

Week #10: Invertible Matrices and Determinants

Text Section 14 - Invertible Matrices and Determinants

Quick Review of Linear Functions

input from \mathbb{R}^2
 \downarrow

$$L(x, y) = (\underbrace{2x - 3y}_{\text{output in } \mathbb{R}^3}, \underbrace{x + y}_{\text{output in } \mathbb{R}^3}, \underbrace{4x + 5y}_{\text{output in } \mathbb{R}^3})$$

$$L(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} y$$

$\text{Im}(L)$
 $= \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right)$

standard matrix
for L .

$$(A_L) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

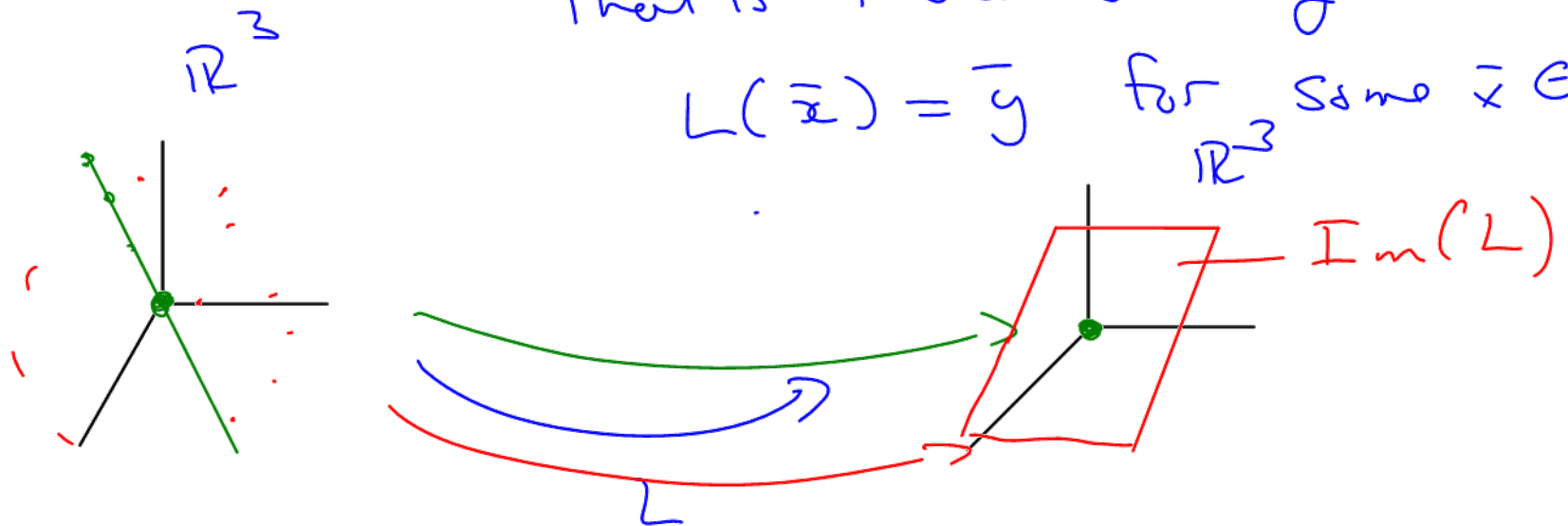
and $L(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$

Also recall:

Definition: for a linear mapping $L : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{W}$, the set of all **input** vectors that are mapped to $\mathbf{0}_W$ is called the Kernel of L , or the **null space** of L . Formally:

Definition: Let $L : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{W}$ be a linear transformation. We define the image of L , $\text{Im}(L)$ by:

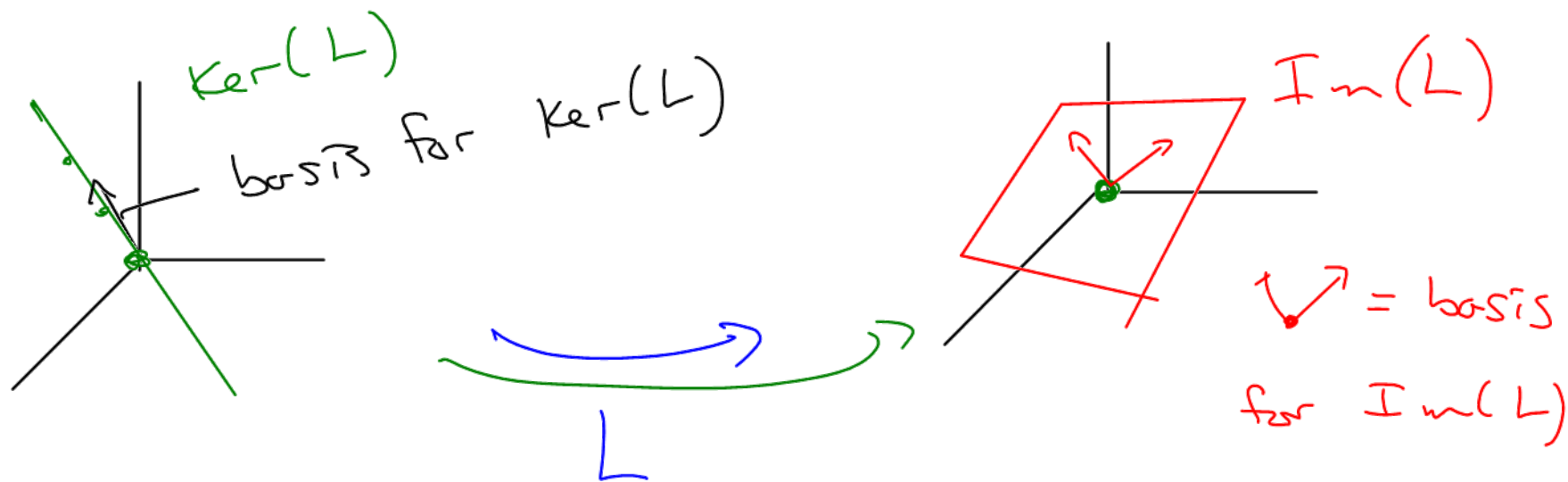
the set $\bar{y} \in W$ (output)
that is reachable by
 $L(\bar{x}) = \bar{y}$ for some $\bar{x} \in V$



Both the kernel and the image of $L : V \rightarrow W$ are subspaces:

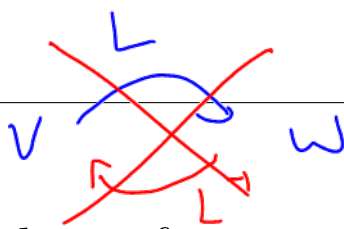
- kernel is a subspace of input space
- image is a " " output space.

Since they are subspaces, each of them must have **bases** and **dimension**. Sketch:



Note: every linear transformation L has a kernel and an image.

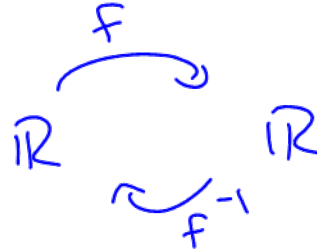
We will also use the same nomenclature for every matrix A , where we infer that A is the standard matrix for a linear transform L .



Invertibility

We will further explore the idea of our matrices-as-functions, and specifically whether they are **invertible**. But first, we review the invertibility in the general case, including non-linear functions.

Invertible functions: Given a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the notation f^{-1} indicates the *inverse function* of f (if the inverse function exists).



Examples

(a) Let $f(x) = x^3$.

$$f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$$

(b) Let $g(x) = 2x - 7$ not linear for linear algebra

$$g^{-1}(x) = \frac{x+7}{2}$$

The f^{-1} function, where it exists, **un-does** the effect of f :

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x, \text{ and } f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

When does a function have an inverse?

A function $f : V \rightarrow W$ has an inverse function f^{-1} if and only if f is **injective (one-to-one)** and **surjective (onto)**.

