

## Inverses of Matrices

Recall that the  $n \times n$  **identity matrix** is the diagonal matrix

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

having ones on its main diagonal and zeros elsewhere. It is not difficult to deduce directly from the definition of the matrix product that  $\mathbf{I}$  acts like an identity for matrix multiplication:

$$\mathbf{AI} = \mathbf{A} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{IB} = \mathbf{B}$$

## The Inverse Matrix $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$

If  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a number  $b = a^{-1} = 1/a$  such that  $ab = ba = 1$ . Given a nonzero matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , we therefore wonder whether there is a matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$ . The following two examples show that the answer to this question depends upon the particular matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

### DEFINITION Invertible Matrix

The square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is called **invertible** if there exists a matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  such that

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}.$$

Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 9 \\ 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -9 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I} \quad , \quad \mathbf{BA} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}$$

$\Rightarrow A$  is invertible

Example:

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $AB = BA = I \Rightarrow$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a-3c & b-3d \\ -2a+6c & -2b+6d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} a-3c=1 \\ -2a+6c=0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} b-3d=0 \\ -2b+6d=1 \end{array} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{These equations are} \\ \text{inconsistent.} \end{array}$$

Thus there can exist no  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $B$  such that  $AB = I$ . So  $A$  is not invertible.

A matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$  is called an **inverse matrix** of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ . The following theorem says that no matrix can have two different inverse matrices.

### THEOREM 1 Uniqueness of Inverse Matrices

If the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, then there exists precisely one matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}$ .

**Proof:** If  $\mathbf{C}$  is a (possibly different) matrix such that  $\mathbf{AC} = \mathbf{CA} = \mathbf{I}$  as well, then the associative law of multiplication gives

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{CI} = \mathbf{C(AB)} = (\mathbf{CA})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{IB} = \mathbf{B}.$$

Thus  $\mathbf{C}$  is in fact the same matrix as  $\mathbf{B}$ . ■

The unique inverse of an invertible matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .

Arbitrary integral powers of a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are defined as follows, though in the case of a negative exponent we must assume that  $\mathbf{A}$  is also invertible. If  $n$  is a positive integer, we define

- \*  $\mathbf{A}^0 = \mathbf{I}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^1 = \mathbf{A}$ ;
- \*  $\mathbf{A}^{n+1} = \mathbf{A}^n \mathbf{A}$  for  $n \geq 1$ ;
- \*  $\mathbf{A}^{-n} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^n$ .

### THEOREM 3 Algebra of Inverse Matrices

If the matrices  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  of the same size are invertible, then

- (a)  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  is invertible and  $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$ ;
- (b) If  $n$  is a nonnegative integer, then  $\mathbf{A}^n$  is invertible and  $(\mathbf{A}^n)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^n$ ;
- (c) The product  $\mathbf{AB}$  is invertible and

$$(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}. \quad (11)$$

*Proof of (c)*

$$\begin{aligned} & (\mathbf{AB})(\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BB}^{-1})\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{AA}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}; \\ & (\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1})(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus we get  $\mathbf{I}$  when we multiply  $\mathbf{AB}$  on either side by  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ . Because the inverse of the matrix  $\mathbf{AB}$  is unique, this proves that  $\mathbf{AB}$  is invertible and that its inverse matrix is  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ . ■

## How to Find $A^{-1}$

### DEFINITION Elementary Matrix

The  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  is called an **elementary matrix** if it can be obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ .

We obtain some typical elementary matrices as follows.

$$\begin{array}{c} \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(3)R_1} \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \mathbf{E}_1 \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_1 + R_2} \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(2)R_1 + R_3} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \mathbf{E}_2 \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow[R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2]{\text{SWAP}(R_1, R_2)} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \mathbf{E}_3 \end{array}$$

$\downarrow$   
is not  
elementary  
matrix

The three elementary matrices  $\mathbf{E}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{E}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{E}_3$  correspond to three typical elementary row operations. ■

## THEOREM 5 Elementary Matrices and Row Operations

If an elementary row operation is performed on the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , then the result is the product matrix  $\mathbf{EA}$ , where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the elementary matrix obtained by performing the same row operation on the  $m \times m$  identity matrix.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad E_1 \cdot \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = E_1 \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

Not:  $\mathbf{A}$  is row equivalent to  $\mathbf{B} \Leftrightarrow$  There are the elementary matrices  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  such that  $E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$ .

