

3.1 Properties of determinants

1. det of an $n \times n$ identity matrix is 1.

2. det changes when two rows are exchanged.

>> if P is a permutation matrix with r row exchanges, then $|P| = 1$ for even r and $|P| = -1$ for odd r .

3. The determinant is a linear function of each row separately.

If 1 row of a matrix A is multiplied by t to get A' , then $|A'| = t|A|$

$$\begin{vmatrix} ta & tb \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = t \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$$

If one row of A is added to one row of A' , then the determinants add.

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

Important: This rule applies only when the other rows do not change.

4. If two rows of A are equal, then $|A| = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ a & b \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow ab - ab = 0$$

5. Subtracting a multiple of one row from another row leaves $|A|$ unchanged.

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c - ta & d - tb \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$$

$|A| = |U|$ without row exchanges and $|A| = \pm |U|$

with row exchanges.

6. A matrix with a row of zeros has $|A| = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

7. If A is triangular, then $|A| = a_{11}a_{22}\dots a_{nn}$
= product of diagonal entries

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{R2} \leftarrow R2 - R1} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \times 1 \times 7$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 8 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 14 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{(2 \leftrightarrow 3) (4 \leftrightarrow 3)} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

When $\det = 0 \rightarrow$ singular matrix

8. If A is singular, then $|A| = 0$

If A is invertible, then $|A| \neq 0$

Transform A to U through elimination.

If A is singular:

- U has a zero row
- From previous rules, $|A| = |U| = 0$

If A is invertible:

- U has pivots along its diagonal
- From Rule 7, product of non-zero pivots \Rightarrow non zero determinant
- $|A| = \pm |U| = \pm (\text{product of pivots})$

[+ for even number of row exchanges and - for odd number of row exchanges]

Pivots of a 2×2 matrix ($a \neq 0$): $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$ (Finally a formula for the determinant!!!)

9. $|AB| = |A||B|$

Consider the ratio $D(A) = |AB|/|B|$. If $D(A)$ satisfies rules 1, 2 and 3, then it is a determinant.

• Rule 1 (Determinant of 1)

– If $A = I$, then $D(A) = |B|/|B| = 1$

• Rule 2 (Sign reversal)

– Two rows of A are exchanged \Rightarrow Same two rows of $|AB|$ are exchanged $\Rightarrow |AB|$ changes sign $\Rightarrow D(A)$ changes sign

• Rule 3 (Linearity)

– When 1 row of A is multiplied by $t \Rightarrow$ so is 1 row of $AB \Rightarrow |AB|$ is multiplied by t
– When 1 row of A is added to 1 row of $A' \Rightarrow$ 1 row of AB is added to 1 row of $A'B \Rightarrow$ determinants add \Rightarrow dividing by B , the ratios add

The ratio $|AB|/|B|$ has the same properties that define $|A|$.

Therefore, $|AB|/|B| = |A| \Rightarrow |AB| = |A||B|$

If $|B| = 0$, B is singular $\Rightarrow AB$ is singular $\Rightarrow |AB| = 0$

$|A||B| = 0$

Therefore $|AB| = |A||B|$

10. $|A^T| = A$

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

* All properties apply to columns also

3.2 Determinants as Area or Volume

A can be transformed into a diagonal matrix by:

Interchanging two columns

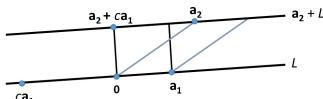
» does not change the parallelogram

» $\det(A)$ unchanged (Property 2)

Adding a multiple of one column to another

Prove the following geometric observation:

Let \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_2 be nonzero vectors. Then for any scalar c , the area of a parallelogram determined by \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_2 equals the area of the parallelogram determined by \mathbf{a}_1 and $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$.

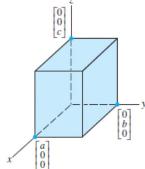


Assume \mathbf{a}_2 is not a multiple of \mathbf{a}_1 .

- L is the line through 0 and $\mathbf{a}_1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{a}_2 + L$ is the line through \mathbf{a}_2 and parallel to L
- Points \mathbf{a}_2 and $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$ have the same perpendicular distance to L
- Hence, two parallelograms have the same area (base X height)

Proof for \mathbb{R}^3 (i.e., 3×3 matrix):

True for a 3×3 diagonal matrix $\begin{vmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{vmatrix}$



Can we transform any 3×3 matrix $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \mathbf{a}_3]$ into a diagonal matrix without change in volume of the associated parallelepiped or in $|A|$?