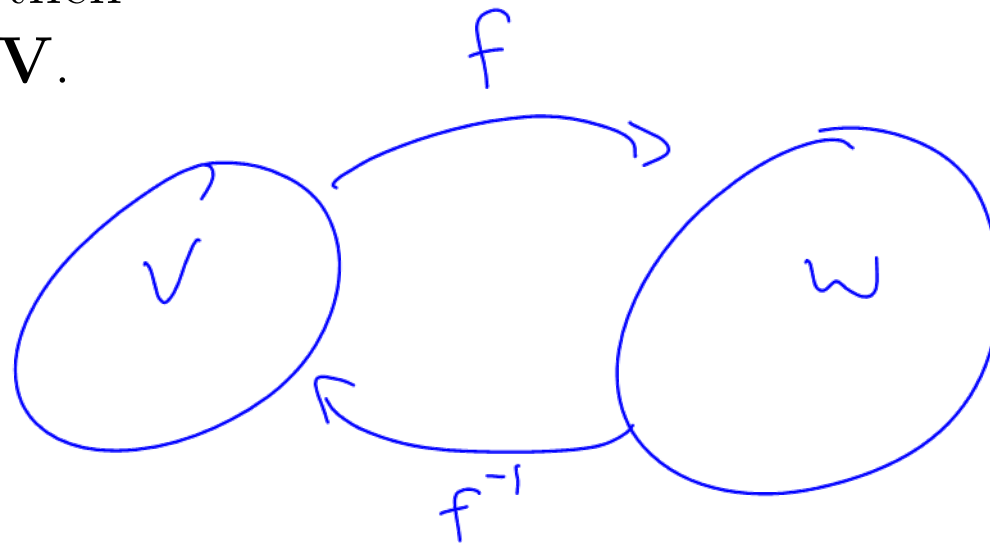


Note that if an inverse function exists and

$$f : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{W} \text{ then}$$

$$f^{-1} : \mathbf{W} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}.$$

Diagram:



A function $f : V \rightarrow W$ has an inverse function f^{-1} if and only if f is injective (one-to-one) and surjective (onto).

Question: Use the diagram below to identify problems with the inverse function when a function is *not* surjective, or *not* injective.

	Injective	Not Injective
Surjective		
Not surjective		

$f^{-1}(1) = A \text{ or } B \times$
not invertible b/c not injective

$f^{-1}(1) = ???$
 or
 $f^{-1}(4) = ???$
not invertible b/c not surjective

Invertibility of Linear Functions or Mappings

Suppose that $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear transformation.

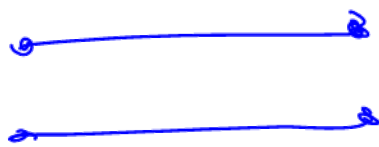
Under what conditions is L invertible, or alternatively *injective and surjective*?

For the work below, assume A is the standard matrix for L .

Required: L is injective (one-to-one)

want

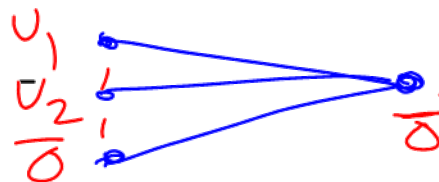
$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{L} \mathbb{R}^m$$



$$\boxed{\text{Ker}(L) = \{\vec{0}\}}$$

Bad

$$\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$



had

Kernel larger
than $\{\vec{0}\}$

week 7:

Thm: L

linear,

L is injective
if and only if

$$\text{Ker}(L) = \{\vec{0}\}$$

Required: L is surjective (onto)

want
 $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

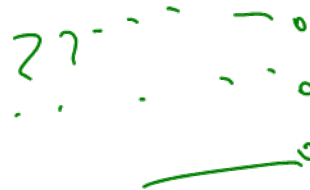


$\text{Im}(L)$

bad
 $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$



$\text{Im}(L)$



$$\boxed{\text{Im}(L) = \text{all of } \mathbb{R}^m}$$

↪ matrix A

Conclusion: $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is invertible if and only if

- $\text{Ker}(L) = \{ \vec{0} \} \rightarrow$ columns of A are linearly indep.

- $\text{Im}(L) = \text{all of } \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow$ columns of A span \mathbb{R}^m .

