelon form of $[\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{B}]$ is $[\mathbf{I} \ \mathbf{C}]$, where $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$.

1. Properties of Inverse

The following two theorems are additional properties of inverses.

Theorem 5.2 Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be square matrices in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. If \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are invertible, then $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

Proof By Theorem 5.1, it is sufficient to check if $(\mathbf{AB})(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \mathbf{I}$. This is left as an exercise. \square

Corollary 5.2

a. If $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_k \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ are invertible, then

$$(\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{A}_2 \cdots \mathbf{A}_k)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}_k^{-1}\mathbf{A}_{k-1}^{-1} \cdots \mathbf{A}_1^{-1}.$$

b) If \mathbf{A} is invertible, then $(\mathbf{A}^m)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^m$.

Proof By Theorem 5.2 and simple induction. \square

Theorem 5.3 Let \mathbf{A} be invertible. Then,

a) $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$.

b) $(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T$.

c) $|\mathbf{A}^{-1}| = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|}$.

Proof a) Since $\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$, premultiplying both sides by \mathbf{A} , we have,

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{AA}^{-1})(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} &= \mathbf{A} \\ (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} &= \mathbf{A}. \end{aligned}$$

b. Since $\mathbf{I}^T = (\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A})^T = \mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = \mathbf{I}$, premultiplying both sides of the last equality by $(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}$ and we have the required result.

c. $1 = |\mathbf{I}| = |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1}| = |\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{A}^{-1}|. \square$

Problem Show that $(c\mathbf{A})^{-1} = \frac{1}{c}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

Problem Leon [1994], #21, page 62. If a symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} is invertible, then its inverse is also symmetric.

Problem Fraleigh & Beauregard [1995], page 86, #38.

38. Let \mathbf{A} be an invertible square matrix. Recalling Lemma 4.1 and that $(\mathbf{BA})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{-1}$, answer the following questions:

- If two rows of \mathbf{A} are interchanged, how does the inverse of the resulting matrix compare with ?
- Answer the question in part (a) if, instead, a row of \mathbf{A} is multiplied by a nonzero scalar r .
- Answer the question in part (a) if, instead, r times the i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} is added to the j^{th} row.

5.2 Computation of Inverses

What we have discussed so far are the properties of the inverse of a matrix. We will now find such an inverse matrix, and more importantly, what are the conditions that guarantee the existence of the inverse of a matrix.

If we have a computational algorithm to compute the inverse of a matrix, one of its obvious use is to solve systems of linear equations. If $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is a system of n linear equations of n variables, then \mathbf{A} is square. Suppose \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists, then the solution \mathbf{x} is given by,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{Ax} &= \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the calculation of \mathbf{A}^{-1} is equivalent to solving $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$.

The two usual ways of computing \mathbf{A}^{-1} are by using elementary row operations and by the adjoint matrix.

Theorem 5.4 Let \mathbf{A} be a matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. If there exists a series of k elementary row operations, each represented by premultiplying \mathbf{A} by an elementary matrix \mathbf{E}_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, such that when performed on \mathbf{A} we have $\mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{E}_{k-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_1 \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$, then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{E}_{k-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_1$.

Proof Let $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{E}_k \mathbf{E}_{k-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_1$. Then \mathbf{B} is the inverse of \mathbf{A} by Theorem 5.1. \square

In practice, we write the augmented matrix $[\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{I}]$, where the first n columns are just columns of \mathbf{A} and the last n columns constitute an identity matrix. Then perform the elementary row operations on until the first n columns becomes an identity matrix.

Example Find the inverse of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. We have,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{A}} &= \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\ &\xrightarrow{-\frac{1}{2}R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -0.5 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 - 3R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & -2 & 1.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -0.5 \end{array} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

The inverse is $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1.5 \\ 1 & -0.5 \end{bmatrix}$.

Problem Can we find \mathbf{A}^{-1} by performing elementary column operations on

$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$ until we obtain $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$ and say $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$?

5.2.2 Computing Inverses by Adjoint Matrix

Definition 5.3 Let \mathbf{A} be a matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. The *adjoint of \mathbf{A}* , denoted by $\text{adj } \mathbf{A}$, is a matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ and given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{adj } \mathbf{A} &= [\Delta_{ij}]^T \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{11} & \Delta_{12} & \cdots & \Delta_{1n} \\ \Delta_{21} & \Delta_{22} & \cdots & \Delta_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \Delta_{n1} & \Delta_{n2} & \cdots & \Delta_{nn} \end{bmatrix}^T, \end{aligned}$$

where Δ_{ij} is the $(i, j)^{\text{th}}$ cofactor of \mathbf{A} .

Theorem 5.5 Let \mathbf{A} be a nonsingular matrix. The inverse of \mathbf{A} is given by

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \text{adj } \mathbf{A}.$$

Proof Since the cofactor $\Delta_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$, the determinant of \mathbf{A} can be written as,

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \Delta_{ij}, & i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \\ \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \Delta_{ij}, & j = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{cases}$$

Now by the form of the inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1} given in the theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{11} & \Delta_{12} & \cdots & \Delta_{1n} \\ \Delta_{21} & \Delta_{22} & \cdots & \Delta_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Delta_{n1} & \Delta_{n2} & \cdots & \Delta_{nn} \end{bmatrix}^T \\ &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{11} & \Delta_{21} & \cdots & \Delta_{n1} \\ \Delta_{12} & \Delta_{22} & \cdots & \Delta_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Delta_{1n} & \Delta_{2n} & \cdots & \Delta_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j} \Delta_{1j} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{2j} \Delta_{2j} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{nj} \Delta_{nj} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{I}. \end{aligned}$$

The last two equalities are due to the properties of the determinant stated in Theorem 4.1 and 4.2. \square

Problem Verify that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \Delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} |\mathbf{A}|, & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Problem Fraleigh & Beauregard [1995], page 272, #35 (g)-(i), 36-39.

