S^5 is the 5×5 zero matrix. S^6 is also the 5×5 zero matrix.

41. [**M**]
$$A^5 = \begin{bmatrix} .3339 & .3349 & .3312 \\ .3349 & .3351 & .3300 \\ .3312 & .3300 & .3388 \end{bmatrix}, A^{10} = \begin{bmatrix} .333341 & .333344 & .33336 \\ .333344 & .333350 & .33336 \\ .333315 & .333306 & .333379 \end{bmatrix}$$

The entries in A^{20} all agree with .3333333333 to 8 or 9 decimal places. The entries in A^{30} all agree with .33333333333333333333333 to at least 14 decimal places. The matrices appear to approach the matrix

1/3 1/3 1/3 . Further exploration of this behavior appears in Sections 4.9 and 5.2.

1/3 1/3 1/3

Note: The MATLAB box in the *Study Guide* introduces basic matrix notation and operations, including the commands that create special matrices needed in Exercises 35, 36 and elsewhere. The *Study Guide* appendices treat the corresponding information for the other matrix programs.

2.2 SOLUTIONS

Notes: The text includes the matrix inversion algorithm at the end of the section because this topic is popular. Students like it because it is a simple mechanical procedure. However, I no longer cover it in my classes because technology is readily available to invert a matrix whenever needed, and class time is better spent on more useful topics such as partitioned matrices. The final subsection is independent of the inversion algorithm and is needed for Exercises 35 and 36.

Key Exercises: 8, 11–24, 35. (Actually, Exercise 8 is only helpful for some exercises in this section. Section 2.3 has a stronger result.) Exercises 23 and 24 are used in the proof of the Invertible Matrix Theorem (IMT) in Section 2.3, along with Exercises 23 and 24 in Section 2.1. I recommend letting students work on two or more of these four exercises before proceeding to Section 2.3. In this way students participate in the proof of the IMT rather than simply watch an instructor carry out the proof. Also, this activity will help students understand why the theorem is true.

1.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{32 - 30} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -5/2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

2.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{15 - 16} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -8 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 8 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

3.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ -6 & -3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-21 - (-18)} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -3 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -3 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
 or $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -7/3 \end{bmatrix}$

4.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ 4 & -6 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-12 - (-16)} \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 4 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 4 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 or $\begin{bmatrix} -3/2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$

5. The system is equivalent to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, and the solution is

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -5/2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Thus $x_1 = 7$ and $x_2 = -9$.

6. The system is equivalent to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ -6 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, and the solution is $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

To compute this by hand, the arithmetic is simplified by keeping the fraction $1/\det(A)$ in front of the matrix for A^{-1} . (The *Study Guide* comments on this in its discussion of Exercise 7.) From Exercise 3,

$$\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b} = -\frac{1}{3}\begin{bmatrix} -3 & -3 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{3}\begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ -26 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 26/3 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Thus $x_1 = -5$ and $x_2 = 26/3$.

7. **a.**
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 12 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 12 - 2 \cdot 5} \begin{bmatrix} 12 & -2 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 12 & -2 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 or $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 \\ -2.5 & .5 \end{bmatrix}$

 $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_1 = \frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 12 & -2 \\ -5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} -18 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Similar calculations give

$$A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 11\\-5 \end{bmatrix}, A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6\\-2 \end{bmatrix}, A^{-1}\mathbf{b}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 13\\-5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

b.
$$[A \ \mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \mathbf{b}_3 \ \mathbf{b}_4] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 12 & 3 & -5 & 6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & 2 & 8 & -10 & -4 & -10
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & 1 & 4 & -5 & -2 & -5
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -9 & 11 & 6 & 13 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & -5 & -2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solutions are $\begin{bmatrix} -9\\4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 11\\-5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 6\\-2 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\begin{bmatrix} 13\\-5 \end{bmatrix}$, the same as in part (a).

Note: The Study Guide also discusses the number of arithmetic calculations for this Exercise 7, stating that when A is large, the method used in (b) is much faster than using A^{-1} .

