

Linear Algebra & Differential Equations

MA110

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Appendix I - Determinants

Reading Slide - Determinants: Key Properties

Let A and B $n \times n$, and c a scalar.

- ▶ True/False: $\det(A + B) = \det(A) + \det(B)$.
- ▶ True/False: $\det(cA) = c \det(A)$.
- ▶ $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$.
- ▶ $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.
- ▶ If A is orthogonal, i.e., $AA^T = I$, then $\det(A) =$
- ▶ If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is triangular, then $\det(A) =$ ---
- ▶ A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$.
If this happens, then $\det(A^{-1}) =$ ---
- ▶ If $B = P^{-1}AP$ for an invertible matrix P ,
i.e., A and B are similar, then $\det(B) =$ ---
- ▶ If A is invertible, and d_1, \dots, d_n are the pivots of A ,
then $\det(A) =$ ---.

Reading Slide - Determinants: Defining Properties

Defn. The determinant function $\det : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can be defined (**uniquely**) by its three basic properties.

- $\det(I) = 1$.
- The sign of determinant is reversed by a row exchange.
Thus, if $B = P_{ij}A$, i.e., B is obtained from A by exchanging two rows, then $\det(B) = -\det(A)$. In particular,
 $\det(I) = 1 \Rightarrow \det(P_{ij}) = -1$.

- \det is linear in each row separately, i.e. , we fix $n - 1$ row vectors, say v_2, \dots, v_n , then $\det \begin{pmatrix} - & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \end{pmatrix}^T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a linear function.

I.e., for c, d in \mathbb{R} , and vectors u and v , if $A_{1*} = cu + dv$, we have
$$\det \begin{pmatrix} cu + dv & A_{2*} & \cdots & A_{n*} \end{pmatrix}^T$$
$$= c \det \begin{pmatrix} u & A_{2*} & \cdots & A_{n*} \end{pmatrix}^T + d \det \begin{pmatrix} v & A_{2*} & \cdots & A_{n*} \end{pmatrix}^T.$$

There are n such equations (for n choices of rows).

Reading Slide - Determinants: Induced Properties

1. If **two rows of A are equal**, then $\det(A) = 0$.

Proof. Suppose i -th and j -th rows of A are equal, i.e., $A_{i*} = A_{j*}$, then $A = P_{ij}A$.

Hence $\det(A) = \det(P_{ij}A) = -\det(A) \Rightarrow \boxed{\det(A) = 0}$.

2. If B is obtained from A by $\boxed{R_i \mapsto R_i + aR_j}$, then $\det(B) = \det(A)$.

3. If A is $n \times n$, and its row echelon form U is obtained without row exchanges, then $\det(U) = \det(A)$.

Q: What happens if there are row exchanges? Exercise!

4. If A has a zero row, then $\det(A) = 0$.

Proof: Let the i th row of A be zero, i.e., $A_{i*} = 0$.

Let B be obtained from A by $\boxed{R_i = R_i + R_j}$, i.e., $B = E_{ij}(1)A$. Then $B_{i*} = B_{j*}$.

Exercise: Complete the proof.

Reading Slide - Determinants: Special Matrices

5. If $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & a_n \end{pmatrix}$ is diagonal, then $\det(A) = a_1 \cdots a_n$.
(Use linearity).

6. If $A = (a_{ij})$ is triangular, then $\det(A) = a_{11} \cdots a_{nn}$.

Proof. If all a_{ii} are non-zero, then by elementary row operations, A reduces to the diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \text{ whose determinant is } a_{11} \cdots a_{nn}.$$

If at least one diagonal entry is zero, then elimination will produce a zero row $\Rightarrow \det(A) = 0$.

Reading Slide - Formula for Determinant: 2×2 case

Write $(a, b) = (a, 0) + (0, b)$, the sum of vectors in coordinate directions. Similarly write $(c, d) = (c, 0) + (0, d)$. By linearity,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b \\ c & 0 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & d \end{vmatrix}.$$

For an $n \times n$ matrix, each row splits into n coordinate directions, so the expansion of $\det(A)$ has n^n terms.

However, when two rows are in same coordinate direction, that term will be zero, e.g.,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & d \end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b \\ c & 0 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{vmatrix} = -bc \Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

The non-zero terms have to come in different columns. So, there will be $n!$ such terms in the $n \times n$ case.

Reading Slide - Formula for Determinant: $n \times n$ case

For $n \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$,

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\text{all permutations } P} (a_{1\alpha_1} \dots a_{n\alpha_n}) \det(P).$$

The sum is over $n!$ permutations of numbers $(1, \dots, n)$. Here a permutation (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) of $(1, 2, \dots, n)$ corresponds to the

product of permutation matrices $P = \begin{bmatrix} e_{i_1}^T \\ \vdots \\ e_{i_n}^T \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\det(P) = +1$

if the number of row exchanges in P needed to get I is even,
and -1 if it is odd.

