Recall from last week:

FACT: Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
.

- i) if $ad-bc \neq 0$, then A is invertible and $A^{-1}=\frac{1}{ad-bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$,
- ii) if ad-bc=0, then A is not invertible,

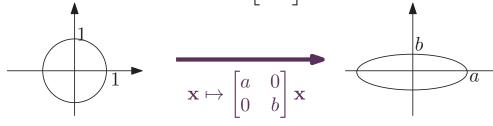
What is the mysterious quantity ad-bc?

§3.1-3.3: Determinants

Conceptually, the determinant $\det A$ of a square $n \times n$ matrix A is the signed area/volume scaling factor of the linear transformation $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$, i.e.:

- ullet For any region S in \mathbb{R}^n , the volume of its image T(S) is $|\det A|$ multiplied by the original volume of S,
- If $\det A>0$, then T does not change "orientation". If $\det A<0$, then T changes "orientation".

Example: Area of ellipse $= \det \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \times \text{ area of unit circle} = ab\pi.$



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This idea is

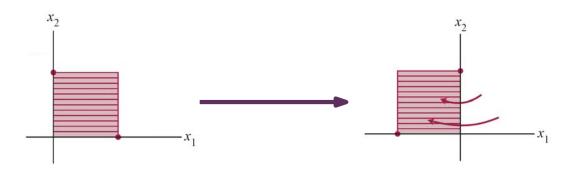
multivariate

useful in

calculus.

Formula for 2×2 matrix: $\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$.

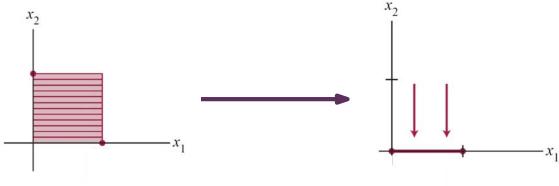
Example: The standard matrix for reflection through the x_2 -axis is $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Its determinant is $-1 \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot 0 = -1$: reflection does not change area, but changes orientation.



Exercise: Guess what the determinant of a rotation matrix is, and check your answer.

Formula for
$$2 \times 2$$
 matrix: $\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$.

Example: The standard matrix of projection onto the x_1 -axis is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Its determinant is $1 \cdot 0 - 0 \cdot 0 = 0$. Projection sends the unit square to a line, which has zero area.



Theorem: A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

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Calculating Determinants

Notation: A_{ij} is the submatrix obtained from matrix A by deleting the ith row and jth column of A.

EXAMPLE:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \\ 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_{23} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall that $\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$ and we let $\det[a] = a$.

For $n \ge 2$, the **determinant** of an $n \times n$ matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is given by

$$\det A = a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + \dots + (-1)^{1+n} a_{1n} \det A_{1n}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{1+j} a_{1j} \det A_{1j}$$

EXAMPLE: Compute the determinant of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 2 \\
3 & -1 & 2 \\
2 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$

THEOREM 1 The determinant of an $n \times n$ matrix A can be computed by expanding across any row or down any column:

$$\det A = (-1)^{i+1} a_{i1} \det A_{i1} + (-1)^{i+2} a_{i2} \det A_{i2} + \dots + (-1)^{i+n} a_{in} \det A_{in}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \det A_{ij} \qquad \text{(expansion across row } i)$$

$$\det A = (-1)^{l+j} a_{1j} \det A_{1j} + (-1)^{2+j} a_{2j} \det A_{2j} + \dots + (-1)^{n+j} a_{nj} \det A_{nj}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \det A_{ij} \qquad \text{(expansion down column } j)$$

Use a matrix of signs to determine $(-1)^{i+j}$ $\begin{vmatrix}
+ & - & + & \cdots \\
- & + & - & \cdots \\
+ & - & + & \cdots \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots
\end{vmatrix}$

EXAMPLE: An easier way to compute the determinant of $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

EXAMPLE:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 & 1 & 8 \\ 5 & 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{vmatrix} =$$

It's easy to compute the determinant of a triangular matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} * & * & \cdots & * & * \\ 0 & * & \cdots & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} * & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & \ddots & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & \cdots & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$
(upper triangular) (lower triangular)

EXAMPLE:

$$\left|\begin{array}{ccccc} 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{array}\right| =$$

THEOREM 2: If A is a triangular matrix, then $\det A$ is the product of the diagonal entries of A.

How the determinant changes under row operations:

- 1. Replacement: add a multiple of one row to another row. $R_i o R_i + cR_j$ determinant does not change.
- 2. Interchange: interchange two rows. $R_i \to R_i, R_i \to R_i$ determinant changes sign.
- 3. Scaling: multiply all entries in a row by a nonzero constant. $R_i \to cR_i, c \neq 0$ determinant scales by a factor of c.

To help you remember:

after after original replacement interchange after scaling
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1, \qquad \begin{vmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1, \qquad \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -1, \qquad \begin{vmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = c.$$

Because we can compute the determinant by expanding down columns instead of across rows, the same changes hold for "column operations".

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- 1. Replacement: $R_i \rightarrow R_i + cR_j$ determinant does not change.
- 2. Interchange: $R_i \to R_j$, $R_j \to R_i$ determinant changes sign.
- 3. Scaling: $R_i \to cR_i$, $c \neq 0$ determinant scales by a factor of c.

Usually we compute determinants using a mixture of "expanding across a row or down a column with many zeroes" and "row reducing to a triangular matrix".