Elementary row operations are reversible:

Elementary Row Operation	Inverse Operation
$(c)R_i$ <del><math>R_i \leftrightarrow R_j</math></del> SWAP( $R_i, R_j$ )	$\frac{1}{c}R_i$ $R_j \leftrightarrow R_i$ SWAP( $R_i, R_j$ )
$(c)R_i + R_j$	$(-c)R_i + R_j$

FIGURE 3.5.1. Inverse elementary row operations.

Every elementary matrix is invertible.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_1 \\ E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I \\ I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E_2 \end{array} \right\} E_1 \cdot E_2 = E_2 \cdot E_1 = I.$$

## THEOREM 6 Invertible Matrices and Row Operations

The  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is invertible if and only if it is row equivalent to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $I$ .

proof: " $\Rightarrow$ , let  $A$  be invertible

$$Ax = 0 \Rightarrow (A^{-1}A)x = 0 \Rightarrow Ix = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

The system  $Ax = 0$  has only the trivial solution  $x = 0$

Thus  $A$  is row equivalent to  $I$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ , let  $A$  be row equivalent to  $I$ , that is there are elementary matrices  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  such that  $E_1 E_2 \dots E_k A = I$

Since each elementary matrix  $E_i$  is invertible

$$A = E_k^{-1} E_{k-1}^{-1} \cdots E_1^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow A$  is invertible.

## ALGORITHM Finding $A^{-1}$

To find the inverse  $A^{-1}$  of the invertible  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , find a sequence of elementary row operations that reduces  $A$  to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $I$ . Then apply the same sequence of operations in the same order to  $I$  to transform it into  $A^{-1}$ .

Note:  $[A | I] \rightarrow [I | ?]$

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow I &\Rightarrow I = E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k A \\ A &= E_k^{-1} E_{k-1}^{-1} \cdots E_1^{-1} \\ A^{-1} &= (E_k^{-1} E_{k-1}^{-1} \cdots E_1^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= (E_1^{-1})^{-1} (E_2^{-1})^{-1} \cdots (E_k^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k \cdot I \end{aligned}$$

$$E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k [A | I] = [E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k A | E_1 E_2 \cdots E_k I]$$
$$[I | A^{-1}] \Rightarrow ? = A^{-1}$$

Example: Find the inverse of the  $3 \times 3$  matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 7 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 7 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_2 \rightarrow (-2)R_1 + R_2 \\ R_3 \rightarrow (-3)R_1 + R_3 \end{array}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 & 0 & -3 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + (-3)R_2 \\ R_3 \rightarrow (2)R_2 + R_3 \end{array}}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & -3 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -7 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_1 \rightarrow (-5)R_3 + R_1 \\ R_2 \rightarrow (-1)R_3 + R_2 \end{array}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -13 & 42 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & -9 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -7 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$A^{-1}$

**Example:** Show that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  is not invertible

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 6 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + 2R_1} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\phantom{0}}_{\neq I}$

## Matrix Equations

### THEOREM 4 Inverse Matrix Solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

If the  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, then for any  $n$ -vector  $\mathbf{b}$  the system

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \quad (12)$$

has the unique solution

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \quad (13)$$

that is obtained by multiplying both sides in (12) on the left by the matrix  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .

**Proof:** We must show that  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$  is a solution and that it is the only solution of Eq. (12). First, the computation

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{AA}^{-1})\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{I}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}$$

shows that  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$  is a solution. Second, if  $\mathbf{x}_1$  is any (possibly different) solution, we observe that multiplication of each side of the equation  $\mathbf{Ax}_1 = \mathbf{b}$  on the left by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  yields  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ , and hence  $\mathbf{x}_1$  is the same solution as  $\mathbf{x}$  after all. ■

**Example:** Use the inverse of the coefficient matrix to solve the system

$$2x_1 + 7x_2 + 3x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 = 0$$

$$3x_1 + 7x_2 + 9x_3 = -1$$

$$Ax = b$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -13 & 42 & -5 \\ 3 & -9 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x = A^{-1}b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 & 42 & -5 \\ 3 & -9 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example:** Find a  $3 \times 4$  matrix  $X$  such that

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}}_A X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}}_B \quad AX = B$$

$$X = A^{-1} \cdot B = \begin{bmatrix} -13 & 42 & -5 \\ 3 & -9 & 1 \\ 2 & -7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 4}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} -23 & -10 & \cancel{-8} & 60 \\ 5 & 2 & \cancel{2} & -13 \\ 4 & 2 & \cancel{1} & -10 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that  $AX = B$  is a generalization of  $AX = b$ .

## Nonsingular Matrices

(Invertible)

A square matrix having these equivalent properties is sometimes called a nonsingular matrix .

