Chapter 4

Determinants

Section 4.1

Determinants: Definition

Orientation

Recall: This course is about learning to:

- Solve the matrix equation Ax = b
 We've said most of what we'll say about this topic now.
- Solve the matrix equation $Ax = \lambda x$ (eigenvalue problem) We are now aiming at this.
- Almost solve the equation Ax = b
 This will happen later.

The next topic is determinants.

This is a completely magical function that takes a square matrix and gives you a number.

It is a very complicated function—the formula for the determinant of a 10×10 matrix has 3,628,800 summands—so instead of writing down the formula, we'll give other ways to compute it.

Today is mostly about the *theory* of the determinant; in the next lecture we will focus on *computation*.

A Definition of Determinant

Definition

The determinant is a function determinants are only for square matrices!

$$\mathsf{det} \colon \{ n \times n \; \mathsf{matrices} \} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

with the following properties:

- 1. If you do a row replacement on a matrix, the determinant doesn't change.
- 2. If you scale a row by c, the determinant is multiplied by c.
- 3. If you swap two rows of a matrix, the determinant is multiplied by -1.
- 4. $\det(I_n) = 1$.

Example:

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This is a *definition* because it tells you how to compute the determinant: row reduce!

It's not at all obvious that you get the same determinant if you row reduce in two different ways, but this is magically true!

Special Cases

Special Case 1

If A has a zero row, then det(A) = 0.

Why?

Special Cases

Special Case 2

If \boldsymbol{A} is upper-triangular, then the determinant is the product of the diagonal entries:

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} a & \star & \star \\ 0 & b & \star \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix} = abc$$

Upper-triangular means the only nonzero entries are on or above the diagonal.

Why?

Theorem

Let A be a square matrix. Suppose you do some number of row operations on A to get a matrix B in row echelon form. Then

$$det(A) = (-1)^r \frac{(product of the diagonal entries of B)}{(product of the scaling factors)},$$

where r is the number of row swaps.

Why?

Remark

This is generally the fastest way to compute a determinant of a large matrix, either by hand or by computer.

Row reduction is $O(n^3)$; cofactor expansion (next time) is $O(n!) \sim O(n^n \sqrt{n})$.

This is important in real life, when you're usually working with matrices with a gazillion columns.

Computing Determinants Example

Computing Determinants 2 × 2 Example

Let's compute the determinant of $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, a general 2×2 matrix.

▶ If a = 0, then

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} =$$

Otherwise,

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} =$$

In both cases, the determinant magically turns out to be

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

Determinants and Invertibility

Theorem

A square matrix A is invertible if and only if det(A) is nonzero.

Why?

- ▶ If A is invertible, then its reduced row echelon form is the identity matrix, which has determinant equal to 1.
- ▶ If A is not invertible, then its reduced row echelon form has a zero row, hence has zero determinant.
- ▶ Doing row operations doesn't change whether the determinant is zero.

Determinants and Products

Theorem

If A and B are two $n \times n$ matrices, then

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

Why?

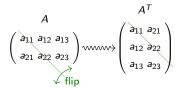
Theorem

If A is invertible, then $det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{det(A)}$.

Why?

Transposes Review

Recall: The **transpose** of an $m \times n$ matrix A is the $n \times m$ matrix A^T whose rows are the columns of A. In other words, the ij entry of A^T is a_{ji} .



Determinants and Transposes

Theorem

If A is a square matrix, then

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

where A^T is the transpose of A.

Example:
$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

As a consequence, det behaves the same way with respect to *column* operations as row operations.

If A has a zero column, then det(A) = 0.

Corollary

The determinant of a *lower*-triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries.

(The transpose of a lower-triangular matrix is upper-triangular.)

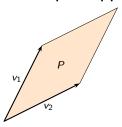
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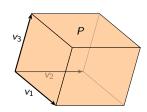
Determinants and Volumes

Now we discuss a completely different description of (the absolute value of) the determinant, in terms of volumes.

This is a crucial component of the change-of-variables formula in multivariable calculus.

The columns v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n of an $n \times n$ matrix A give you n vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . These determine a **parallelepiped** P.





Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with columns v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , and let P be the parallelepiped determined by A. Then

(volume of
$$P$$
) = $|\det(A)|$.

Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with columns v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , and let P be the parallelepiped determined by A. Then

(volume of
$$P$$
) = $|\det(A)|$.

Sanity check: the volume of P is zero \iff the columns are *linearly dependent* (P is "flat") \iff the matrix A is not invertible.

Why is the theorem true? You only have to check that the volume behaves the same way under row operations as | det | does.

Note that the volume of the unit cube (the parallelepiped defined by the identity matrix) is $1. \,$

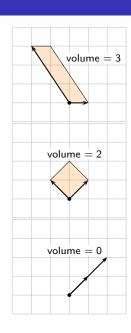
Examples in $\ensuremath{\mbox{\bf R}}^2$

$$\det\begin{pmatrix}1 & -2\\ 0 & 3\end{pmatrix} = 3$$

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = -2$$

(Should the volume really be -2?)

$$\det\begin{pmatrix}1&2\\1&2\end{pmatrix}=0$$



Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with columns v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , and let P be the parallelepiped determined by A. Then

(volume of
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) = $|\det(A)|$.

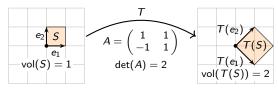
This is even true for curvy shapes, in the following sense.

Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, and let T(x) = Ax. If S is any region in \mathbb{R}^n , then

(volume of
$$T(S)$$
) = $|\det(A)|$ (volume of S).

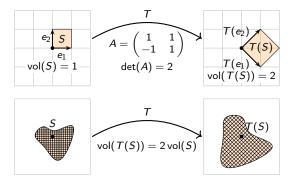
If S is the unit cube, then T(S) is the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A, since the columns of A are $T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)$. In this case, the second theorem is the same as the first.



Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, and let T(x) = Ax. If S is any region in \mathbf{R}^n , then (volume of T(S)) = $|\det(A)|$ (volume of S).

For curvy shapes, you break S up into a bunch of tiny cubes. Each one is scaled by $|\det(A)|$; then you use *calculus* to reduce to the previous situation!



Determinants and Volumes Example

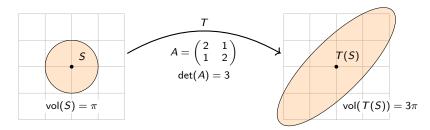
Theorem

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, and let T(x) = Ax. If S is any region in \mathbf{R}^n , then $(\text{volume of } T(S)) = |\det(A)|$ (volume of S).

Example: Let S be the unit disk in \mathbf{R}^2 , and let T(x) = Ax for

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that det(A) = 3.



Magical Properties of the Determinant

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the properties (1)–(4) on the second slide.
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. The determinant of an upper- or lower-triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries.
- 4. If we row reduce A to row echelon form B using r swaps, then

$$det(A) = (-1)^r \frac{(product of the diagonal entries of B)}{(product of the scaling factors)}.$$

- 5. det(AB) = det(A) det(B) and $det(A^{-1}) = det(A)^{-1}$.
- 6. $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.
- 7. $|\det(A)|$ is the volume of the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A.
- 8. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix with transformation T(x) = Ax, and S is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then the volume of T(S) is $|\det(A)|$ times the volume of S. (Even for curvy shapes S.)