

# math50dif

**Theorem 12.1.1**

The matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is invertible if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , in which case the inverse is given by the formula

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $A$  is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix applying a transformation on the unit square, then

- If  $\det(A) > 0$ , the unit square is not flipped.
- If  $\det(A) < 0$ , the unit square is flipped.
- The area of the unit square is scaled by  $|\det(A)|$  (the absolute value of the determinant of  $A$ ).

**Definition 12.1.2**

If  $A$  is a square matrix, then the **minor of entry  $a_{ij}$** , denoted  $M_{ij}$ , is the determinant of the matrix obtained by deleting the  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column of  $A$ .

The **cofactor of entry  $a_{ij}$** , denoted  $C_{ij}$ , is given by

$$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}.$$

Note that  $(-1)^{i+j}$  is 1 if  $i + j$  is even and  $-1$  if  $i + j$  is odd.

This can be visualized in the following sign patterns:

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c} 3 \times 3 \text{ matrix} & 4 \times 4 \text{ matrix} & 5 \times 5 \text{ matrix} \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - & + \\ - & + & - & + & - \\ + & - & + & - & + \\ - & + & - & + & - \\ + & - & + & - & + \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

**Definition 12.1.3: I**

$A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then the number obtained by multiplying the entries in any row or column of  $A$  by the corresponding cofactors and adding the resulting products is called the **determinant** of  $A$ .

This gives us two ways to compute the determinant:

- Cofactor expansion along the  $i$ th row.

$$\det(A) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} C_{ik} = a_{i1} C_{i1} + a_{i2} C_{i2} + \cdots + a_{in} C_{in}$$

- Cofactor expansion along the  $j$ th column.

$$\det(A) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{kj} C_{kj} = a_{1j} C_{1j} + a_{2j} C_{2j} + \cdots + a_{nj} C_{nj}$$

**Example.** Let  $A$  be the upper triangular matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{44} \end{bmatrix}$ . We can get  $\det(A)$  using repeated cofactor expansion on the first column:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{44} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{44} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} a_{22} \begin{vmatrix} a_{33} & a_{34} \\ 0 & a_{44} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} a_{44}$$

We can generalize the above pattern to lower triangular and diagonal matrices.

**Theorem 12.1.5**

The determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of the entries on the main diagonal.

**Theorem 12.1.6**

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be square matrices.

- When  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by interchanging two rows of  $A$ ,  $\det(B) = -\det(A)$
- When  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by multiplying a row of  $A$  by  $c$ ,  $\det(B) = c \cdot \det(A)$
- When  $B$  is obtained from  $A$  by adding a multiple of a row of  $A$  to another row, then  $\det(B) = \det(A)$

**Theorem 12.1.7**

If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ .

**Theorem 12.1.8**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\det(cA) = c^n \det(A)$ .

**Theorem 12.1.9**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix then  $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$ .

**Definition 12.2.1**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then a nonzero vector  $\vec{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called an **eigenvector** of  $A$  if

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$$

for some scalar  $\lambda$ . The scalar  $\lambda$  is called an **eigenvalue** of  $A$ , and  $\vec{x}$  is said to be an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

**Theorem 12.2.2**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if it satisfies the equation

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0.$$

This is called the **characteristic equation** of  $A$ .

To find their corresponding eigenvectors, we simply return to the definition and solve the linear system of equations induced by  $(\lambda I - A)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ . For example, take  $\lambda = 2$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-7 & 15 \\ -2 & 2+4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Definition 12.2.3: I**

$A$  and  $B$  are square matrices, then we say that  $B$  is **similar to**  $A$  if there is an invertible matrix  $P$  such that  $B = P^{-1}AP$ .

**Definition 12.2.4**

A square matrix  $A$  is said to be **diagonalizable** if it is similar to some diagonal matrix; that is, if there exists an invertible matrix  $P$  such that  $P^{-1}AP$  is diagonal. In this case, the matrix  $P$  is said to **diagonalize**  $A$ .

**Theorem 12.2.5**

Let  $A$  be a square diagonal matrix. Then, for any non-negative integer  $k$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{2,2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{3,3} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}^k = \begin{bmatrix} (a_{1,1})^k & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & (a_{2,2})^k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (a_{3,3})^k & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & (a_{n,n})^k \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Theorem 12.2.6**

Let  $A$  be diagonalizable, i.e. there exists an invertible matrix  $P$  and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that  $P^{-1}AP = D$ . Then, for any non-negative integer  $k$ ,

$$A^k = PD^kP^{-1}.$$

**Theorem 12.2.7**

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, it is diagonalizable **if and only if** it has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors. In such a case, let  $(\vec{p}_1, \lambda_1), (\vec{p}_2, \lambda_2), \dots, (\vec{p}_n, \lambda_n)$  be our  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors with their corresponding eigenvalues. Then,

$$P = [\vec{p}_1 \quad \vec{p}_2 \quad \vec{p}_3 \quad \dots \quad \vec{p}_n],$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

That is, the matrix  $P$  can be found by taking the  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors as column vectors (in any order), and by putting their corresponding eigenvalues along the diagonal matrix's diagonal (in that same order).