

## On the Inverse of a Square Polynomial Matrix

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### معكوس المصفوفة الحدودية المربعة

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#### Abstract:

In this work, we explore two methods for finding the inverse of polynomial matrices: the Gauss-Jordan inversion method and the Yujiro Inouye algorithm. The Gauss-Jordan method applies to the inversion of polynomial matrices and necessitates operations involving polynomials. Notably, when performing these operations, the resultant inverse may contain polynomials of high degree if common factors in the divisor and dividend polynomials are not canceled out in the numerators and denominators. Conversely, the Yujiro Inouye algorithm requires only operations with constant matrices. This algorithm produces an inverse in minimal degree form, provided that the polynomial matrix being inverted is not of a special form. It has been demonstrated that this method is faster than existing alternatives. Several examples are provided to illustrate the feasibility of both methods.

**Keywords:** polynomial matrix, inverse of polynomial matrix, Elementary operations.

#### الملخص

هذا الورقة تدرس إمكانية إيجاد معكوس المصفوفة الحدودية باستخدام طريقتي جاوس-جوردن و يوجيرو إنوي. تعتمد طريقة جاوس-جوردن على العمليات الصفية الأولية التي تشمل متعددات الحدود، مما قد يؤدي إلى وجود معكوس يحتوي على متعددات من الرتبة العليا إذا لم يتم اختصار العوامل المشتركة في المقابل، تتطلب طريقة يوجيرو إنوي إجراء العمليات على مصفوفات المعاملات فقط، مما ينتج عنه معكوس بأقل درجة. وتعتبر هذه الطريقة أسرع في حساب المعكوس مقارنة بالطريقة السابقة. كما تم دعم الورقة بعدد من الأمثلة التي توضح استخدام الطريقتين.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** المصفوفة الحدودية، معكوس المصفوفة الحدودية، العمليات الأولية.

#### Introduction

The study of polynomial matrices began in the early 20th century, evolving from traditional methods like Gauss-Jordan elimination to include the Yujiro Inouye algorithm, which focuses on constant matrices for faster computations. These methods became crucial in multivariable control systems, where the inversion of polynomial matrices is essential for determining transfer functions. Ongoing research continues to enhance these techniques for complex applications. The primary objective of this work is to present two methods for computing the inverse of polynomial matrices, which frequently arise in the analysis and design of multivariable control systems. For instance, in the  $x$ -domain formulation, a control system is represented by the equations  $P(x)z = V(x)v$  and  $y = U(x)z$ , where  $v$  is a vector of inputs,  $y$  is a vector of outputs and  $z$  is a vector of system variables. The matrices  $P(x)$ ,  $V(x)$  and  $U(x)$  are real polynomial matrices. The determination of the transfer function matrix  $F(x) = U(x)P^{-1}(x)V(x)$  requires the computation of the inverse  $P^{-1}(x)$ . Also, in the design of multivariable control systems, the inverse of  $F(x)$  is required when  $F(x)$  is a square invertible matrix [6]. This paper introduces the Gauss-Jordan inversion method [7] and the Yujiro Inouye algorithm [10] for computing the inverses of polynomial

matrices. While the Gauss-Jordan method is commonly employed for the numerical inversion of constant matrices, it can also be adapted for polynomial matrices. The Yujiro Inouye algorithm is noted for its efficiency compared to methods in [4] and [5]. This algorithm requires only operations with constant matrices and allows for the simultaneous determination of the coefficients of the determinants.

## 1. Basic definitions:

**Definition 1.1.** A polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  is a matrix where each entry is a polynomial in an indeterminate variable  $x$ . So, a general  $m \times n$  polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  can be written as

$$P(x) = P_N x^N + P_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + P_1 x + P_0 \quad (1)$$

where each  $P_i$  is a constant  $m \times n$  matrix. The degree of  $P(x)$  is  $N$ , assuming that the leading coefficient matrix  $P_N$  is non-zero.

Notice, the fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, and multiplication of two or more polynomial matrices are defined in the same manner as those for scalar matrices.