Factor out 2 from
$$R_1$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 9 & 6 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -4 & -8 \\ 0 & -8 & -11 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \text{factor out -4 from } R_2 & R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 8R_2 \\ = 5 \cdot 2 \cdot -4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -8 & -11 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \cdot -4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 5 \cdot 2 \cdot -4 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 5 = -200.$$

- 1. Replacement: $R_i \rightarrow R_i + cR_j$ determinant does not change.
- 2. Interchange: $R_i \to R_j$, $R_j \to R_i$ determinant changes sign.
- 3. Scaling: $R_i \to cR_i$, $c \neq 0$ determinant scales by a factor of c.

Useful fact: If two rows of A are multiples of each other, then $\det A = 0$.

Proof: Use a replacement row operation to make one of the rows into a row of zeroes, then expand along that row.

Example:

$$\begin{vmatrix} R_3 \to R_3 - 2R_1 \\ \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 9 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 9 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 9 & 3 \end{vmatrix} - 0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

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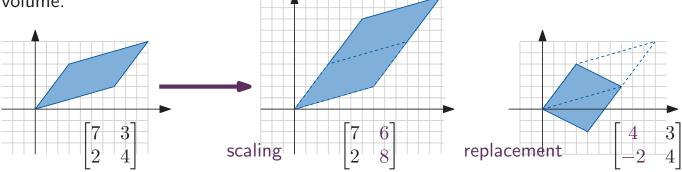
Why does the determinant change like this under row and column operations? Two views:

Either: It is a consequence of the expansion formula in Theorem 1;

Or: By thinking about the signed volume of the image of the unit cube under the associated linear transformation:

- 2. Interchanging columns changes the orientation of the image of the unit cube.
- 3. Scaling a column applies an expansion to one side of the image of the unit cube.

1. Column replacement rearranges the image of the unit cube without changing its volume.



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Properties of the determinant:

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

Theorem 6: Determinants are multiplicative:

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

In particular:
$$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{\det I_n}{\det A} = \frac{1}{\det A}, \quad \det(cA) = \det \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \det A = c^n \det A.$$

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Properties of the determinant:

Theorem 4: Invertibility and determinants: A square matrix A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

Proof 1: By the Invertible Matrix Theorem, A is invertible if and only if $\operatorname{rref}(A)$ has n pivots. Row operations multiply the determinant by nonzero numbers. So $\det A=0$ if and only if $\det(\operatorname{rref}(A))=0$, which happens precisely when $\operatorname{rref}(A)$ has fewer than n pivots.

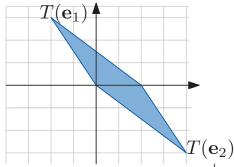
Proof 2: By the Invertible Matrix Theorem, A is invertible if and only if its columns span \mathbb{R}^n . Since the image of the unit cube is a subset of the span of the columns, this image has zero volume if the columns do not span \mathbb{R}^n .

So we can use determinants to test whether $\{\mathbf v_1,\dots,\mathbf v_n\}$ in $\mathbb R^n$ is linearly independent, or if it spans $\mathbb R^n$: it does when $\det\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \mathbf v_1 & \dots & \mathbf v_n \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$.

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Other applications: finding volumes of regions with determinants

Example: Find the area of the parallelogram with vertices $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

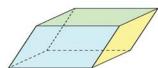


Answer: This parallelogram is the image of the unit square under a linear transformation T with

$$T(\mathbf{e}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $T(\mathbf{e}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\-3 \end{bmatrix}$.

So area of parallelogram
$$= \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ 3 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \times \text{ area of unit square} = |-6| \cdot 1 = 6.$$

This works for any parallelogram where the origin is one of the vertices (and also in \mathbb{R}^3 , for parallelopipeds).

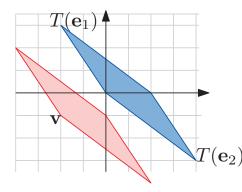


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Other applications: finding volumes of regions with determinants

Example: Find the area of the parallelogram with vertices $\begin{vmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{vmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.



Answer: Use a translation to move one of the vertices of the parallelogram to the origin - this does not change the area.

The formula for this translation function is $x \mapsto x - v$, where v is one of the vertices of the parallelogram.

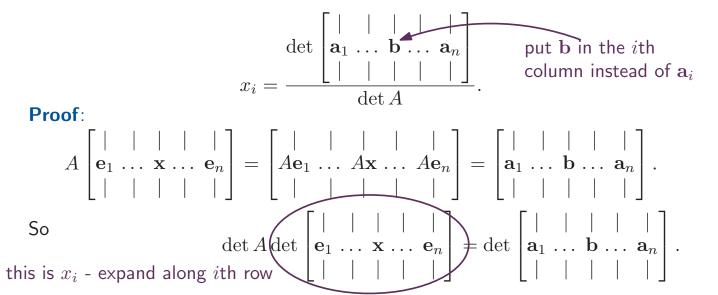
Here, the vertices of the translated parallelogram are
$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 So by the provious example, the area of the parallele ways in 6.

So, by the previous example, the area of the parallelogram is 6.

Other applications: solving linear systems using determinants

Cramer's rule: Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix with columns $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$. For any b in \mathbb{R}^n , the unique solution x of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is given by



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Applying Cramer's rule to $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{e}_i$ gives a formula for each entry of A^{-1} (see

Theorem 8 in textbook; this formula is called the adjugate or classical adjoint). The
$$2\times 2$$
 case of this formula is $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$.

Cramer's rule is much slower than row-reduction for linear systems with actual numbers, but is useful for obtaining theoretical results.

Example: If every entry of A is an integer and $\det A = 1$ or -1, then every entry of A^{-1} is an integer.

Proof: Cramer's rule tells us that every entry of A^{-1} is the determinant of an integer matrix divided by $\det A$. And the determinant of an integer matrix is an integer.

Exercise: using the fact $\det AB = \det A \det B$, prove the converse (if every entry of A and of A^{-1} is an integer, then $\det A = 1$ or -1).