8. Left-multiply each side of $A = PBP^{-1}$ by P^{-1} :

$$P^{-1}A = P^{-1}PBP^{-1}, \quad P^{-1}A = IBP^{-1}, \quad P^{-1}A = BP^{-1}$$

Then right-multiply each side of the result by P:

$$P^{-1}AP = BP^{-1}P$$
, $P^{-1}AP = BI$, $P^{-1}AP = B$

Parentheses are routinely suppressed because of the associative property of matrix multiplication.

9. a. True, by definition of invertible.

- b. False. See Theorem 6(b).
- c. False. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, then $ab cd = 1 0 \neq 0$, but Theorem 4 shows that this matrix is not invertible, because ad bc = 0.
- d. True. This follows from Theorem 5, which also says that the solution of Ax = b is unique, for each b.
- e. True, by the box just before Example 6.
- 10. a. False. The last part of Theorem 7 is misstated here.
 - b. True, by Theorem 6(a).
 - False. The product matrix is invertible, but the product of inverses should be in the reverse order.
 See Theorem 6(b).
 - d. True. See the subsection "Another View of Matrix Inversion".
 - e. True, by Theorem 7.
- 11. (The proof can be modeled after the proof of Theorem 5.) The n×p matrix B is given (but is arbitrary). Since A is invertible, the matrix A⁻¹B satisfies AX = B, because A(A⁻¹B) = A A⁻¹B = IB = B. To show this solution is unique, let X be any solution of AX = B. Then, left-multiplication of each side by A⁻¹ shows that X must be A⁻¹B:

$$A^{-1}(AX) = A^{-1}B$$
, $IX = A^{-1}B$, and $X = A^{-1}B$.

12. Left-multiply each side of the equation AD = I by A^{-1} to obtain

$$A^{-1}AD = A^{-1}I$$
, $ID = A^{-1}$, and $D = A^{-1}$.

Parentheses are routinely suppressed because of the associative property of matrix multiplication.

13. Left-multiply each side of the equation AB = AC by A^{-1} to obtain

$$A^{-1}AB = A^{-1}AC$$
, $IB = IC$, and $B = C$.

This conclusion does not always follow when A is singular. Exercise 10 of Section 2.1 provides a counterexample.

14. Right-multiply each side of the equation (B-C)D = 0 by D^{-1} to obtain

$$(B-C)DD^{-1} = 0D^{-1}$$
, $(B-C)I = 0$, $B-C = 0$, and $B = C$.

15. If you assign this exercise, consider giving the following *Hint*: Use elementary matrices and imitate the proof of Theorem 7. The solution in the Instructor's Edition follows this hint. Here is another solution, based on the idea at the end of Section 2.2.

Write $B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \cdots \mathbf{b}_n]$ and $X = [\mathbf{u}_1 \cdots \mathbf{u}_n]$. By definition of matrix multiplication,

 $AX = [A\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot A\mathbf{u}_p]$. Thus, the equation AX = B is equivalent to the p systems:

$$A\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{b}_1, \dots A\mathbf{u}_p = \mathbf{b}_p$$

Since *A* is the coefficient matrix in each system, these systems may be solved simultaneously, placing the augmented columns of these systems next to *A* to form $[A \ \mathbf{b}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_p] = [A \ B]$. Since *A* is invertible, the solutions $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p$ are uniquely determined, and $[A \ \mathbf{b}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_p]$ must row reduce to $[I \ \mathbf{u}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_n] = [I \ X]$. By Exercise 11, *X* is the unique solution $A^{-1}B$ of AX = B.

16. Let C = AB. Then CB⁻¹ = ABB⁻¹, so CB⁻¹ = AI = A. This shows that A is the product of invertible matrices and hence is invertible, by Theorem 6.

Note: The Study Guide warns against using the formula $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ here, because this formula can be used only when both A and B are already known to be invertible.