**Definition 1.2.** A polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  is *square* matrix if it is  $n \times n$  matrix, i.e.  $P_i$  is a constant  $n \times n$  matrix.

**Definition 1.3[9].** A square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  is called *proper* if  $P_N$  is non-singular, and it can be written as

$$P(x) = P_N \hat{P}(x), \text{ where } \hat{P}(x) = I_n x^N + \hat{P}_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + \hat{P}_0 \text{ and } \hat{P}_i = P_N^{-1} P_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

**Definition 1.4[9].** Any square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  can be expressed as

$$P(x) = P_N \text{diag}(x^{d_i}) + P_{N-1} \text{diag}(x^{d_i-1}) + \dots + P_0 \text{diag}(x^{d_i-N})$$

Where The degree of the  $i$ th column of  $P(x)$ , denoted as  $d_i$ , is the highest degree of polynomial elements in the  $i$ th column of  $P(x)$ ,  $N = \max(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ , and  $\text{diag}(x^{d_i})$  is the  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix with diagonal elements  $x^{d_i}$ . Since the elements of  $P(x)$  are polynomial, the columns of  $P_i$  corresponding to negative powers of  $x$  are zero.

**Definition 1.5[9].** A square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  is called *column proper* if it can be written as

$$P(x) = P_N \hat{P}(x), \text{ where } \hat{P}(x) = I_n \text{diag}(x^{d_i}) + \hat{P}_{N-1} \text{diag}(x^{d_i-1}) + \dots + \hat{P}_0 \text{diag}(x^{d_i-N}), \text{ and } \hat{P}_i = P_N^{-1} P_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1.$$

**Definition 1.6[9].** A square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  is called *row proper* if its transpose  $P^T(x)$  is column proper.

**Definition 1.7.** The *trace* of a square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$ , denoted  $\text{tr}(P(x))$ , is the sum of the elements on its main diagonal.

**Definition 1.8.** the *determinant* of an  $n \times n$  polynomial matrix  $P(x)$  denoted as  $\det P(x)$  consists of a sum of  $n!$  terms, each of which is the product of  $n$  elements of the matrix. By definition, each element of  $P(x)$ , in (1) has degree at most  $N$ , so when  $m = n$  the degree of  $\det P(x)$  is at most  $nN$ .

**Definition 1.9.** A matrix  $P(x)$  is *non-singular* if  $\det P(x) \neq 0$ , and it is *singular* when  $\det P(x) = 0$ .

Notes, when  $P_N$  in (1) is singular the degree of  $\det P(x)$  is less than  $nN$ . When  $P_N$  is non-singular then  $P(x)$  is called *regular*, and  $P(x)$  is *monic* when  $P_N = I_n$ . Also, deduce that if  $P(x)$ ,  $Q(x)$  are each  $n \times n$  and have degrees  $N_1$ ,  $N_2$  respectively then the degree of  $PQ$  is  $N_1 + N_2$  provided at least one of  $P_N$ ,  $Q_N$  is non-singular.

**Definition 1.10.** The inverse of a square matrix  $P(x)$  is defined as

$$P^{-1}(x) = \frac{\text{adj}P(x)}{\det P(x)} \quad (2)$$

The elements of  $\text{adj}P(x)$  are minors of  $P(x)$ , and are therefore polynomials. The inverse of  $P(x)$  will not in general be a polynomial matrix. Hence,

**a.** If  $\det P(x)$  is a non-zero scalar it follows that  $P^{-1}(x)$  will be a polynomial matrix. in which case  $P(x)$ , is called *unimodular* (or invertible). Since  $\det P(x)$  is then independent of  $x$  its value will be unchanged by setting  $x = 0$  in (1), so for a unimodular matrix  $\det P(x) = \det P_0$ . Clearly, a necessary condition for  $P(x)$ , to be unimodular is that  $\det P_N \neq 0$ , which ensures that there is no term in  $x^{nN}$  in  $\det P(x)$ .

**b.** If  $\det P(x)$  is polynomial of degree at most  $nN$ , then  $P^{-1}(x)$  will be a *rational* matrix (a ratio of two polynomials).