### THEOREM 7 Properties of Nonsingular Matrices

The following properties of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are equivalent.

- (a)  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible.
- (b)  $\mathbf{A}$  is row equivalent to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ .
- (c)  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.
- (d) For every  $n$ -vector  $\mathbf{b}$ , the system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution.
- (e) For every  $n$ -vector  $\mathbf{b}$ , the system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent.

(e)  $\Rightarrow$  (a) Let  $\underbrace{Ax = b}$  be consistent

If  $b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow j^{\text{th}} \text{ row } = e_j$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \cdot \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{e_1} + x_2 \cdot \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{e_2} + \cdots + x_n \cdot \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{e_n}$$

$$= \underbrace{x_1 e_1}_{u_1} + \underbrace{x_2 e_2}_{u_2} + \cdots + \underbrace{x_n e_n}_{u_n}$$

then

$$A \cdot u_j = e_j \quad \text{let } B = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n]$$

$$\begin{aligned}AB &= A \cdot [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_n] = [Au_1 \ Au_2 \ \dots \ Au_n] \\&= [e_1 \ e_2 \ \dots \ e_n] \\&= I.\end{aligned}$$

$$AB = I$$

$\Rightarrow A$  is invertible.

**Example:** Show that the  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} a & b & 1 & 0 \\ c & d & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{a \neq 0} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & b/a & 1/a & 0 \\ c & d & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$R_2 \xrightarrow{(-c)R_1 + R_2} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & b/a & 1/a & 0 \\ 0 & d - \frac{bc}{a} & -\frac{c}{a} & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\frac{d - bc}{a} \neq 0}$

$(d - \frac{bc}{a}) = 0 \Rightarrow A^{-1} \text{ doesn't exist}$ )

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & b/a & 1/a & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{a}{ad - bc} & \frac{a}{ad - bc} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 \xrightarrow{(-b/a)R_2 + R_1} \left[ \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & \frac{d}{ad - cb} & -\frac{b}{ad - cb} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-c}{ad - cb} & \frac{a}{ad - cb} \end{array} \right]}$$

$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - cb} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$

$ad - bc \neq 0 \text{ and } a \neq 0.$

## Determinants

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ . The number  $ad - bc$  is called the **determinant** of the  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ . There are several common notations for determinants:

$$\det \mathbf{A} = \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc. \quad (1)$$

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The determinant  $\det \mathbf{A} = |a_{ij}|$  of a  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  is defined as follows:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

## DEFINITION Minors and Cofactors

Let  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. The  $ij$ th **minor** of  $\mathbf{A}$  (also called the **minor** of  $a_{ij}$ ) is the determinant  $M_{ij}$  of the  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$  submatrix that remains after deleting the  $i$ th row and the  $j$ th column of  $\mathbf{A}$ . The  $ij$ th **cofactor**  $A_{ij}$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  (or the **cofactor** of  $a_{ij}$ ) is defined to be

$$A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}. \quad (6)$$

Example:

$$M_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & \cancel{a_{12}} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cancel{a_{23}} \\ a_{31} & \cancel{a_{32}} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$M_{32} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & \cancel{a_{22}} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & \cancel{a_{32}} & a_{33} & \cancel{a_{34}} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{41} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{vmatrix}$$

The cofactor  $A_{ij}$  is obtained by attaching the  $(-1)^{i+j}$  to  $M_{ij}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{11} = + M_{11} \quad A_{41} = - M_{41}$$

$$\det A = a_{11} M_{11} - a_{12} M_{12} + a_{13} M_{13}$$

$$= a_{11} A_{11} + a_{12} A_{12} + a_{13} A_{13}$$

The last formula is the cofactor expansion of  $\det A$  along the first row of  $A$ .

## DEFINITION $n \times n$ Determinants

The determinant  $\det \mathbf{A} = |a_{ij}|$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  is defined as

$$\det \mathbf{A} = a_{11}A_{11} + a_{12}A_{12} + \cdots + a_{1n}A_{1n}. \quad (8)$$

Thus we multiply each element of the first row of  $\mathbf{A}$  by its cofactor and then add these  $n$  products to get  $\det \mathbf{A}$ .

