6 Inverse of a Matrix

6.1 Cramer's Rule & Inverse for solving Ax = b

$$A \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 \\ x_2 & 1 & 0 \\ x_3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ b_3 & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} := B_1$$

 \rightarrow Take determinants: $(det A)x_1 = det B_1$

$$\therefore x_1 = \frac{\det B_1}{\det A}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & 0 \\ 0 & x_2 & 0 \\ 0 & x_3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & b_3 & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} := B_2$$

 \rightarrow Take determinants: $(det A)x_2 = det B_2$

$$\therefore x_2 = \frac{det B_2}{det A}$$

<Cramer's Rule>

If $det A \neq 0$, Ax = b has the unique soln.

$$x_j = \frac{detB_j}{detA}$$

where B_j has the column j of A replaced by the vector b.

Ex

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

$$-4x_1 + +x_3 = 0$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & \\ -4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 7$$

$$|B_1| = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & & 1 \end{array} \right| = 1$$

$$|B_2| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2$$

$$|B_3| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 4$$

6.2 using Cramer's rule to compute the inverse

$$\cdot \quad AA^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

b in the above example

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \text{the first column of } A^{-1}$$

· In the above example, note that

$$|B_1| = C_{11}, \quad |B_2| = C_{12}, \quad |B_3| = C_{13}$$

 $\implies x_j = \frac{|B_j|}{|A|} \qquad \therefore \begin{pmatrix} x_1 = \frac{1}{7} \\ x_2 = \frac{2}{7} \\ x_3 = \frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix}$

$$\therefore \text{ the first col. of } A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{11}}{|A|} \\ \frac{C_{12}}{|A|} \\ \frac{C_{13}}{|A|} \end{bmatrix}$$

· use b =
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 to get the second column of A^{-1} :

$$|B_{1}| = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 1 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ 0 & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = C_{21}$$
 the 2nd col. of A^{-1}
$$|B_{2}| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & 1 & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & 0 & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = C_{22}$$
 \Rightarrow
$$|B_{3}| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 1 \\ a_{31} & a_{31} & 0 \end{vmatrix} = C_{23}$$

· use $b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ to get the second column of A^{-1} :

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{31}}{|A|} \\ \frac{C_{32}}{|A|} \\ \frac{C_{33}}{|A|} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore (A^{-1})_{ij} = \frac{C_{ji}}{\det A}$$

If we define the cofactor matrix $C = [C_{ij}]$ then,

$$A^{-1} = \frac{C^T}{detA}$$

Ex

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \Rightarrow C_{11} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow det A = 1$$

$$M_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow C_{12} = -1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{C^T}{det A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(The inverse of a triangular matrix is triangular)

6.3 inverse & Rank

Theorem 1 (Existence of the inverse)

The inverse A^{-1} of an $n \times matrix A$ exists of and only if rank A = n, hence (by Theorem 3, Sec. 6.6) if and only if $det A \neq 0$. hence A is nonsingular if rank A = n, and is singular if rank A < n.

Proof. Consider the linear system

$$(2) Ax = b$$

with the given matrix A as coefficient matrix. If the inverse exists, then multiplication from the left on both sides gives by (1)

$$A^{-1}Ax = x = A^{-1}b$$
.

This shows that (2) has a unique solution x, so that A must have rank n by the Fundamental Theorem in Sec. 6.5

Conversely, let rank A = n. Then by the same theorem, the system (2) has a unique solution x for any b, and the back substitution following the Gauss elimination (in Sec 6.3) shows that its components x_j are linear combinations of those of b, so that we can write

$$(3) x = Bb.$$

Substitution into (2) gives

$$Ax = A(Bb) = (AB)b = Cb = b$$
 (C = AB)

for any b. Hence C = AB = I, the unit matrix. Similarly, if we substitue (2) into (3) we get

$$x = Bb = B(Ax) = (BA)x$$

for any x (and b = Ax). Hence BA = I. Together, $B = A^{-1}$ exists.