3.3 Cramer's Rule, Volume, and Linear Transformations

Cramer's Rule

Cramer's rule is integral in a variety of theoretical calculations. An example would be that it can be used to study how the solution of Ax = b is affected by changes in the entries of b. However, the formula is inefficient for hand calculations on matrices larger than 3×3 matrices.

For any $n \times n$ matrix A and any b in \mathbb{R}^n , let $A_i(b)$ be the matrix obtained from A by replacing column i by the vector b.

$$A_i(b) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \dots & b & \dots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 3.7 Cramer's Rule

Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. For any b in \mathbb{R}^n , the unique solutions x of Ax = b has entries given by

$$x_i = \frac{\det A_i(b)}{\det A}, \qquad i = 1, 2, ...n$$

$\mathbf{Ex} \ \mathbf{1}$

Use Cramer's rule to solve the system. As det A = 2, the system has a unique solution.

$$3x_1 - 2x_2 = 6$$

$$-5x_1 + 4x_2 = 8$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad A_1(b) = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 8 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad A_2(b) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\det A_1(b)}{\det A} = \frac{40}{2} = 20, \qquad x_2 = \frac{\det A_2(b)}{\det A} = \frac{54}{2} = 27$$

$$\boxed{x_1 = 20, x_2 = 27}$$

$\mathbf{Ex} \ \mathbf{2}$

Consider the following system in which s is an unspecified parameter. Determine the values of s for which

the system has a unique solution, and use Cramer's rule to describe the solution.

$$3sx_1 - 2x_2 = 4$$

$$-6x_1 + sx_2 = 1$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3s & -2 \\ -6 & s \end{bmatrix}, \qquad A_1(b) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 1 & s \end{bmatrix}, qquadA_2(b) = \begin{bmatrix} 3s & 4 \\ -6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det A = 3s^2 - 12 = 3(s+2)(s-2)$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\det A_1(b)}{\det A} = \frac{4s+2}{3(s+2)(s-2)}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{\det A_2(b)}{\det A} = \frac{3s+24}{3(s+2)(s-2)} = \frac{s+8}{(s+2)(s-2)}$$

A Formula for A^{-1}

Cramer's rule leads easily to a gernal formula for the inverse of an $n \times n$ matrix A. The jth column of A^{-1} is a vector x that satisfies

$$Ax = e_i$$

where e_j is the jth column of the identity matrix, and the ith entry of x is the (i, j) entry of A^{-1} . By Cramer'srule,

$$\{(i,j) \text{ entry of } A^{-1} \} = x_i = \frac{\det A_i(e_j)}{\det A}$$

Recall that A_{ij} denotes the submatrix of A formed by deleting row j and column i. A cofactor expansion down column i of $A_i(e_j)$ shows that

$$\det A_{i}(e_{j}) = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ji} = C_{ji}$$

where C_{ji} is a cofactor of A. So the (i,j) entry of A^{-1} is the cofactor C_{ji} divided by det A.

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & \dots & C_{n1} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & \dots & C_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & C_{2n} & \dots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix of cofactors on the right side is known as the adjugate or classical adjoint of A, denoted by adj A.

Theorem 3.8 An Inverse Formula

Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \operatorname{adj} A$$

Ex 3

Find the invese of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$C_{11} = + \begin{vmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 3 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = -2 \qquad C_{12} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \qquad C_{13} = + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 5$$

$$C_{21} = + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 14 \qquad C_{22} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -7 \qquad C_{23} = + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = -7$$

$$C_{31} = + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 4 \qquad C_{32} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \qquad C_{33} = + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -3$$

adj
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{21} & c_{31} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} & c_{32} \\ c_{13} & c_{23} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 14 & 4 \\ 3 & -7 & 1 \\ 5 & -7 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Though $\det A$ could be computed directly, but utilizing $(\operatorname{adj} A)A = \det A$ is much quicker.

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \operatorname{adj} A$$

$$(\det A)A^{-1} = \operatorname{adj} A$$

$$(\det A)A^{-1}a = \operatorname{adj} A$$

$$(\det A)I = \operatorname{adj} A$$

Thus

$$(\text{adj } A)A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 14 & 4 \\ 3 & -7 & 1 \\ 5 & -7 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 14 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 \end{bmatrix} = 14I$$

Since (adj A = 14I), then the determinant is 14. Thus

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \operatorname{adj} A$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{14} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 14 & 4\\ 3 & -7 & 1\\ 5 & -7 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{7} & 1 & \frac{2}{7}\\ \frac{3}{14} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{14}\\ \frac{5}{14} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{31} \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 9

If A is a 2×2 matrix, the area of the parallelogram determined by the columns of A is $|\det A|$. If A were to be a 3×3 matrix, the volume would be $|\det A|$.

$\mathbf{Ex} \ \mathbf{4}$

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

Translate the parallelogram to one that has the origin as a vertex. For example, subtract (-2, -2) from each of the four vertices. Which results in (0,0), (2,5), (6,1), & (8,6). This parallelogram is determined by the columns of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |\det A| = |-28| = \boxed{28}$$

Linear Transformations

Determinants can be used to describe an important geometric property of linear transformations in the plane and in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem 10 Let $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear transformation determined by a 2×2 matrix A. If S is a parallelogram in \mathbb{R}^2 ,

$$\{\text{area of } T(S)\} = |\text{det } A| \cdot \{\text{area of } S\}$$

If T is determined by a 3×3 matrix A, and if S is a parallelepiped in \mathbb{R}^3 , then

$$\{\text{volume of }T(S)\} = |\text{det }A| \cdot \{\text{volume of }S\}$$