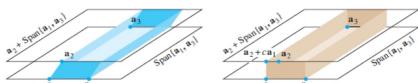
A can be transformed into a diagonal matrix by:

- Interchanging two columns (same as row operations on A^T)
 - Does not change the parallelepiped

- Adding a multiple of one column to another

In the figure below:

- Volume of parallelepiped = area of base \times height
- Base is in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3\}$ Height = $\mathbf{a}_2 + \text{Span}\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3\}$
- $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$ lies in the plane $\mathbf{a}_2 + \text{Span}\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3\}$, which is parallel to $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3\}$
- Hence, any vector $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$ has the same height as \mathbf{a}_2
- Therefore, the volume of the parallelepiped is unchanged when $[\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \mathbf{a}_3]$ is changed to $[\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_3]$

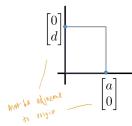


Theorem 3.1

If A is a 2×2 matrix, the area of the parallelogram determined by the columns of A is $|\det(A)|$. If A is a 3×3 matrix, the volume of the parallelepiped determined by the columns of A is $|\det(A)|$.

Proof. True for a 2×2 diagonal matrix:

$$\det\begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{vmatrix} = ad = \text{area of rectangle}$$

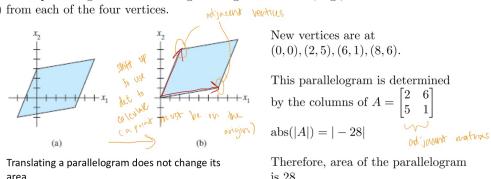


Exercise 3.2.1

Calculate the area of the parallelogram determined by the points $(-2, -2), (0, 3), (4, -1), (6, 4)$.

Solution

Translate the parallelogram to one having the origin as a vertex, e.g., subtract $(-2, -2)$ from each of the four vertices.



New vertices are at $(0, 0), (2, 5), (6, 1), (8, 6)$.

This parallelogram is determined by the columns of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\det(|A|) = |ad - bc| = |2 \cdot 1 - 5 \cdot 6| = |-28|$

Therefore, area of the parallelogram is 28.

3.3 Linear Transformations

- How does the area (or volume) of a transformed set compare with the area (or volume) of the original

Theorem 3.2. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear transformation determined by a 2×2 matrix A . If S is a parallelogram in \mathbb{R}^2 , then area of $T(S)$ = $\text{abs}(|A|) \times \text{area of } S$.

If T is determined by a 3×3 matrix A , and if S is a parallelepiped in \mathbb{R}^3 , then volume of $T(S)$ = $\text{abs}(|A|) \times \text{volume of } S$.

Proof.

Consider the 2×2 case, $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2]$

A parallelogram at the origin in \mathbb{R}^2 determined by the vectors \mathbf{b}_1 and \mathbf{b}_2 has the form

$$S = \{s_1\mathbf{b}_1 + s_2\mathbf{b}_2 : 0 \leq s_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq s_2 \leq 1\}$$

The image of S under T consists of the points of the form

$$T(s_1\mathbf{b}_1 + s_2\mathbf{b}_2) = s_1T(\mathbf{b}_1) + s_2T(\mathbf{b}_2) = s_1A\mathbf{b}_1 + s_2A\mathbf{b}_2,$$

where $0 \leq s_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq s_2 \leq 1$.

$T(S)$ is the parallelogram determined by columns of $[A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2] = AB$ where $B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2]$.

$$\text{area of } T(S) = \text{abs}(|AB|) = (\text{abs}|A|)(\text{abs}|B|) = (\text{abs}|A|)(\text{area of } S)$$

Now for the general case:

An arbitrary parallelogram has the form $\mathbf{p} + S$
where \mathbf{p} is a vector and S is a parallelogram at the origin.

$$T(\mathbf{p} + S) = T(\mathbf{p}) + T(S)$$

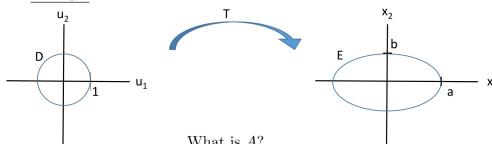
Translation does not affect the area of a set

$$\begin{aligned} \text{area of } T(\mathbf{p} + S) &= \text{area of } (T(\mathbf{p}) + T(S)) \\ &= \text{area of } T(S) \\ &= \text{abs}(|A|) \times \text{area of } S \\ &= \text{abs}(|A|) \times \text{area of } \mathbf{p} + S \end{aligned}$$

Proof for 3×3 is analogous.