35. Let \mathbf{A} be a square matrix. Mark each of the following True or False.

_____ g. The product of a square matrix and its adjoint is the identity matrix.

_____ h. The product of a square matrix and its adjoint is equal to some scalar times the identity matrix.

_____ i. The transpose of the adjoint of \mathbf{A} is the matrix of cofactors of \mathbf{A} .

36. Prove that the inverse of a nonsingular upper-triangular matrix is upper triangular.

37. Prove that a square matrix is invertible if and only if its adjoint is an invertible matrix.

38. Let \mathbf{A} be an $n \times n$ matrix. Prove that $|\text{adj } \mathbf{A}| = (|\mathbf{A}|)^{n-1}$.

39. Let \mathbf{A} be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix with $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$. Using Exercises 37 and 38, prove that $\text{adj}(\text{adj } \mathbf{A}) = (|\mathbf{A}|)^{n-2} \mathbf{A}$.

Problem Fraleigh & Beauregard [1995], page 85, #26 and 30.

26. Let \mathbf{A} be a matrix such that \mathbf{A}^2 is invertible. Prove that \mathbf{A} is invertible.

30. A square matrix \mathbf{A} is said to be idempotent if $\mathbf{A}^2 = \mathbf{A}$.

a. Give an example of an idempotent matrix other than $\mathbf{0}$ and \mathbf{I} .

b. Show that, if a matrix \mathbf{A} is both idempotent and invertible, then $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$.

5.3 Inverse and Determinants

Theorem 5.6 A matrix \mathbf{A} in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is *invertible* if, and only if, \mathbf{A} is nonsingular.

Proof We have to show that \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists if, and only if, $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$. Suppose $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$, then \mathbf{A}^{-1} can be computed using the adjoint of \mathbf{A} . Therefore \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists.

Now suppose \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists but $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$. Since \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists we can compute its determinant $|\mathbf{A}^{-1}|$ to be some real number. However, by Theorem 5.3 part (c), $|\mathbf{A}^{-1}| = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|}$, which is undefined as $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$. This is a contradiction. So $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$. \square

Similar to Corollary 4.3 in the previous chapter, we can identify a system of n linear equations with n variables as having unique solution by the coefficient matrix \mathbf{A} being full rank, nonsingular or invertible.

Corollary 5.3 Let \mathbf{A} be matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$. The following statements are equivalent:

1. \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists.
2. $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$, i.e., nonsingular.

3. $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = \text{rank } \mathbf{A}^T = n$.
4. $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution for any given vector \mathbf{b} .

Proof By Theorem 5.6 and Corollary 4.3. \square

Problem Write a corollary summarizing results when \mathbf{A}^{-1} does not exist.

Problem Fraleigh & Beauregard [1995], page 85, #25.

- 25.a) If \mathbf{A} is invertible, is $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T$ always invertible?
- b) If \mathbf{A} is invertible, is $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$ always invertible?

Problem Johnson, Riess & Arnold [1998], page 103, #67, 68, 70, and 71.

67. Suppose that $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{0}$, where \mathbf{A} is nonsingular. Prove that $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$.
68. Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{C} be matrices such that \mathbf{A} is nonsingular and $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{AC}$. Prove that $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}$.
70. Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be $n \times n$ nonsingular matrices. Show that \mathbf{AB} is nonsingular.
71. Is it true that if \mathbf{AB} is nonsingular, then both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} must be nonsingular?

Problem Simon & Blume [1994], page 739, # 26, 28.

- a. Prove that if the entries of \mathbf{A} are all integers and if $|\mathbf{A}| = \pm 1$, then the entries of \mathbf{A}^{-1} are also integers.
- b. Use Theorem 5.3 (c) to show that if the entries of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^{-1} are all integers, then $|\mathbf{A}| = \pm 1$.

5.4 Cramer's Rule

The system of n linear equations with n variables can be solved by using the so-called Cramer's rule, which use the properties of the inverse and determinant.

Theorem 5.7 (Cramer's Rule) Given a system of n linear equations with n variables $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, if \mathbf{A} is nonsingular, then the solution to the system of linear equations are uniquely given by,

$$x_j = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{.1} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{.j-1} & \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{a}_{.j+1} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{.n} \end{vmatrix}}{|\mathbf{A}|}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where the numerator of the right hand side of the equation is the determinant of matrix \mathbf{A} , but with its j th column replaced by the right hand side vector \mathbf{b} .

Proof Since \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists, the solution is given by $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$, which by the calculation of by the adjoint matrix of \mathbf{A} as stated in Theorem 5.5,

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{11} & \Delta_{21} & \cdots & \Delta_{n1} \\ \Delta_{12} & \Delta_{22} & \cdots & \Delta_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \Delta_{1n} & \Delta_{2n} & \cdots & \Delta_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta_{i1} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta_{in} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The theorem follows since each of the terms $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta_{ij}$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$, is the determinant of the matrix $[\mathbf{a}_{.1} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_{.j-1} \ \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{a}_{.j+1} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_{.n}]$ as expanded along the j^{th} column \mathbf{b} . Then x_j is uniquely determined as given in the statement of the theorem. \square

Problem Fraleigh & Beauregard [1995], page 272, #34. Find the unique solution (assuming that it exists) of the system of equations represented by the augmented matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 & 3b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 & 3b_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 & 3b_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 & 3b_4 \end{array} \right].$$