**Example:** Evaluate the determinant of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 & 3 & 5 \\ -6 & 2 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ by using cofactor expansion.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= 2 \cdot (-1)^{1+1} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \cdot (-1)^3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 & 5 \\ -6 & 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \cdot (-1)^4 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 7 & 5 \\ -6 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + (-3) \cdot (-1)^5 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 & 3 \\ -6 & 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\det A = 2 \cdot (-1)^{1+1} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} + \dots \cdot 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 & 3 \\ -6 & 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 2 \cdot (-1) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \cdot (-1) \cdot (-1)^3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ -6 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -2 \cdot (12 - 10) + 3 \cdot (14 + 18) = -4 + 96 = 92.$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 & 3 & 5 \\ -6 & 2 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = (-1) \cdot (-1)^4 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & -3 \\ 7 & 3 & 5 \\ -6 & 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (-1) \cdot \left\{ 3 \cdot (-1)^4 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -6 & 4 \end{vmatrix} + 2 \cdot (-1)^5 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 7 & 5 \end{vmatrix} \right\}$$

$$= - \left\{ 3 \cdot (8 - 18) - 2 \cdot (10 + 21) \right\} = -(-30 - 62) = 92.$$

## THEOREM 1 Cofactor Expansions of Determinants

The determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  can be obtained by expansion along any row or column. The cofactor expansion along the  $i$ th row is

$$\det \mathbf{A} = a_{i1}A_{i1} + a_{i2}A_{i2} + \cdots + a_{in}A_{in}. \quad (9)$$

The cofactor expansion along the  $j$ th column is

$$\det \mathbf{A} = a_{1j}A_{1j} + a_{2j}A_{2j} + \cdots + a_{nj}A_{nj}. \quad (10)$$

## Row and Column Properties

1), if the square matrix A has either an all-zero row or an all-zero column , then  $\det A=0$ .

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

2) If the  $n \times n$  matrix B is obtained from A by multiplying a single row (or a column) of A by the constant k , then  $\det B = k \det A$  .

$$A \xrightarrow{R_i \rightarrow k R_i} B$$

(or  $C_i \rightarrow k C_i$ )

$$|B| = k |A|$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 7 & 15 & -17 \\ -2 & 9 & 6 \\ 5 & -12 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 5 & -17 \\ -2 & 9 & 6 \\ 5 & -4 & 10 \end{vmatrix}$$

3) If the  $n \times n$  matrix  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by interchanging two rows (or two columns), then  $\det B = -\det A$

$$A \xrightarrow{R_i \leftrightarrow R_j} B \quad |B| = -|A| \\ (\text{or } C_i \leftrightarrow C_j)$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 4-6 = -2$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 6-4 = 2$$

4) If two rows (or two columns) of the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  are identical, then  $\det A = 0$ .

proof: Let  $B$  denote the matrix obtained by interchanging the two identical rows of  $A$

$$\Rightarrow B = A \Rightarrow |B| = |A|$$

$$\text{By Property 3, } |B| = -|A| \Rightarrow |A| = -|A| \Rightarrow 2|A| = 0 \\ \Rightarrow |A| = 0.$$

5) Suppose that the  $n \times n$  matrices  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ , and  $B$  are identical except for their  $i$ th rows - that is, the other  $n-1$  rows of the three matrices are identical - and that the  $i$ th row of  $B$  is the sum of the  $i$ th rows of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ . Then

$$\det B = \det A_1 + \det A_2.$$

This result also holds if columns are involved instead of rows.

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A_1| = 1 \cdot (-1) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \quad |A_2| = 1 \cdot (-1) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -1$$

$$|B| = 1 \cdot (-1) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |B| = |A_1| + |A_2|$$

6) If the  $n \times n$  matrix B is obtained by adding a constant multiple of one row (or column) of A to another row (or column) of A , then  $\det B = \det A$ .

$$A \xrightarrow{R_i \rightarrow R_i + kR_j} B \quad \Rightarrow \quad |A| = |B|$$

(or  $C_i \rightarrow C_i + kC_j$ )

Evaluate the determinant after first simplifying the computation by adding an appropriate multiple of some row and column to other

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 & 4 \\ -1 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & 10 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{C_3 \rightarrow C_1 + 2C_2} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 10 & 7 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 7 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 7 \cdot (8 - 3) = 35.$$

An **upper triangular matrix** is a square matrix having only zeros *below* its main diagonal. A **lower triangular matrix** is a square matrix having only zeros *above* its main diagonal. A **triangular matrix** is one that is either upper triangular or lower triangular, and thus looks like

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 10 \\ 0 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 0 \\ 4 & 6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

*upper triangular*                    *lower triangular*

- ?) The determinant of a triangular matrix is equal to the product of its diagonal elements.