Reading Slide - Cofactors: 3×3 Case

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\&= a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} (1) + a_{11} a_{23} a_{32} (-1) + a_{12} a_{21} a_{33} (-1) \\&\quad + a_{12} a_{23} a_{31} (1) + a_{13} a_{21} a_{32} (1) + a_{13} a_{22} a_{31} (-1) \\&= a_{11}(a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{31}) \\&\quad + a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31}) \\&= a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{12}(-1) \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\&= a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13} \text{ where,}\end{aligned}$$

$$C_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \quad C_{12} = (-1) \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \quad C_{13} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Reading Slide - Cofactors: $n \times n$ Case

Let C_{1j} be the coefficient of a_{1j} in the expansion

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\text{all permutations } P} (a_{1\alpha_1} \dots a_{n\alpha_n}) \det(P)$$

Then $\boxed{\det(A) = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + \dots + a_{1n}C_{1n}}$ where,

$$\begin{aligned} C_{1j} &= \sum a_{2\beta_2} \dots a_{n\beta_n} \det(P) \\ &= (-1)^{1+j} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & \cdot & a_{2(j-1)} & a_{2(j+1)} & \cdot & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \cdot & \vdots & \cdot & \cdot & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdot & a_{n(j-1)} & a_{n(j+1)} & \cdot & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (-1)^{1+j} \det(M_{1j}), \end{aligned}$$

where M_{1j} is obtained from A by deleting the 1st row and j^{th} column.

Extra Reading Slides - Determinants

The following set of slides contain some extra reading material on determinants for interested students of MA110 (Spring 2024).

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B) \text{ (Proof)}$$

7.

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$$

Proof. We may assume that B are invertible. Else,
 $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank} B \neq n \Rightarrow \text{rank}(AB) \neq n \Rightarrow AB$ is not invertible.

Hint: For fixed B , show that the function d defined by

$$d(A) = \det(AB)/\det(B)$$

satisfies the following properties

0.1 $d(I) = 1$.

0.2 If we interchange two rows of A , then d changes its sign.

0.3 d is a linear function in each row of A .

Then d is the **unique** determinant function \det and
 $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$.



Determinants of Transposes (Proof)

8.

$$\det(A) = \det(A^T)$$

Proof. With U , L , and P , as usual write $PA = LU$
 $\Rightarrow A^T P^T = U^T L^T$ Since U and L are triangular, we get
 $\det(U) = \det(U^T)$ and $\det(L) = \det(L^T)$.

Since $PP^T = I$ and $\det(P) = \pm 1$, we get
 $\det(P) = \det(P^T)$.

Thus $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.



Determinants and Invertibility (Proof)

9. A is invertible if and only if $\det(A) \neq 0$.

By elimination, we get an upper triangular matrix U , a lower triangular matrix L with diagonal entries 1, and a permutation matrix P , such that $PA = LU$.

Observation 1: If A is singular, then $\det(A) = 0$.

This is because elimination produces a zero row in U and hence $\det(A) = \pm \det(U) = 0$.

Observation 2: If A is invertible, then $\det(A) \neq 0$.

This is because elimination produces n pivots, say d_1, \dots, d_n , which are non-zero. Then U is upper triangular, with diagonal entries $d_1, \dots, d_n \Rightarrow$
 $\det(A) = \pm \det(U) = \pm d_1 \cdots d_n \neq 0$.

Thus we have: A invertible $\Rightarrow \det(A) = \pm(\text{product of pivots})$.

Exercise: If AB is invertible, then so are A and B .

Exercise: A is invertible if and only if A^T is invertible.

Determinant: Geometric Interpretation (2×2)

INVERTIBILITY: Very often we are interested in knowing when a matrix is invertible. Consider $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$. Then A is invertible if and only if A has full rank.

If a, c both are zero then clearly $\text{rank}(A) < 2 \Rightarrow A$ is not invertible. Assume $a \neq 0$, else, interchange rows. The row operations $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - c/a R_1} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d - cb/a \end{bmatrix}$ show that A is invertible if and only if $d - cb/a \neq 0$, i.e., $ad - bc \neq 0$.

AREA: The area of the parallelogram with sides as vectors $v = (a, b)$ and $w = (c, d)$ is equal to $ad - bc$. Thus,

A 2×2 matrix A is singular \Leftrightarrow

its columns are on the same line

\Leftrightarrow the area is zero.

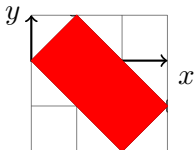
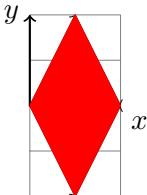
Determinant: Geometric Interpretation

- **Test for invertibility:** An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$.
- **n -dimensional volume:** If A is $n \times n$, then $|\det(A)|$ = the volume of the box (in n -dimensional space \mathbb{R}^n) with edges as rows of A .

