

MA 110

Linear Algebra and Differential Equations

Lecture 09

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Review of last lecture

We mainly discussed the notion of **determinant** of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{jk})$ of size $n \times n$ and observed the following.

- Defined inductively by $\det \mathbf{A} = a_{11}$ if $n = 1$ and for $n \geq 2$,

$$\det \mathbf{A} := a_{11}M_{11} - a_{12}M_{12} + \cdots + (-1)^{1+n}a_{1n}M_{1n}.$$

where M_{jk} denotes the (j, k) th **minor** of \mathbf{A} , which is the determinant of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix of \mathbf{A} obtained by deleting the j th row and the k th column of \mathbf{A} ,

- $\det \mathbf{A}$ has a similar expansion along any of its rows, and also a similar expansion along any of its columns.
- $\det \mathbf{A}^T = \det \mathbf{A}$.
- The determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of its diagonal entries. In particular, $\det \mathbf{I} = 1$.
- The determinant function $\mathbf{A} \mapsto \det \mathbf{A}$ from $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ to \mathbb{R} is multilinear and alternating in columns (as well as rows).
- \mathbf{A} is invertible $\iff \det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$.

Determinant and Rank

We now relate the rank of a matrix with determinants of its submatrices.

Lemma

Let \mathbf{A} be an $m \times n$ matrix, and $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\text{rank } \mathbf{A} \geq r \iff \exists \text{ an } r \times r \text{ submatrix } \mathbf{B} \text{ of } \mathbf{A} \text{ with } \det \mathbf{B} \neq 0$$

Proof. Suppose $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} \geq r$. Since $\text{rank } \mathbf{A}$ equals the column rank of \mathbf{A} , there are r linearly independent columns of \mathbf{A} . Let \mathbf{C} denote the $m \times r$ submatrix of \mathbf{A} consisting of these r columns. Then the column rank of \mathbf{C} is r , and so the row rank of \mathbf{C} is also r . Hence there are r linearly independent rows of \mathbf{C} . Let \mathbf{B} denote the $r \times r$ submatrix of \mathbf{C} consisting of these r rows. These r rows of \mathbf{B} are linearly independent, and so $\text{rank } \mathbf{B} = r$. Hence \mathbf{B} is invertible, and so $\det \mathbf{B} \neq 0$.

Conversely, suppose \mathbf{B} is an $r \times r$ submatrix of \mathbf{A} such that $\det \mathbf{B} \neq 0$. Then \mathbf{B} is invertible, and so $\text{rank } \mathbf{B} = r$. Hence the r rows of \mathbf{B} , and consequently, the corresponding r rows of \mathbf{A} are linearly independent. Hence $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} \geq r$. \square

Corollary (Determinantal Characterization of Rank)

Let \mathbf{A} be an $m \times n$ matrix, and $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $r = \text{rank } \mathbf{A}$ if and only if the following two conditions are satisfied.

- (i) there is an $r \times r$ submatrix \mathbf{B} of \mathbf{A} such that $\det \mathbf{B} \neq 0$,
- (ii) $\det \mathbf{C} = 0$ for every $(r+1) \times (r+1)$ submatrix \mathbf{C} of \mathbf{A} .

Proof. This is an immediate consequence of the above lemma.

We remark that although the above result is of theoretical interest, it does not give a practically useful method for finding the rank of a matrix \mathbf{A} . On the other hand, transformation of \mathbf{A} to a Row Echelon Form quickly reveals its rank.

Example

Let $\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ -6 & 42 & 24 & 54 \\ 21 & -21 & 0 & -15 \end{bmatrix}$. Since $\det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ -6 & 42 \end{bmatrix} \neq 0$

and since the determinants of all 3×3 submatrices of \mathbf{A} are equal to 0, we see that $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = 2$.

This also follows by noting that \mathbf{A} can be transformed by EROs to

$$\mathbf{A}' = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 42 & 28 & 58 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is in REF, and by noting that $\text{rank } \mathbf{A}$ is equal to the row rank of \mathbf{A}' , which is 2.

We now consider another classical method of finding solutions of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, where \mathbf{A} is invertible.

Proposition (Cramer's Rule)

Let $\mathbf{A} := [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_k \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be invertible, and let $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$. For $k = 1, \dots, n$, let $\mathbf{B}_k := [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b} \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n]$ be the matrix obtained by replacing the k th column \mathbf{c}_k of \mathbf{A} by the right side \mathbf{b} of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$. Then the unique solution $\mathbf{x} := [x_1 \ \cdots \ x_n]^T$ of the linear system $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is given by

$$x_k := \frac{\det \mathbf{B}_k}{\det \mathbf{A}} \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

Proof. If $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, then $\mathbf{b} = x_1 \mathbf{c}_1 + \cdots + x_k \mathbf{c}_k + \cdots + x_n \mathbf{c}_n$. By the first two crucial properties of the determinant function, $\det \mathbf{B}_k = \det [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \cdots \ x_1 \mathbf{c}_1 + \cdots + x_k \mathbf{c}_k + \cdots + x_n \mathbf{c}_n \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n] = x_k \det \mathbf{A}$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$. Since \mathbf{A} is invertible, $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$. Hence the result. □

Let $\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b} := \begin{bmatrix} 13 \\ 11 \\ -31 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\det \mathbf{A} = -60$.