+

⇓

columns of A are a basis for \mathbb{R}^m

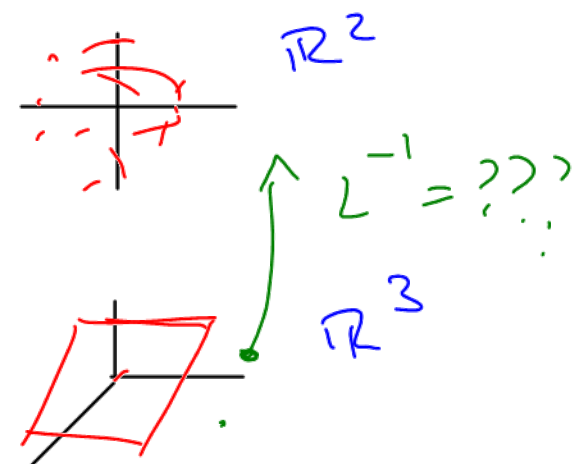
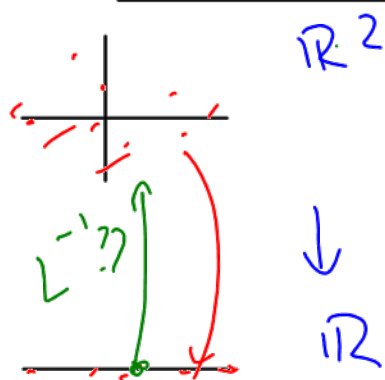


$L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is invertible.

Consequence: if L is invertible, what are the dimensions of its standard matrix A ?

A must be a square matrix
 - same number of rows and cols.

\Rightarrow Linear mappings can be invertible
only if input & output spaces
 have the same dimension.



Nomenclature: since there is a such a close tie between linear functions and their matrix representations, we can talk equally about

(1) The linear function L being invertible;

standard

(2) The matrix for that function, L_A , being invertible; or

(3) A generic (matrix A) being invertible.

not square \Rightarrow not invertible

Rank-nullity and invertibility

We showed earlier that to be invertible, a matrix must first be square $(n \times n)$. However, not even all $n \times n$ matrices will be invertible. Here we connect important properties of matrices to invertibility. Assume the matrix A is the standard matrix for a linear transformation L .

A has n columns.

To be invertible, L must be one-to-one and onto. This means that the kernel of A is: $\{0\}$ - 0 dimensional

So the rank of A must be: n (\rightarrow # of lin'ly indep cols $\left(\begin{matrix} n \\ \text{rank} \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 \\ \text{null} \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} n \\ \text{\# cols} \end{matrix} \right)$

So the columns of A must be: linearly indep

Any of these conditions can be used to test for a matrix's invertibility.

Examples: Which of the following matrices are invertible?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

not square \Rightarrow not invertible.

square. \checkmark
 but cols of B
 are not linearly
 indep
 $\Rightarrow B$ is not
 invertible.

square \checkmark
and cols of C
are lin'ly
 indep.
 $\Rightarrow C$ is
 invertible

Foreshadowing: how would we tell if a larger, e.g. 5x5, matrix were invertible?

Defining the Matrix of an Inverse Linear Function

Suppose that $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation, **and** that it is invertible.

We can define the inverse function $L^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by the rule:

$$L^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

① ②

for each $\bar{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

②

$\bar{x} = L^{-1}(\bar{b})$ is the unique
input $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$L(\bar{x}) = \bar{b}$$

①

$$\text{or } L^{-1}(L(\bar{x})) = \bar{x}$$

①

Theorem: If $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is an invertible linear transformation, then $L^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is also a linear transformation.

Note: though this theorem is true, we will not prove it in this class.

Consequence: since L^{-1} is also a linear transformation, it too must have a standard matrix, A^{-1} .

One obvious question is how to compute the matrix A^{-1} , based on the matrix A .

↑
"A inverse"

Algorithm for Computing the Inverse Matrix

If A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, write the following double-width matrix

$$[A \mid I_n].$$

\uparrow original \uparrow $n \times n$ identity matrix

$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Put this combined matrix into RREF. The resulting matrix will be

$$[I_n \mid A^{-1}]$$

where A^{-1} is the inverse of A .

Example: Given the invertible 2×2 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix},$$

Goal: get LHS into I_2

compute the matrix A^{-1} .