## 2. Elementary operations [7]:

**I.** The *rank* of a polynomial matrix is equal to the order of the largest square submatrix whose determinant is not identically zero.

**II.** Using 'line' to stand for either a row or a column of a polynomial matrix, the elementary operations defined as:

- (a) interchange any two lines:  $L_i \rightarrow L_j$ .  
 (b) multiply any line by a nonzero scalar:  $kL_i$ .  
 (c) add to any line any other line multiplied by an arbitrary polynomial:  $L_i + p(x)L_j$ .

**III.** Elementary operations as defined in 2 do not change the rank of a polynomial rank.

**IV.** An *elementary* matrix is a polynomial matrix obtained by applying a single elementary operation to  $I_n$ , and is unimodular. Specifically, if  $E$  is the matrix obtained by applying a row operation to  $I_n$ , then  $EP$  is the matrix obtained by applying the same operation to  $P$ .

**v.** Two polynomial matrices  $P(x)$ ,  $Q(x)$ . are equivalent if it is possible to pass from one to the other by a sequence of elementary operations. The equivalence transformation can be represented by  $P(x) = A(x)Q(x)B(x)$ , where  $A(x)$  and  $B(x)$  are unimodular matrices.

### 3. Finding the inverse of polynomial matrix using row elementary operations:

To calculate the inverse of a polynomial matrix using row elementary operations, the Gauss-Jordan elimination method can be employed. This technique adapts the conventional methods used for constant matrices. Key requirements for this approach include that the matrix must be square and of full rank, which guarantees a non-zero determinant.

Given a square polynomial matrix  $P(x)$ , its inverse  $P^{-1}(x)$  can be found using Gaussian elimination (or row reduction) to transform  $P(x)$  into the identity matrix  $I_n$  while applying the same operations to an identity matrix.

#### Existence of an inverse:

For an  $n \times n$  matrix  $P(x)$ , the following statements are equal.

-  $P^{-1}(x)$  exist ( $P(x)$  is nonsingular).

-  $\text{rank}(P(x)) = n$ .

-  $P(x) \xrightarrow{\text{Gauss-Jordan}} I_n$ .

#### Compute $P^{-1}(x)$ Using Row Elementary Operations:

Let  $P(x)$  be an  $n \times n$  polynomial matrix. Construct an augmented matrix which is  $[P(x) | I_n]$ .

where  $I_n$  is the identity matrix of size  $n \times n$ . Gauss-Jordan elimination can be used to invert  $P(x)$  by the reduction  $[P(x) | I_n] \xrightarrow{\text{Gauss-Jordan}} [I_n | P^{-1}(x)]$ . The only way for this reduction to fail is for a row of zeros to emerge in an augmented matrix and this occurs if and only if  $P(x)$  is a singular matrix.

#### Example:

Given the polynomial matrix

$$P(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 + 2x + 2 & x + 2 \\ x + 1 & x + 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

the Augmented Matrix is:

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} x^2 + 2x + 2 & x + 2 & 1 & 0 \\ x + 1 & x + 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \\ R_2 \leftarrow \frac{x+1}{x^2+2x+2} R_1 - R_2 &\Rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} x^2 + 2x + 2 & x + 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-(x+2)(x^2+x+1)}{x^2+2x+2} & \frac{1}{x^2+2x+2} & -1 \end{array} \right) \\ R_2 \leftarrow \frac{x+1}{2x} R_2 &\Rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} x + 1 & x & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-x}{3x+2} & \frac{x+1}{3x+2} \end{array} \right) \\ R_1 \leftarrow R_1 + \frac{x^2+2x+2}{x^2+x+1} R_2 &\Rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} x^2 + 2x + 2 & 0 & \frac{x^2+2x+2}{x^2+x+1} & \frac{-(x^2+2x+2)}{x^2+x+1} \\ 0 & \frac{-(x+2)(x^2+x+1)}{x^2+2x+2} & \frac{1}{x^2+2x+2} & -1 \end{array} \right) \\ R_1 \leftarrow \frac{1}{x+1} R_1 &\Rightarrow \left( \begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{x^2+x+1} & \frac{-1}{x^2+x+1} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-(x+1)}{(x+2)(x^2+x+1)} & \frac{x^2+2x+2}{(x+2)(x^2+x+1)} \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the inverse is:

$$P^{-1}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x^2+x+1} & \frac{-1}{x^2+x+1} \\ \frac{-(x+1)}{(x+2)(x^2+x+1)} & \frac{x^2+2x+2}{(x+2)(x^2+x+1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence:

$$P^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + x + 1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -(x+1) & x^2 + 2x + 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x+2 & x+2 \\ x+2 & x+2 \end{pmatrix}$$

