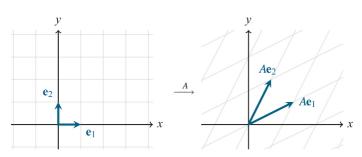
Inverse, Determinant

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

March 25, 2025

Recap:

When you multiply, say, a 2×2 matrix A by a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, what you get is another vector $\mathbf{u} = A\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We call this \mathbf{u} the **transformed version** of \mathbf{v} (and we say that A is a linear transformation).



As we will see later, the resulting "transformed version" \mathbf{u} is just the same old \mathbf{v} except it is **rotated** and **scaled** to become longer or shorter (and possibly, flipped).

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In this sense, all matrices are either just rotating vectors by some degree, or flipping them horizontally/vertically, or scale them, or do all three.

The key thing is: whatever a matrix "does" to one vector, it does the same to all other vectors too (when being multiplied with them).

Check different matrices yourself:

- visualize-it.github.io/linear_transformations/simulation.html
- www.shad.io/MatVis

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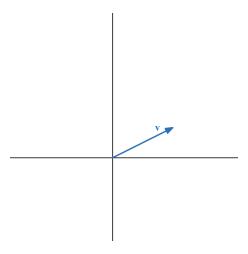
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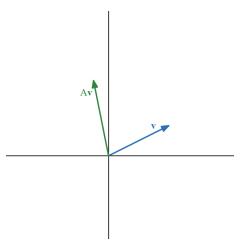
Now that we know what matrix \times vector multiplication means, what about matrix \times matrix multiplication? Why is it defined the way it is?

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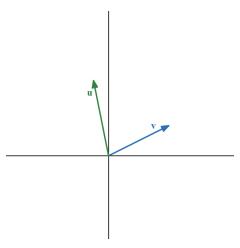
Suppose $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$:



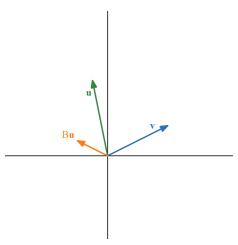
If we apply A on \mathbf{v} , we get a transformed version of \mathbf{v} ,



If we apply A on \mathbf{v} , we get a transformed version of \mathbf{v} , say \mathbf{u} :

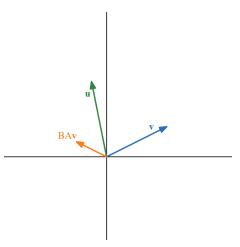


Now applying B on \mathbf{u} , we get a transformed version of \mathbf{u} , i.e. $B\mathbf{u}$



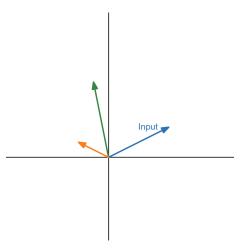
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Now applying B on \mathbf{u} , we get a transformed version of \mathbf{u} , i.e. $B\mathbf{u} = BA\mathbf{v}$

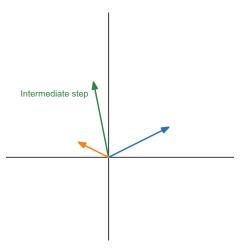


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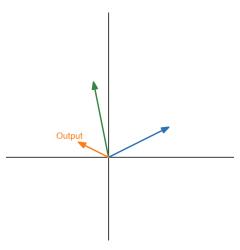
So what is the product BA? To get $(BA)(\mathbf{v})$, we do:



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Hence BA is the linear transformation that we get by **first applying** A, and **then applying** B!

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Question

Suppose A is the matrix that rotates the vectors by 30° , B the one that rotates by 50° , and C by 260° .

Hence BA is the linear transformation that we get by **first applying** A, and **then applying** B!

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Suppose A is the matrix that rotates the vectors by 30° , B the one that rotates by 50° , and C by 260° .

What would the product matrix BA be?

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Suppose A is the matrix that rotates the vectors by 30° , B the one that rotates by 50° , and C by 260° .