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 3 & 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 7 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_1 \\ 4R_1 - 3R_2}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 3 & 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & -3 \end{array} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_A$
 $2 \times 2 I$

$$\xrightarrow{\substack{R_1 + 5R_2 \\ -R_2}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 3 & 0 & 21 & -15 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{\frac{1}{3}R_1 \\ R_2}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 7 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

$2 \times 2 I$
 A^{-1}

so $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -5 \\ -4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Given the invertible 3×3 matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

Goal: get I_3 on LHS.

compute the matrix B^{-1} .

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_1 \\ R_2 \\ 2R_1 - 3R_2}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -3 \end{array} \right]$$

B $3 \times 3 I$

$$\xrightarrow{\substack{R_1 \\ -R_3 \\ R_2 + 3R_3}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 1 & -9 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_1 - R_2 \\ R_2 \\ R_3}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 1 & -9 \end{array} \right]$$

$$-3 + 27 = 24$$

$$\begin{array}{l} R_1 - 3R_3 \\ \rightarrow R_2 \\ R_3 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 0 & 0 & -15 & -3 & 24 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 1 & -9 \end{array} \right]$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\begin{array}{l} R_1 / 3 \\ R_2 \\ R_3 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -5 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 1 & -9 \end{array} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{3 \times 3 \text{ I}}$

so $B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -1 & 8 \\ -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 6 & 1 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

Some Properties of the Inverse Matrix

- $A^{-1} A = I_n$

Proof: $A^{-1}(A \bar{x}) = \bar{x}$
 $I_n \bar{x} = \bar{x}$

$\Rightarrow A^{-1} A = I_n$

- $A A^{-1} = I_n$

Proof: $\bar{y} = A \bar{x}$
 $A^{-1} \bar{y} = A^{-1} A \bar{x}$
 $A^{-1} \bar{y} = I_n \bar{x}$

$I_n \bar{x} = \bar{x}$, so

$A^{-1} \bar{y} = \bar{x}$

$A A^{-1} \bar{y} = A \bar{x} = \bar{y}$

and $I_n \bar{y} = \bar{y}$

so $A A^{-1} = I_n$

want to use RREF instead
 Not the most efficient/
 Not the most accurate.

① • $A \bar{x} = \bar{b} \Rightarrow \bar{x} = A^{-1} \bar{b}$

↑
 system of equations, n eq's
 n unknowns.

Goal: find \bar{x}

$A^{-1} \cdot \text{①} \Rightarrow A^{-1}(A \bar{x}) = A^{-1} \bar{b} \Rightarrow \bar{x} = A^{-1} \bar{b}$, sol'n to our system of equations.

Alternative Test for Matrix Invertibility

Reminder: not all square matrices will be invertible.

require all columns be linearly indep.

If our rank/column-linear-independence checks aren't immediately obvious, is there another test we can use to see if the matrix is invertible, before we try the full RREF inverting process?

We will see that there is an important quantity called the determinant of a matrix can be used for this. Even better, the matrix determinant can also give other information about an implied linear transformation.

Introduction to Determinants

$\rightarrow r=1$

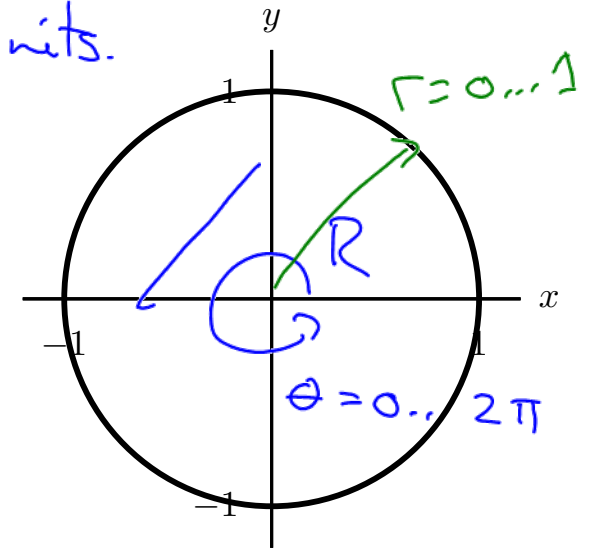
Easy question: what is the area of the unit circle?