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 11 & 9 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 8 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 17 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 8 & -6 \\ 0 & 5 & 17 \\ 0 & 0 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot (-2) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 17 \\ 0 & -4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 3 \cdot (-2) \cdot 5 \cdot (-4) = 120$$

Example: Evaluate the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 & 5 \\ 4 & -2 & 10 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 & 5 \\ 4 & -2 & 10 \end{array} \right| \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_1 \end{array}} \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{array} \right| = (2)(0)(4) = 0.$$

## The Transpose of a Matrix

The transpose  $\mathbf{A}^T$  of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is obtained by interchanging its off-diagonal elements:

$$\text{If } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } \mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

More generally, the **transpose** of the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}^T$  defined by

$$\mathbf{A}^T = [a_{ji}]. \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 5 \\ 4 & -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

If A and B are matrices of appropriate sizes and c is a number, then

- (i)  $(A^T)^T = A$ ;
- (ii)  $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$ ;
- (iii)  $(cA)^T = cA^T$ ;
- (iv)  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ .

8) If A is a square matrix, then  $\det(A^T) = \det A$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad |A| = 4 - 6 = -2 \Rightarrow |A| = |A^T|$$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad |A^T| = 4 - 6 = -2$$

9) The  $n \times n$  matrix A is invertible if and only if  $\det A \neq 0$ .

Example: Show that the matrix

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & a^2 \\ 1 & b & b^2 \\ 1 & c & c^2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is invertible iff } a, b \text{ and } c \text{ are distinct}$$

$$|V| = \left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & a & a^2 & \\ 1 & b & b^2 & \\ 1 & c & c^2 & \end{array} \right| \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1}} \left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & a & a^2 & \\ 0 & b-a & b^2-a^2 & \\ 0 & c-a & c^2-a^2 & \end{array} \right|$$

$$= (b-a) \cdot (c-a) \cdot \left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & a & a^2 & \\ 0 & 1 & b+a & \\ 0 & 1 & c+a & \end{array} \right| \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2} = (b-a)(c-a) \left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & a & a^2 & \\ 0 & 1 & b+a & \\ 0 & 0 & c-b & \end{array} \right|$$

$$= (b-a)(c-a)(c-b)$$

$$|V| \neq 0 \Rightarrow b \neq a, c \neq a, c \neq b$$

10) If  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then

$$|\mathbf{AB}| = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}|.$$

11)  $|\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}|$  is generally not equal to  $|\mathbf{A}| + |\mathbf{B}|$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\mathbf{A}| = -6, \quad |\mathbf{B}| = 3, \quad |\mathbf{A}| + |\mathbf{B}| = -6 + 3 = -3$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}| = 6 - 12 = -6$$

$$\Rightarrow |\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}| \neq |\mathbf{A}| + |\mathbf{B}|.$$

12) We can calculate the determinant of the inverse of an invertible matrix A :

$$AA^{-1} = I,$$

so

$$|A| |A^{-1}| = |AA^{-1}| = |I| = 1,$$

and therefore

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

proof:  $A$  is invertible matrix  $\Rightarrow AA^{-1} = I$  and  $|A| \neq 0$

$$|A||A^{-1}| = |I| \Rightarrow \underbrace{|A| \cdot |A^{-1}|}_{\neq 0} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |A^{-1}| = \frac{1}{|A|}$$

## THEOREM 4 Cramer's Rule

Consider the  $n \times n$  linear system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ , with

$$\mathbf{A} = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_n ].$$

If  $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$ , then the  $i$ th entry of the unique solution  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= \frac{| \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b} \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_n |}{|\mathbf{A}|} \\ &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & b_1 & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \cdots & b_2 & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & b_n & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}, \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

where in the last expression the constant vector  $\mathbf{b}$  replaces the  $i$ th column vector  $\mathbf{a}_i$  of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Use Cramer's rule to solve the system

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + 4x_2 + 5x_3 &= 2 \\4x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= 3 \\-3x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 2 & 5 \\ -3 & 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & -14 & -15 \\ 0 & 15 & 14 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -14 & -15 \\ 15 & 14 \end{vmatrix} = 29.$$

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{29} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{29} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & -2 & 7 \\ 0 & -7 & 8 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{29} \cdot 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 7 \\ -7 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{33}{29}$$

$$\bar{x}_2 = \frac{1}{29} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 \\ -3 & 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{29} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & -5 & -15 \\ 0 & 7 & 14 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{29} \cdot 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -5 & -15 \\ 7 & 14 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{35}{29}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{29} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & -5 \\ -3 & 3 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{29} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & -14 & -5 \\ 0 & 15 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{-23}{29}.$$