

Definition of Determinant :

For $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, determinant of A is defined to be the scalar: $\det(A) = \sum_p \sigma(p) \cdot a_{1p}, a_{2p_2}, \dots, a_{np_n}$ where the sum is taken over ($n!$) permutations (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) of $(1, 2, \dots, n)$. Note that each term $a_{1p}, a_{2p_2}, \dots, a_{np_n}$ contains exactly one entry from each row and each column of A .

The sign of permutation p is defined to be $\sigma(p)$:

$$\sigma(p) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \text{ can be restored to natural order by an even number of interchanges;} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \text{ can be restored to natural order by an odd number of interchange} \end{cases}$$

(The determinant of a non-square matrix is NOT defined)

matrix is NOT defined) by an odd number of interchange.

Example: 1). $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$, $\det(A) = \sigma(1,2) a_{11}a_{22} - \sigma(2,1) a_{12}a_{21} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$.

2). Triangular determinants:

$$\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22}\cdots a_{nn}$$

(Special case: diagonal matrix)

Properties:

1. [Effects of Row operations].

Let B be the matrix obtained from $A_{n \times n}$ by one of the three elementary row operations:

- ↗ Type(I): Interchange row i and j ; (Meyer's book A463).
- ↖ Type(II): Multiply row i by $\lambda \neq 0$;
- ↘ Type(III): Add λ times row i to row j .

The value of $\det(B)$ is as follows:

- $\Rightarrow \det(B) = -\det(A)$ for Type I. operations ($\det(B) = \det(E) \cdot \det(A)$)
- $\Rightarrow \det(B) = \lambda \cdot \det(A)$ for Type II. operations ($\det(B) = \det(F) \cdot \det(A)$)
- $\Rightarrow \det(B) = \det(A)$ for Type III. —— ($\det(B) = \det(G) \cdot \det(A)$)

In other words, suppose P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k are a set of elementary matrices. A is a non-singular matrix.

$$\det(P_1 P_2 \dots P_k A) = \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2 \dots P_k A)$$

$$= \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2) \cdots \det(P_k \cdot A).$$

$$(*) \quad \quad \quad = \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2) \cdots \det(P_k) \cdot \det(A).$$

NOTE: Elementary matrices have non-zero determinants.

example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -3 \\ -2 & -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{(3)-}(1) \times 2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{(3)-(2)}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \det(A) = 2 \times 1 \times 4 = 8.$$

process.

2. [Invertibility & Determinants].

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is non-singular iff $\det(A) \neq 0$

(\Leftarrow) $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is singular iff $\det(A) = 0$)

$(\Leftrightarrow) A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is singular iff $\det(A) = 0$

Proof: Let P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k be a sequence of elementary matrices s.t. $P_1 \cdot P_2 \cdots P_k \cdot A = EA$, apply (*) we have:

*NOTE: $\det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2) \cdots \det(P_k) \cdot \det(A) = \det(EA)$

E is a row echelon matrix, see M ayers, book, p. 48
Because elementary matrices have non-zero determinants,
 $\det(A) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(EA) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow$ there are no zero pivots
 \Leftrightarrow every column in EA (and in A) is a basis.
 $\Leftrightarrow A$ is non-singular

3. [Product Rules]

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B) \text{ for all } A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$$

Proof: 1) If A is singular, then AB is also singular (because $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(A)$).
Consequently, $\det(AB) = 0 = \det(A) \det(B)$

2) If A is non-singular, then A can be written as a product of elementary matrices, $A = P_1 P_2 \cdots P_k$. Then by using (*)

$$\begin{aligned} \det(AB) &= \det(P_1 P_2 \cdots P_k B) = \det(P_1) \cdots \det(P_k) \cdot \det(B) \\ &= \det(P_1 P_2 \cdots P_k) \cdot \det(B) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B). \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow Why $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(A)$ with $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$?

Proof: Let $C = AB \Rightarrow C \cdot x = AB \cdot x \Rightarrow$ let $y = Bx$
 $= [a_1 \ a_2 \ \cdots \ a_n] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$

Clearly $R(C)$ can be represented by linear combination of $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, thus $R(C) = R(AB) \subseteq \text{span}\{a_1, \dots, a_n\} = R(A)$.

$$\therefore \text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(A)$$

\Rightarrow Follow-up from student's question: why (*) holds without the knowledge of product rule?

without the knowledge of product rule?

Proof: When P is an elementary matrix,
 $\det(PA) = \det(P) \cdot \det(A)$. This holds without
the knowledge of product rule (see Meyer's book P.465)

then for $(*)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\det(P_1 P_2 \dots P_k \cdot B) &= \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2 \dots P_k \cdot B) \\ &= \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2) \det(P_3 \dots P_k \cdot B) \\ &\vdots \det(P_1) \cdot \det(P_2) \dots \det(P_k) \cdot \det(B)\end{aligned}\quad \checkmark.$$

Prob. 2. We introduced similar manner in class.

$A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$, A and B are called "similar" if there exists an invertible matrix P , s.t. $P^T A P = B$

\Rightarrow We have shown that A, B share the same eigenvalues $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m\}$

\Rightarrow Now, what's the relation between eigenvectors of A and B ?

Proof: suppose for any $\lambda_i \in \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m\}$, we have

$A \cdot x_i = \lambda_i \cdot x_i$, where x_i is the corresponding eigenvector

$$\Rightarrow A \cdot (P \cdot P^{-1}) \cdot x_i = \lambda_i \cdot x_i$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{P^T A \cdot P}_{=} \cdot P^T \cdot x_i = \lambda_i \cdot P^T \cdot x_i$$

$$\Rightarrow B \cdot (P^T \cdot x_i) = \lambda_i \cdot (P^T \cdot x_i).$$

Clearly, for every eigenpair (λ_i, x_i) of A ,
it corresponds to the eigenpair $(\lambda_i, P^T \cdot x_i)$ of B .

Prob. 3. Show that normal equation $A^T A x = A^T b$

is equivalent to $Ax = P_{R(A)} \cdot b$

Proof: $A^T A \cdot x = A^T b$

$$\Leftrightarrow A^T \cdot (Ax - b) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (Ax - b) \in N(P_{R(A)})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow P_{R(A)} \cdot (Ax - b) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow Ax = P_{R(A)} \cdot b$$

Because $A^T \cdot (Ax - b) = 0$

\Downarrow
 $(Ax - b) \in N(A^T)$.

It is true that $N(A^T) = R(A)^{\perp}$

(HW#3 problem!
convince yourself).

also $N(P_{R(A)}) = R(A)^{\perp}$

$$\Leftrightarrow Ax = P_{R(A)} \cdot b$$

Furthermore,

suppose \hat{x} is a least square solution for a possibly inconsistent linear system $Ax=b$, then the following three statements are equivalent:

$$i), \|A\hat{x} - b\|_2 = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|Ax - b\|_2$$

$$ii), A\hat{x} = P_{R(A)} \cdot b$$

$$iii), A^\top A \cdot \hat{x} = A^\top b$$