$$\text{Area} = \pi r^2 = \pi 1^2 = \pi \text{ sq. units.}$$

Area =
from 172

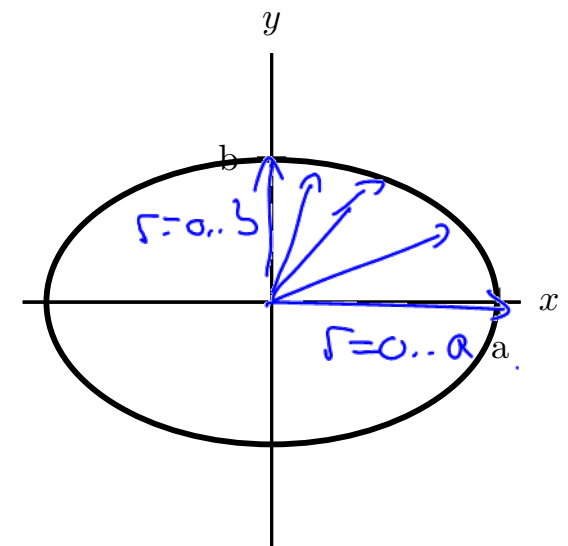
$$\iint_R 1 \, dA = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^1 1 \, r \, dr \, d\theta$$

$$= \pi \text{ sq units.}$$



Harder question: what is the area of an ellipse with axis lengths a and b ?

more challenging.



We will find a non-calculus way to compute the ellipse area using matrices, specifically using a new property of transformations and matrices called the **determinant**. $A = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow D = \#$

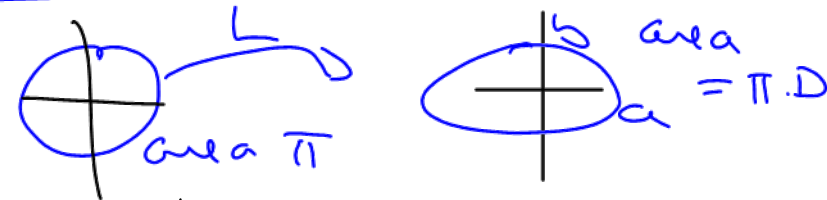
Associated with any linear transformation L (and its associated standard matrix A), is a single scalar value called the **determinant** D .

- (1) The **magnitude** of D represents the **overall scaling** done by the transformation.
- (2) The **sign** of D is related the **directional or orientation flips** done by the transformation.

Determinant in 2D

More specifically for maps from a plane to a plane, $L : \underline{\mathbb{R}^2} \rightarrow \underline{\mathbb{R}^2}$:

- (1) The **magnitude** of D represents the scaling of the area for a closed region by the transformation.



- (2) The **sign** of D is related the relative direction/mirroring of vector pairs after the transformation.

Computing the Determinant - 2×2 case

$\det(A)$

matrix determinant

Definition: $D(A) = |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ab - cd$

Example: compute the determinant of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$.

$\det(A) = (2)(-3) - (0)(0) = -6$

APSC 172 cross-over: compute the determinant of the matrix of

second derivatives: $H = \begin{bmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{bmatrix}$.

$D = f_{xx} f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$

Hessian matrix

$\det(H) = f_{xx} f_{yy} - f_{xy} f_{yx}$

$f_{xx} f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$

$$D(A) = |A| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \right| = ab - cd$$

Example: compute the determinant of $B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det(B) &= (-1)(2) - (-4)(1) \\ &= -2 + 4 \\ &= +2 \end{aligned}$$

Note: we will re-use these same A and B matrices in the following examples as well.

Example: Compute the transformation or image of the triangle shown after applying the linear transformation defined by $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$.

