

8 2025-09-12 | Week 03 | Lecture 08

This lecture is based on sections 1.3 in your textbook

The nexus question of this lecture: What are the key properties of the matrix inverse?

8.1 What is a matrix inverse?

Definition 20 (Matrix Inverse). The matrix A is *invertible* if there is a matrix A^{-1} such that

$$A^{-1}A = I \quad \text{and} \quad AA^{-1} = I$$

If so we call A^{-1} the *inverse* of A .

Note:

- Invertible matrices are always square. Nonsquare matrices are not invertible.
- Whatever A does, A^{-1} undoes. If A stretches spaces, A^{-1} compresses it back. If A flips space, A^{-1} flips it back. If A rotates spaces, A^{-1} rotates it back, etc.

Theorem 21 (The socks and shoes property). *If A and B are invertible then so is AB , and*

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

If you put on socks and then shoes, what is the inverse of that? Take off the shoes, and then the socks.

Note that Theorem 21 has two conclusions: first, that products of matrices are invertible, and second the formula $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Proof of Theorem 21. It is sufficient to show that $B^{-1}A^{-1}$ is the inverse of AB , which we can do by direct computation:

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = A(I)A^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I.$$

and

$$(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}(A^{-1}A)B = B^{-1}B = I$$

□

Theorem 22. *Suppose that A and B are square matrices such that either $AB = I$ or $BA = I$. Then A is an invertible matrix and $A^{-1} = B$*

I'm going to omit the proof of this theorem, but I will introduce the general framework that that is used to prove it and results like it, because it is based on an important idea.

8.2 Row reduction is multiplication by elementary matrices

Section 1.3 in the textbook provides a framework, based on row reduction, for deducing properties of inverses. Recall that in row reduction, you have three basic operations:

- swapping two rows
- multiplying a row by a number
- adding a multiple of a row to another row.

These operations can all be done using matrix multiplication, using matrices called *elementary matrices*. Here are some examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ a & b \end{bmatrix} \quad R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5a & 5b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \quad 5R_1 \rightarrow R_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ 3a + c & 3b + d \end{bmatrix} \quad 3R_1 + R_2 \rightarrow R_2$$

Fact: Elementary matrices are always invertible, because one can always undo a row operation. Moreover, by Theorem 21 (which tells us that products of invertible matrices are invertible), we also know that products of elementary matrices are also invertible.

What does it all mean? If you can row reduce a matrix A to I , that means there exists some sequence of elementary matrices E_1, \dots, E_m such that

$$E_1 E_2 E_3 \cdots E_m A = I.$$

Letting $M = E_1 E_2 E_3 \cdots E_m$, we have

$$MA = I.$$

By Theorem 22, this is enough to conclude that A is invertible and

$$A^{-1} = M.$$

We've just proven part of the following theorem:

Theorem 23. *Let A be a square matrix. The following are equivalent:*

- (i.) *A can be row-reduced to the identity matrix I .*
- (ii.) *A is invertible.*

In particular, we've shown that (i.) implies (ii.). The reverse direction (that (ii.) implies (i.)) can also be proved using this framework of elementary matrices, but I'd rather spend the time showing an example of how to compute the inverse of a matrix using row reduction.

8.3 Computing matrix inverses using row-reduction

The next example will illustrate a general approach for computing a matrix inverse.

Example 24 (Computing the inverse of a matrix). In the previous lecture, we considered the matrix

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

which stretches space in some way, scaling area by a factor of 5. Suppose we wish to find A^{-1} .

Let

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

We need X to satisfy

$$AX = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Writing out AX , we have

$$AX = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3x_{11} + x_{21} & 3x_{12} + x_{22} \\ x_{11} + 2x_{21} & x_{12} + 2x_{22} \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

By setting AX equal to I , we have a system of four linear equations in four variables $x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{21}, x_{22}$.

We have a nice way to solve linear systems: row reduction. Moreover, for finding inverses, there is a clever way to do it, as I now show.

Step 1. Set up an augmented matrix of the following form:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Step 2. Completely row reduce the matrix until the left part is the identity matrix. (I'm skipping these steps). After doing this for this example, we get:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 2/5 & -1/5 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/5 & 3/5 \end{array} \right]$$

Step 3. Draw the conclusion that A^{-1} is the the matrix to the right of the bar:

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/5 & -1/5 \\ -1/5 & 3/5 \end{bmatrix}$$

End of Example 24. \square

Remark 25. The approach in Example 24 works for larger matrices as well, see Example 1 in Section 1.3 of the textbook (p.31).

Remark 26. Recall that from the previous lecture, we saw that the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ corresponds to a transformation of space that somehow stretched space in a way that scaled area by a factor of 5, because $\det(A) = 5$ (see Section 7.3). Since A^{-1} undoes whatever A did, so it must shrink space by a factor of 5. Indeed,

$$\det(A^{-1}) = \left(\frac{2}{5}\right) \left(\frac{3}{5}\right) - \left(-\frac{1}{5}\right) \left(-\frac{1}{5}\right) = \frac{6}{25} - \frac{1}{25} = \frac{1}{5}.$$

This illustrates the following theorem:

Theorem 27. *If A^{-1} exists then*

$$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}.$$

Now that we know the determinant of a matrix measures how space is scaled by the transformation, the geometric reason why this theorem is true is obvious: the matrix A transforms space in some way, and then A^{-1} undoes that transformation. So we are left with the **identity transformation**, which doesn't change space at all. So if A scales space by a factor of a then A^{-1} must scale it by a factor of $\frac{1}{a}$. We'll probably give an actual proof later, but that's the idea.