A challenge in using row operations is that if common factors are not removed during division, the resulting inverse may include high-degree polynomials [10].

#### 4. Finding the inverse of polynomial matrix using Yujiro Inouye algorithm [10]:

This algorithm for inverting polynomial matrices builds upon the Souriau-Frame-Faddeev [1,2,3] algorithm by using only operations with constant matrices, resulting in inverses expressed in minimal degree form. It is more efficient than previous methods and is particularly suitable for implementation in computer programming, employing the Gauss-Jordan elimination technique.

**Compute**  
 $P^{-1}(x)$  Using Yujiro Inouye algorithm:

As in definition

1.5 a column proper polynomial matrix  $A(x)$  can be reduced as

$$P(x) = P_N \text{diag}(x^{d_1}) + P_{N-1} \text{diag}(x^{d_1-1}) + \dots + P_0 \text{diag}(x^{d_1-N})$$

Where  $P_N = I_n$ ,  $N = \max(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ , and the columns of  $P_i$  corresponding to negative powers of  $x$  are zero. Also, we can represent  $P(x) = P_N \hat{P}(x)$ , where

$$\hat{P}(x) = I_n \text{diag}(x^{d_1}) + \hat{P}_{N-1} \text{diag}(x^{d_1-1}) + \dots + \hat{P}_0 \text{diag}(x^{d_1-N}), \text{ and } \hat{P}_i = P_N^{-1} P_i, i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1.$$

The determinant of  $P(x)$  is a monic polynomial of degree  $m = d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_n$ :

$$\det P(x) = a_m x^m + a_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + a_0$$

Where  $a_m = 1$ ,  $a_{m-k} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{\min(N,k)} j \cdot \text{tr}(P Q_{m-N-k+j})$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, m$

Since  $P(x)$  is column proper then the  $\text{adj}P(x)$  is row proper, and the  $i$ th row of  $\text{adj}P(x)$  has degree  $m - d_i$ . Therefore,

$$\text{adj}P(x) = \text{diag}(x^{m-d_1}) Q_{m-p} + \text{diag}(x^{m-d_1-1}) Q_{m-p-1} + \dots + \text{diag}(x^{p-d_1}) Q_0$$

Where  $p = \min(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ ,  $Q_{m-p} = I_n$ ,  $Q_{m-p-k} = a_{m-k} I_n - \sum_{j=1}^{\min(N,k)} P_{N-j} Q_{m-N-k+j}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, m-p$ , and  $Q_{-1} = 0$ . Finally,  $P^{-1}(x) = \frac{\text{adj}P(x)}{\det P(x)}$ .

#### Example:

To grasp the algorithm, let's look at the following example.

$$P(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 + 2x + 2 & x + 2 \\ x + 1 & x + 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The degrees  $d_1 = 2$ ,  $d_2 = 1$ .  $P(x)$  can be written as

$$P(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_2^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{P}(x) = I_2 \begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} + \hat{P}_1 \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \hat{P}_0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{P}_1 = P_2^{-1} P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \hat{P}_0 = P_2^{-1} P_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$m = d_1 + d_2 = 3$ ,  $N = \max(d_1, d_2) = 2$ , and  $p = \min(d_1, d_2) = 1$

$$\det \hat{P}(x) = \hat{a}_3 x^3 + \hat{a}_2 x^2 + \hat{a}_1 x + \hat{a}_0$$

and

$$\text{adj} \hat{P}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & x^2 \end{pmatrix} \hat{Q}_2 + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} \hat{Q}_1 + \begin{pmatrix} x^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \hat{Q}_0$$