What would the product matrix BA be? What about CBA?

Hence BA is the linear transformation that we get by **first applying** A, and **then applying** B!

(Note that this means that often AB is not the same as BA)

Question

Suppose A is the matrix that rotates the vectors by 30° , B the one that rotates by 50° , and C by 260° .

What would the product matrix BA be? What about CBA?

Which matrix leaves everything in its place (does not touch anything)?

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Definition

A matrix is said to be **square** if it has the same number of rows and columns. In other words, an $n \times n$ matrix is a square matrix.

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Example

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

This matrix is both symmetric and (of course) square.

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Definition

The **main diagonal** (or just the **diagonal**) of a matrix A are the terms a_{ii} for which the row and column indices are the same $(a_{11}, a_{22}, ...)$, so from the upper left element to the lower right.

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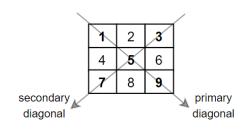
Similarly, the other diagonal from the upper right element to the lower left is called the **secondary diagonal**.

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For example, here the main diagonal is marked with red:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The secondary diagonal is marked with red:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \\ 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition

The **identity matrix** of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted as I_n , is the square matrix with ones on the main diagonal and zeros elsewhere.

Applying the identity matrix on vectors does not change them.

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Example

$$I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
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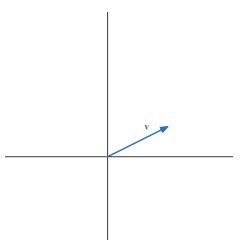
Therefore, we can say:

Property

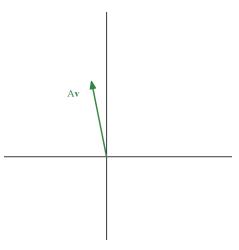
For any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

$$I_m A = AI_n = A$$

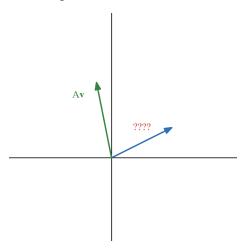
Finally, what if we have a vector in \mathbb{R}^n ,



Finally, what if we have a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , and we accidentally transform it?



How to get back to the original vector?



In other words, in terms of what we learned about matrix multiplication,

what
$$\times A = I$$
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We call that matrix the **inverse** of A, and we denote it by A^{-1} .

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In other words, in terms of what we learned about matrix multiplication,

$$A^{-1} \times A = I$$
!

We call that matrix the **inverse** of A, and we denote it by A^{-1} .

Question

Assume the matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ does the following when applied on a vector:

- scales the vector up 2 times in the horizontal direction,
- 2 then rotates it by 30° clockwise,
- then squishes it down 3 times in the vertical direction,
- **4** and then flips it horizontally (around the x-axis) \sim

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Given $\mathbf{v} = A\mathbf{u}$, could we recover the original \mathbf{u} ?

The answer is yes, i.e. the matrix A has an inverse. As we will see soon, only some square matrices actually have an inverse.

Definition

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$$tr(A) = a_{11} + a_{22} + \ldots + a_{nn}$$

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Example

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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 4 \\ 7 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

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then

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Note that only square matrices have a trace.

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Trace Properties

For any matrices A and B, and any scalar c, the trace of a matrix satisfies the following properties:

- $\operatorname{tr}(cA) = c \cdot \operatorname{tr}(A)$
- $\operatorname{tr}(A+B) = \operatorname{tr}(A) + \operatorname{tr}(B)$
- tr(AB) = tr(BA)
- $\operatorname{tr}(A^T) = \operatorname{tr}(A)$

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Determinant Formula

For a 2×2 matrix

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

the determinant is given by

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Example

For the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

the determinant is det(A) = (2)(4) - (5)(-3) = 8 + 15 = 23.