17. The box following Theorem 6 suggests what the inverse of ABC should be, namely, C⁻¹B⁻¹A⁻¹. To verify that this is correct, compute:

$$(ABC) \ C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1} = ABCC^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1} = ABIB^{-1}A^{-1} = ABB^{-1}A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

and

$$C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}(ABC) = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}ABC = C^{-1}B^{-1}IBC = C^{-1}B^{-1}BC = C^{-1}IC = C^{-1}C = I$$

18. Right-multiply each side of AB = BC by B^{-1} :

$$ABB^{-1} = BCB^{-1}, AI = BCB^{-1}, A = BCB^{-1}.$$

19. Unlike Exercise 18, this exercise asks two things, "Does a solution exist and what is it?" First, find what the solution must be, if it exists. That is, suppose X satisfies the equation C⁻¹(A + X)B⁻¹ = I. Left-multiply each side by C, and then right-multiply each side by B:

$$CC^{-1}(A+X)B^{-1}=CI$$
, $I(A+X)B^{-1}=C$, $(A+X)B^{-1}B=CB$, $(A+X)I=CB$

Expand the left side and then subtract A from both sides:

$$AI + XI = CB$$
, $A + X = CB$, $X = CB - A$

If a solution exists, it must be CB - A. To show that CB - A really is a solution, substitute it for X: $C^{-1}[A + (CB - A)]B^{-1} = C^{-1}[CB]B^{-1} = C^{-1}CBB^{-1} = II = I.$

Note: The Study Guide suggests that students ask their instructor about how many details to include in their proofs. After some practice with algebra, an expression such as $CC^{-1}(A + X)B^{-1}$ could be simplified directly to $(A + X)B^{-1}$ without first replacing CC^{-1} by I. However, you may wish this detail to be included in the homework for this section.

- a. Left-multiply both sides of (A AX)⁻¹ = X⁻¹B by X to see that B is invertible because it is the
 product of invertible matrices.
 - b. Invert both sides of the original equation and use Theorem 6 about the inverse of a product (which applies because X⁻¹ and B are invertible):

$$A - AX = (X^{-1}B)^{-1} = B^{-1}(X^{-1})^{-1} = B^{-1}X$$

Then $A = AX + B^{-1}X = (A + B^{-1})X$. The product $(A + B^{-1})X$ is invertible because A is invertible. Since X is known to be invertible, so is the other factor, $A + B^{-1}$, by Exercise 16 or by an argument similar to part (a). Finally,

$$(A + B^{-1})^{-1}A = (A + B^{-1})^{-1}(A + B^{-1})X = X$$

Note: This exercise is difficult. The algebra is not trivial, and at this point in the course, most students will not recognize the need to verify that a matrix is invertible.

- 21. Suppose A is invertible. By Theorem 5, the equation Ax = 0 has only one solution, namely, the zero solution. This means that the columns of A are linearly independent, by a remark in Section 1.7.
- 22. Suppose *A* is invertible. By Theorem 5, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution (in fact, a unique solution) for each **b**. By Theorem 4 in Section 1.4, the columns of *A* span \mathbf{R}^n .

- 23. Suppose A is n×n and the equation Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution. Then there are no free variables in this equation, and so A has n pivot columns. Since A is square and the n pivot positions must be in different rows, the pivots in an echelon form of A must be on the main diagonal. Hence A is row equivalent to the n×n identity matrix.
- 24. If the equation Ax = b has a solution for each b in Rⁿ, then A has a pivot position in each row, by Theorem 4 in Section 1.4. Since A is square, the pivots must be on the diagonal of A. It follows that A is row equivalent to I_n. By Theorem 7, A is invertible.
- 25. Suppose $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and ad bc = 0. If a = b = 0, then examine $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ This has the solution $\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} d \\ -c \end{bmatrix}$. This solution is nonzero, except when a = b = c = d. In that case, however, A is

the zero matrix, and Ax = 0 for every vector x. Finally, if a and b are not both zero, set $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$.

Then
$$A\mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -ab+ba \\ -cb+da \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, because $-cb+da=0$. Thus, \mathbf{x}_2 is a nontrivial solution

of Ax = 0. So, in all cases, the equation Ax = 0 has more than one solution. This is impossible when A is invertible (by Theorem 5), so A is *not* invertible.

26.
$$\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} da - bc & 0 \\ 0 & -cb + ad \end{bmatrix}$$
. Divide both sides by $ad - bc$ to get $CA = I$.
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & -cb + da \end{bmatrix}$$
.