Also,

$$\det \mathbf{B}_1 = \det \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -2 & 1 \\ 11 & 1 & 4 \\ -31 & 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = -60,$$

$$\det \mathbf{B}_2 = \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 13 & 1 \\ -2 & 11 & 4 \\ 1 & -31 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = 180,$$

$$\det \mathbf{B}_3 = \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 13 \\ -2 & 1 & 11 \\ 1 & 4 & -31 \end{bmatrix} = -240.$$

Hence the unique solution of the linear system $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is given by $x_1 := 1$, $x_2 = -3$, $x_3 = 4$, that is, $\mathbf{x} = [1 \ -3 \ 4]^T$.

Note: Cramer's Rule is rarely used for solving linear systems; the preferred method is the GEM. But Cramer's Rule is of theoretical interest, especially in solutions of differential eqns.

Formula for the Inverse of a Matrix

Let $\mathbf{A} := [a_{jk}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with $n \geq 2$. Recall that \mathbf{A}_{jk} denotes the submatrix of \mathbf{A} obtained by deleting the j th row and the k th column of \mathbf{A} , and $M_{jk} := \det \mathbf{A}_{jk}$, the (j, k) th minor of \mathbf{A} , for $j, k = 1, \dots, n$. We define $C_{jk} := (-1)^{j+k} M_{jk}$, $j, k = 1, \dots, n$. It is called the **cofactor** of the entry a_{jk} . Then the expansion of $\det \mathbf{A}$ in terms of the k th column is given by

$$\det \mathbf{A} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n a_{\ell k} C_{\ell k}, \quad \text{where } k \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

Define $\mathbf{C} := [C_{jk}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. It is called the **cofactor matrix** of \mathbf{A} .

Theorem

Let \mathbf{A} be a square matrix. Then $\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{A} = (\det \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T$.
In particular, if $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$, then \mathbf{A} is invertible and

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{C}^T / \det \mathbf{A}.$$

Proof. Let $\mathbf{D} := \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{A} = [d_{jk}]$ say. By the definition of matrix multiplication, the (j, k) th entry of \mathbf{D} is $d_{jk} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n C_{\ell j} a_{\ell k}$.

If $j = k$, then $d_{kk} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n C_{\ell k} a_{\ell k} = \det \mathbf{A}$, being the expansion in terms of its k th column of \mathbf{A} .

Let now $j \neq k$. Write $\mathbf{A} := [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_k \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_j \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n]$ in terms of its columns, and let \mathbf{B} denote the matrix obtained by replacing the j th column \mathbf{c}_j by the k th column \mathbf{c}_k of \mathbf{A} , that is, $\mathbf{B} := [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_k \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_k \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n] = [b_{jk}]$, say. Then $\det \mathbf{B} = 0$ since two columns are identical. Expanding $\det \mathbf{B}$ in terms of its j th column, $\det \mathbf{B} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n b_{\ell j} C_{\ell j} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n a_{\ell k} C_{\ell j}$. Thus $d_{jk} = \sum_{\ell=1}^n C_{\ell j} a_{\ell k} = \det \mathbf{B} = 0$ if $j \neq k$.

This shows that $\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{A} = (\det \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I}$. Similarly, we can prove $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T = (\det \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I}$, and so $\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{A} = (\det \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^T$. In case $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$, we see that \mathbf{A} is invertible, and $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} \mathbf{C}^T$. \square

Remark: \mathbf{C}^T is sometimes called the **adjugate** of \mathbf{A} and denoted by $\text{adj}(\mathbf{A})$. Thus, $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} \text{adj}(\mathbf{A})$ when $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$.

Multiplicativity of Determinant Function

Proposition

Let \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} be $n \times n$ matrices. Then $\det(\mathbf{AB}) = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B})$.

Proof. Suppose first \mathbf{A} is not invertible. Then $(\det \mathbf{A}) = 0$. Also, \mathbf{AB} is not invertible; otherwise there would be \mathbf{C} such that $(\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}$, that is, $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = \mathbf{I}$, which is impossible since \mathbf{A} is not invertible. Hence $\det(\mathbf{AB}) = 0 = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B})$.

Next, suppose \mathbf{A} is invertible. Then we can transform \mathbf{A} to a diagonal matrix \mathbf{A}' (having nonzero diagonal elements) by elementary row transformations of type I and type II. Then $\det \mathbf{A}' = \det \mathbf{A}$ if an even number of row interchanges are involved, and $\det \mathbf{A}' = -\det \mathbf{A}$ otherwise.

We observe that the same elementary row operations transform \mathbf{AB} to $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B}$.

To see this, we can use Q. 2.3 in Tut Sheet 2: **Making an elementary row operation is equivalent to multiplying on the left by the corresponding elementary matrix!** And of course $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{AB}) = (\mathbf{EA})\mathbf{B}$ where \mathbf{E} is any elementary matrix.

Hence $\det \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B} = \det \mathbf{AB}$ if an even number of row interchanges are involved, and $\det \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B} = -\det \mathbf{AB}$ otherwise.

Thus it is enough to show that

$\det(\mathbf{AB}) = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B})$ **when \mathbf{A} is a diagonal matrix.**

But this is easily seen because

$$\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{B} := \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_n \end{bmatrix} \implies \mathbf{AB} := \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \alpha_2 \mathbf{b}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \mathbf{b}_n \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$ denote the rows of \mathbf{B} . Hence

$$\det(\mathbf{AB}) = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_n \det \mathbf{B} = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B}).$$



Corollary

If \mathbf{A} is invertible, then $\det \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}}$.

Proof. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} \implies (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \det \mathbf{I} = 1.$ □

Example

Let $\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} 13 & 0 & 0 \\ 11 & 1 & 0 \\ -31 & 22 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\det \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} = -\frac{1}{65}.$