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Determinant Formula

For a 3×3 matrix

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

the determinant is given by

$$det(C) = aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh$$

Determinant Formula

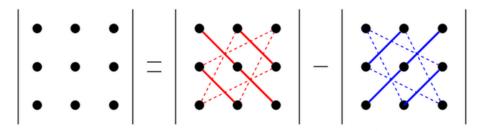
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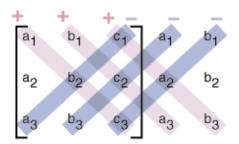
the determinant is given by

$$det(C) = aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh$$

Forget that formula-remember the algorithm!



Alternatively,



$$\det A = (a_1 b_2 c_3 + b_1 c_2 a_3 + c_1 a_2 b_3) - (a_3 b_2 c_1 + b_3 c_2 a_1 + c_3 a_2 b_1)$$

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Example

For the matrix

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\det(C) = 1 \cdot 5 \cdot 9 + 2 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 8 - 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 - 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 9 - 1 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 = 0$

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Example

For the matrix

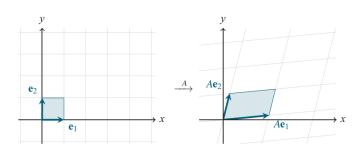
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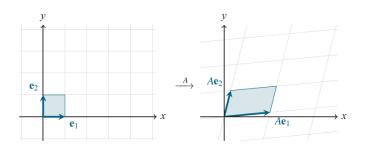
But what does the determinant show, and how do we need it?

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If we take, for example, the so-called "unit square" formed by the vectors $\mathbf{e}_1 = [1 \ 0]$ and $\mathbf{e}_2 = [0 \ 1]$, we can see that their transformed versions, $A\mathbf{e}_1$ and $A\mathbf{e}_2$, form a parallelogram:



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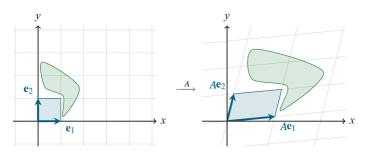


Then det(A) is the area of that parallelogram.

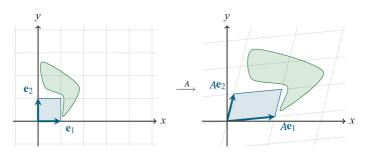
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More generally, after we apply the transformation A (play that animation in your head), the area of *any shape* gets scaled by the factor of det(A):



More generally, after we apply the transformation A (play that animation in your head), the area of *any shape* gets scaled by the factor of det(A):



So the determinant shows how much the matrix scales up everything in average. Note that it is defined **only** for square matrices.

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Determinant Properties

Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be square matrices of the same size, and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$ be any scalar. Then:

- $det(cA) = c^n \cdot det(A)$ (where n is the size of the matrix)
- $det(AB) = det(A) \cdot det(B)$ (multiplicativity)
- \bullet $\det(I) = 1$
- If A is invertible, then $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$
- $det(A^T) = det(A)$ (invariance under transpose)
- If all numbers on some row or some column of A are zero, then det(A) = 0
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It would be an exercise of huge importance to attempt proving these properties (except the last three) by playing the matrices in your head.

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Finally,

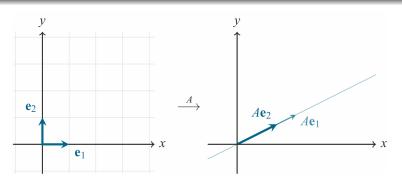
Question

What does it mean if $\det A = 0$?

Finally,

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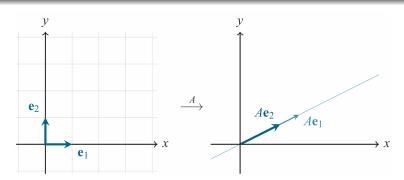
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Finally,

Question

What does it mean if $\det A = 0$?



Theorem

A square matrix A has an inverse if and only if its determinant is not zero.

Formula for 2x2

For a 2×2 invertible matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, the inverse A^{-1} can be calculated using the formula:

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

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Example

Given $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ with det $A = (2 \times 4) - (3 \times 1) = 5$, we can calculate the inverse as follows:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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