Divide both sides by ad - bc. The right side is I. The left side is AC, because

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

- 27. a. Interchange A and B in equation (1) after Example 6 in Section 2.1: row_i(BA) = row_i(B)·A. Then replace B by the identity matrix: row_i(A) = row_i(IA) = row_i(I)·A.
 - b. Using part (a), when rows 1 and 2 of A are interchanged, write the result as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{2}(A) \\ \operatorname{row}_{1}(A) \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(A) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \cdot A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) \\ \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \end{bmatrix} A = EA$$
 (*)

Here, E is obtained by interchanging rows 1 and 2 of I. The second equality in (*) is a consequence of the fact that $row_i(EA) = row_i(E) \cdot A$.

c. Using part (a), when row 3 of A is multiplied by 5, write the result as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(A) \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(A) \\ 5 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{3}(A) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) \cdot A \\ 5 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \cdot A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) \\ 5 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \end{bmatrix} A = EA$$

Here, E is obtained by multiplying row 3 of I by 5.

28. When row 2 of A is replaced by $row_2(A) - 3 \cdot row_1(A)$, write the result as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(A) \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(A) - 3 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{1}(A) \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(A) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) \cdot A - 3 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \cdot A \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \cdot A \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) - 3 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \end{bmatrix} \cdot A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \\ \operatorname{row}_{2}(I) - 3 \cdot \operatorname{row}_{1}(I) \\ \operatorname{row}_{3}(I) \cdot A \end{bmatrix} = EA$$

Here, E is obtained by replacing $row_2(I)$ by $row_2(I) - 3 \cdot row_1(I)$.

29.
$$[A \ I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -9 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -4/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ -4/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

30.
$$[A \quad I] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 7 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 4 & 7 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -4/3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 4/3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -7/3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 4/3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -7/3 & 2 \\ 4/3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

31.
$$[A \quad I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 8 & -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$- \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 7 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 8 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 10 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 7 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$- \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 8 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 10 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7/2 & 3/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} . \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 3 & 1 \\ 10 & 4 & 1 \\ 7/2 & 3/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

32.
$$[A \quad I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & -7 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -6 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 10 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
The matrix A is not invertible.

33. Let
$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and for $j = 1, ..., n$, let \mathbf{a}_j , \mathbf{b}_j , and \mathbf{e}_j denote the j th columns of A, B, B, B

and I, respectively. Note that for j = 1, ..., n - 1, $a_j - a_{j+1} = e_j$ (because a_j and a_{j+1} have the same entries except for the jth row), $b_j = e_j - e_{j+1}$ and $a_n = b_n = e_n$.

To show that AB = I, it suffices to show that $A\mathbf{b}_i = \mathbf{e}_i$ for each j. For j = 1, ..., n - 1,

$$A\mathbf{b}_{i} = A(\mathbf{e}_{i} - \mathbf{e}_{i+1}) = A\mathbf{e}_{i} - A\mathbf{e}_{i+1} = \mathbf{a}_{i} - \mathbf{a}_{i+1} = \mathbf{e}_{i}$$

and $A\mathbf{b}_n = A\mathbf{e}_n = \mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{e}_n$. Next, observe that $\mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{e}_i + \cdots + \mathbf{e}_n$ for each j. Thus,

$$B\mathbf{a}_j = B(\mathbf{e}_j + \cdots + \mathbf{e}_n) = \mathbf{b}_j + \cdots + \mathbf{b}_n$$

$$= (e_j - e_{j+1}) + (e_{j+1} - e_{j+2}) + \cdots + (e_{n-1} - e_n) + e_n = e_j$$

This proves that BA = I. Combined with the first part, this proves that $B = A^{-1}$.

Note: Students who do this problem and then do the corresponding exercise in Section 2.4 will appreciate the Invertible Matrix Theorem, partitioned matrix notation, and the power of a proof by induction.

34. Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ n & n & n & \cdots & n \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 1/2 & 0 & & & \\ 0 & -1/2 & 1/3 & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & & -1/(n-1) & 1/n \end{bmatrix}$$

and for j = 1, ..., n, let a_j , b_j , and e_j denote the jth columns of A, B, and I, respectively. Note that for

$$j = 1, ..., n-1, a_j = je_j + (j+1)e_{j+1} \cdot \cdot \cdot + n e_n, a_n = n e_n, b_j = \frac{1}{j}(e_j - e_{j+1}), \text{ and } b_n = \frac{1}{n}e_n.$$

To show that AB = I, it suffices to show that $Ab_j = e_j$ for each j. For j = 1, ..., n-1,

$$A\mathbf{b}_{j} = A\left(\frac{1}{j}(\mathbf{e}_{j} - \mathbf{e}_{j+1})\right) = \frac{1}{j}(\mathbf{a}_{j} - \mathbf{a}_{j+1})$$

$$= \frac{1}{j}\left[(j\mathbf{e}_{j} + (j+1)\mathbf{e}_{j+1} + \dots + n\mathbf{e}_{n}) - ((j+1)\mathbf{e}_{j+1} + \dots + n\mathbf{e}_{n})\right] = \frac{1}{j}j\mathbf{e}_{j} = \mathbf{e}_{j}.$$
Also, $A\mathbf{b}_{n} = A\left(\frac{1}{n}\mathbf{e}_{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{a}_{n} = \mathbf{e}_{n}.$

Moreover,

$$B\mathbf{a}_{j} = jB\mathbf{e}_{j} + (j+1)B\mathbf{e}_{j+1} + \dots + nB\mathbf{e}_{n} = j\mathbf{b}_{j} + (j+1)\mathbf{b}_{j+1} + \dots + n\mathbf{b}_{n}$$
$$= (\mathbf{e}_{j} - \mathbf{e}_{j+1}) + (\mathbf{e}_{j+1} - \mathbf{e}_{j+2}) + \dots + (\mathbf{e}_{n-1} - \mathbf{e}_{n}) + \mathbf{e}_{n} = \mathbf{e}_{j}.$$

which proves that BA = I. Combined with the first part, this proves that $B = A^{-1}$.

Note: If you assign Exercise 34, you may wish to supply a hint using the notation from Exercise 33: Express each column of A in terms of the columns $e_1, ..., e_n$ of the identity matrix. Do the same for B.

35. Row reduce [A e₃]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -7 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & 15 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Answer: The third column of A^{-1} is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

36. [M] Write $B = [A \ F]$, where F consists of the last two columns of I_3 , and row reduce:

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} -25 & -9 & -27 & 0 & 0 \\ 536 & 185 & 537 & 1 & 0 \\ 154 & 52 & 143 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & .1126 & -.1559 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -.5611 & 1.0077 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & .0828 & -.1915 \end{bmatrix}$$

The last two columns of A^{-1} are \sim $\begin{bmatrix}
.1126 & -.1559 \\
-.5611 & 1.0077 \\
.0828 & -.1915
\end{bmatrix}$

37. There are many possibilities for C, but $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the only one whose entries are 1, -1, -1

and 0. With only three possibilities for each entry, the construction of C can be done by trial and error. This is probably faster than setting up a system of 4 equations in 6 unknowns. The fact that A cannot be invertible follows from Exercise 25 in Section 2.1, because A is not square.

38. Write
$$AD = A[\mathbf{d}_1 \ \mathbf{d}_2] = [A\mathbf{d}_1 \ A\mathbf{d}_2]$$
. The structure of A shows that $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are

two possibilities. There are 9 possible answers. However, there is $no \, 4 \times 2$ matrix C such that $CA = I_4$. If this were true, then CAx would equal x for all x in R^4 . This cannot happen because the columns of A are linearly dependent and so Ax = 0 for some nonzero vector x. For such an x, CAx = C(0) = 0. An alternate justification would be to cite Exercise 23 or 25 in Section 2.1.

39.
$$\mathbf{y} = D\mathbf{f} = \begin{bmatrix} .011 & .003 & .001 \\ .003 & .009 & .003 \\ .001 & .003 & .011 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 40 \\ 50 \\ .52 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} .62 \\ .66 \\ .52 \end{bmatrix}$$
. The deflections are .62 in., .66 in., and .52 in. at points 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

40. [M] The stiffness matrix is D^{-1} . Use an "inverse" command to produce