Theorem 3.2 is applicable for arbitrary shapes also.

Example

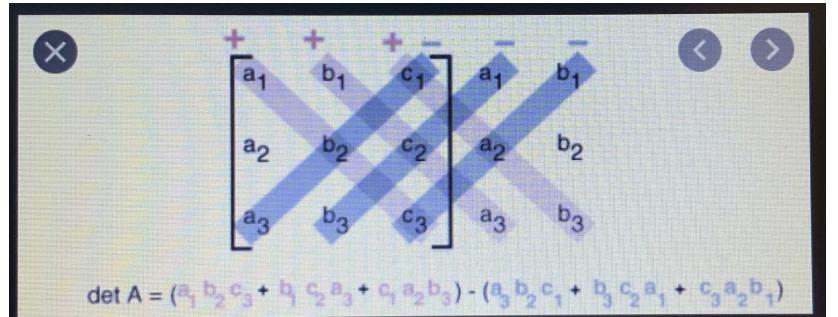


What is A ?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{area of ellipse} &= \text{area of } T(D) \\ &= \text{abs}(|A|) \times \text{area of } D \\ &= ab \times \pi r^2 = \pi ab \end{aligned}$$

If $\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{u}$ with $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$,
equation of ellipse given by
 $\frac{x_1^2}{a^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{b^2} = 1$, what is \mathbf{u} ?

"Sarrus"
method



1 Determinants

2 × 2 matrices

Given a 2×2 matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, its **determinant** is $\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$

3 × 3 matrices

- Direct calculation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1b_2c_3 + a_2b_3c_1 + a_3b_1c_2 - a_1b_3c_2 - a_2b_1c_3 - a_3b_2c_1$$

- Expansion by first row (recursive definition)

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

- Rule of Sarrus

This is mostly a mnemonic device. Each line corresponds to a multiplication term of three (connected) matrix elements. Compare this to the explicit formula to find all corresponding terms.

$$\begin{vmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \end{vmatrix}$$

Larger matrices

For larger matrices, a recursive definition is used via a row (or column) expansion. Since you have a choice which row/column to use, it is important to know what sign is attached to the determinant of a minor matrix. Below is the pattern: compare this to the recursive definition (expansion by the first row) of the determinant of a 3×3 matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{pmatrix}$$

Properties

- A determinant of a **triangular** matrix, T , has as its value the multiplication of the values along the diagonal, i.e., $\det(T) = \prod_{i=1}^n T_{ii}$
- A determinant of a matrix with two identical rows has value zero.
- If A and B are $n \times n$ matrices then $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$.
- Interchanging two rows in a matrix changes the sign of the determinant.
- Multiplying one row by k has the effect of multiplying the determinant by k .
- Adding a multiple of one row to another row does not change the determinant.

2 Inverse matrix

Definition 1 (Inverse). A $k \times k$ matrix A is said to be **invertible** if there exists a $k \times k$ matrix B such that

$$AB = I_k \quad \text{and} \quad BA = I_k$$

If such a matrix B exists, it is often written A^{-1} and called the **inverse** of A

Explicit formula for inverse (case of 3×3 matrices)

Recall the notion of cofactors from the formula for the determinant:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} &= a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a_{11} A_{11} + a_{12} A_{12} + a_{13} A_{13} \end{aligned}$$

- The A_{ij} numbers are called the **cofactors**
- They are used to calculate the **adjoint** matrix:

$$\text{adj} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & A_{31} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & A_{32} \\ A_{13} & A_{23} & A_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem 1. $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \text{adj}(A)$

Theorem 2. Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix. The following are equivalent:

- A is invertible
- The set of **homogenous** simultaneous equations (those which can be written $Ax = 0$) has no solution other than $x = 0$
- The set of simultaneous equations which can be written $Ax = c$ has a unique solution
- The determinant of A is non-zero.