$$\hat{a}_3 = 1$$

$$\hat{Q}_2 = I_2$$

$$\hat{a}_2 = \text{tr}(\hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_2) = 3$$

$$\hat{Q}_1 = \hat{a}_2 I_2 - \hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{a}_1 = \frac{1}{2} [\text{tr}(\hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_1) + 2\text{tr}(\hat{P}_0 \hat{Q}_2)] = 3$$

$$\hat{Q}_0 = \hat{a}_1 I_2 - \hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_1 - \hat{P}_0 \hat{Q}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{a}_0 = \frac{1}{3} [\text{tr}(\hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_0) + 2\text{tr}(\hat{P}_0 \hat{Q}_1)] = 2$$

$$\hat{Q}_{-1} = \hat{a}_0 I_2 - \hat{P}_1 \hat{Q}_0 - \hat{P}_0 \hat{Q}_1 = 0$$

$$\det \hat{P}(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 2$$

$$\text{adj} \hat{P}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & x^2 \end{pmatrix} I_2 + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x+2 & 0 \\ -(x+1) & x^2+x+1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{P}^{-1}(x) = \frac{\text{adj} \hat{P}(x)}{\det \hat{P}(x)} = \frac{1}{x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 2} \begin{pmatrix} x+2 & 0 \\ -(x+1) & x^2+x+1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}(x) = \hat{P}^{-1}(x) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x + 2} \begin{pmatrix} x+2 & -(x+2) \\ -(x+1) & x^2+2x+2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{x^2+x+1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -(x+1) & x^2+2x+2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x+2 & -1 \\ x+2 & x+2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Numerically, we obtained the same result using Python, and here is the code:

```
import numpy as np
import sympy as sp

def polynomial_matrix_inverse(P):
    """
    Calculate the inverse of a polynomial matrix using the Yujiro Inouye
    algorithm.

    Parameters:
    P (numpy.ndarray): A square matrix of polynomials.

    Returns:
    numpy.ndarray: Inverse of the polynomial matrix.
    """

    n = P.shape[0]
    # Create a matrix for the inverse
    Q = np.eye(n, dtype=object)

    # Create symbolic variable
    x = sp.symbols('x')

    # Convert the polynomial matrix to a SymPy matrix
    P_sym = sp.Matrix(P)

    # Compute the inverse using SymPy
    try:
        Q_sym = P_sym.inv()
    except Exception as e:
        print("Error in computing inverse:", e)
        return None

    # Convert back to a NumPy array
    for i in range(n):
        for j in range(n):
            Q[i, j] = Q_sym[i, j]

    return Q

# Example usage
if __name__ == "__main__":
    # Define the polynomial matrix
    x = sp.symbols('x')
    P = np.array([[x**2 + 2*x + 2, x + 2],
                  [x + 1, x + 2]])

    # Calculate the inverse
    inverse_P = polynomial_matrix_inverse(P)
    print("Inverse of the polynomial matrix:")
    print(inverse_P)
```

Here is the inverse obtained from executing the code:

```
Inverse of the polynomial matrix:
[[1/(x^2 + x + 1) -1/(x^2 + x + 1)]
 [(-x - 1)/(x^3 + 3*x^2 + 3*x + 2)
 (x^2 + 2*x + 2)/(x^3 + 3*x^2 + 3*x + 2)]]
```

## Conclusion

We have explored two key methods for inverting polynomial matrices: the Gauss-Jordan inversion method and the Yujiro Inouye algorithm. While the Gauss-Jordan method is adaptable for polynomial matrices, it can generate high-degree polynomials in the inverse if common factors are not properly managed. In contrast, the Yujiro Inouye algorithm offers a significant advantage by relying solely on constant matrix operations, resulting in inverses in minimal degree form and demonstrating faster performance than traditional methods. A range of examples was provided to illustrate both techniques, showcasing their practical utility and effectiveness. These methods serve as valuable resources for researchers working with polynomial matrices, enhancing our ability to analyze and design complex systems. Future research could focus on optimizing these algorithms and investigating their integration into broader computational frameworks, ensuring ongoing progress in this field.

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