Examples: (1) The volume (area) of a line in $\mathbb{R}^2 = 0$.

(2) The determinant of the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ is $\boxed{-4}$.

(3) Let's compute the volume of the box (parallelogram) with edges as rows of A or columns of A .



$$\boxed{= 4}$$

Expansion along the i -th row (Proof)

If C_{ij} is the coefficient of a_{ij} in the formula of $\det(A)$, then

$\det(A) = a_{i1} C_{i1} + \dots + a_{in} C_{in}$, where C_{ij} is determined as follows:

By $i - 1$ row exchanges on A , get the matrix

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} A_{i*} & A_{1*} & \dots & A_{(i-1)*} & A_{(i+1)*} & \dots & A_{n*} \end{pmatrix}^T$$

Since $\det(A) = (-1)^{i-1} \det(B)$, we get

$$C_{ij}(A) = (-1)^{i-1} C_{1j}(B) = (-1)^{i-1} (-1)^{j-1} \det(M)$$

where M is obtained from B by deleting 1st row and j^{th} column. Here M is obtained from B by deleting its first row, and j -th column, and hence from A by deleting i -th row and j -th column. Write M as M_{ij} . Then $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij})$

Expansion along the j -th column (Proof)

Note that $C_{ij}(A^T) = C_{ji}(A)$.

Hence, if we write $A^T = (b_{ij})$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \det(A^T) \\ &= b_{j1} C_{j1}(A^T) + \dots + b_{jn} C_{jn}(A^T) \\ &= a_{1j} C_{1j}(A) + \dots + a_{nj} C_{nj}(A)\end{aligned}$$

This is the expansion of $\det(A)$ along j -th column of A .

Applications: 1. Computing A^{-1}

If $C = (C_{ij})$: cofactor matrix of A , then $A C^T = \det(A) I$

i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & \dots & C_{n1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & \dots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof. We have seen that $a_{i1}C_{i1} + \dots + a_{in}C_{in} = \det(A)$. Now

$$a_{11}C_{21} + a_{12}C_{22} + \dots + a_{1n}C_{2n} = \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{31} & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

Similarly, if $i \neq j$, then $a_{i1}C_{j1} + a_{i2}C_{j2} + \dots + a_{in}C_{jn} = 0$. \square

Remark. If A is invertible, then $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} C^T$.

For $n \geq 4$, this is *not* a good formula to find A^{-1} .

Use elimination to find A^{-1} for $n \geq 4$.

This formula is of theoretical importance.

Applications: 2. Solving $Ax = b$

Cramer's rule: If A is invertible, the $Ax = b$ has a unique solution.

$$x = A^{-1}b = \frac{1}{\det(A)} C^T b = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & \cdots & C_{n1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & \cdots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$x_j = \frac{1}{\det(A)} (b_1 C_{1j} + b_2 C_{2j} + \cdots + b_n C_{nj}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \det(B_j),$$

where B_j is obtained by replacing j^{th} column of A by b , and $\det(B_j)$ is computed along the j^{th} column.

Remark: For $n \geq 4$, use elimination to solve $Ax = b$.
Cramer's rule is of theoretical importance.

Applications: 3. Volume of a box

Assume the rows of A are mutually orthogonal. Then

$$AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} A_{1*} \\ \vdots \\ A_{n*} \end{pmatrix} \left((A_{1*})^T \quad \dots \quad (A_{n*})^T \right) = \begin{pmatrix} l_1^2 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & l_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $l_i = \sqrt{(A^i)^T \cdot A^i}$ is the length of A^i . Since $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$,

we get $|\det(A)| = l_1 \cdots l_n$.

Since the edges of the box spanned by rows of A are at right angles, the volume of the box

= the product of lengths of edges

= $|\det(A)|$.

Applications: 4. A Formula for Pivots

Observation: If row exchanges are not required, then the first k pivots are determined by the top-left $k \times k$ submatrices \tilde{A}_k of A .

Example. If $A = [a_{ij}]_{3 \times 3}$, then $\tilde{A}_1 = (a_{11})$, $\tilde{A}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$
and $\tilde{A}_3 = A$.

Assume the pivots are d_1, \dots, d_n , obtained without row exchange. Then

- ▶ $\det(\tilde{A}_1) = a_{11} = d_1$
- ▶ $\det(\tilde{A}_2) = d_1 d_2 = \det(A_1) d_2$
- ▶ $\det(\tilde{A}_3) = d_1 d_2 d_3 = \det(A_2) d_3$ etc.,
- ▶ If $\det(\tilde{A}_k) = 0$, then we need a row exchange in elimination.
- ▶ Otherwise the k -th pivot is $d_k = \det(\tilde{A}_k) / \det(\tilde{A}_{k-1})$