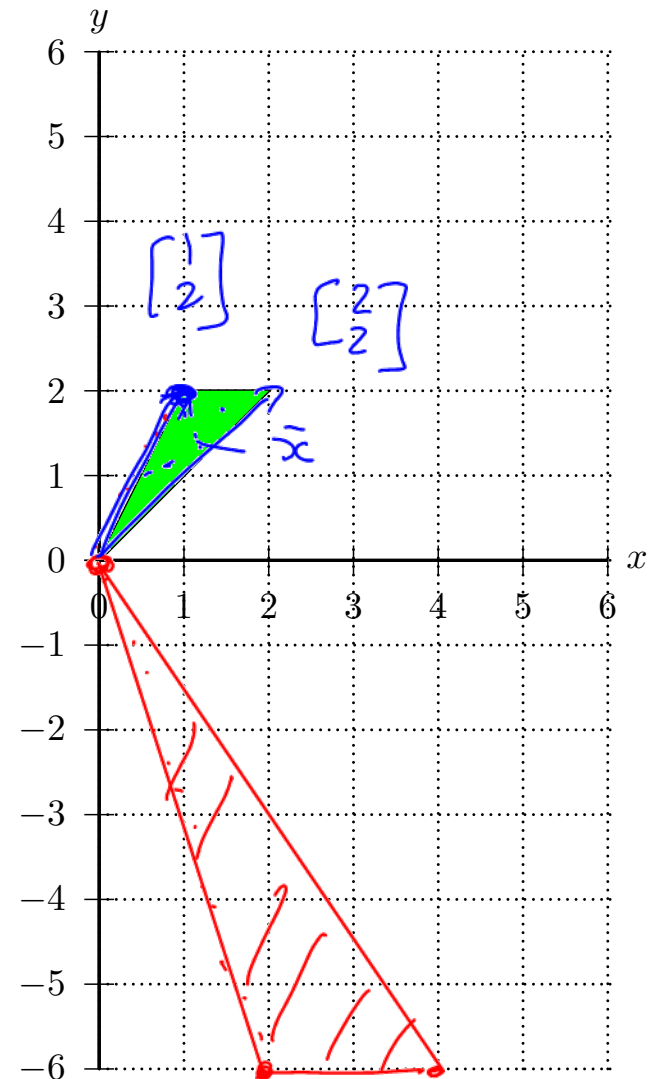
Recall: $|A| = -6$

Compute $A\bar{x}$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

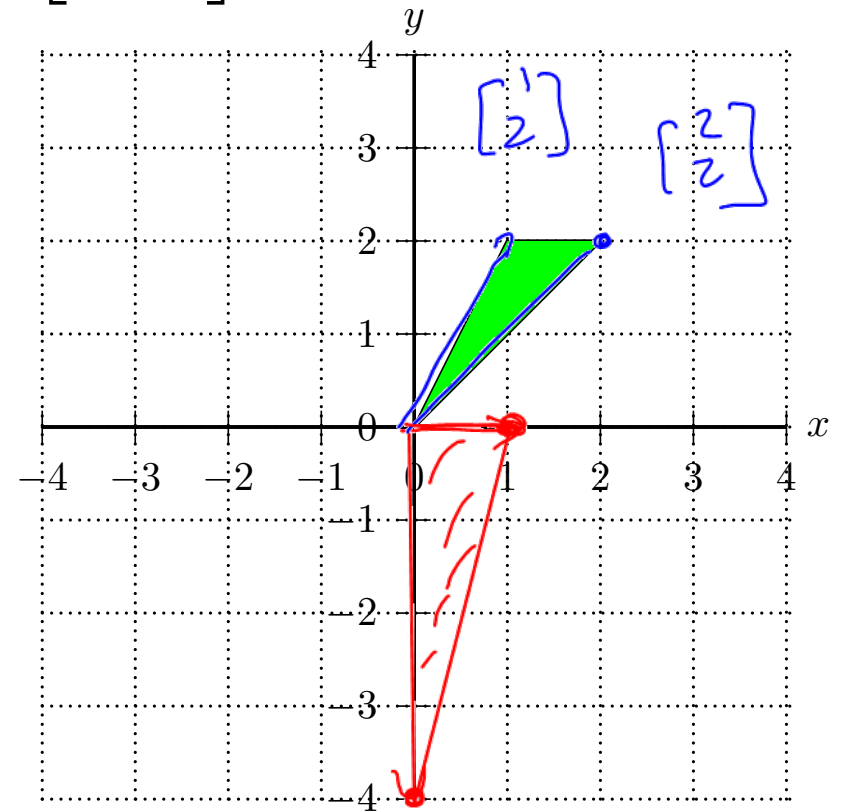
$$A \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$



Example: Compute the transformation of the triangle shown by the linear transformation defined by $B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Recall that $|B| = 2$.

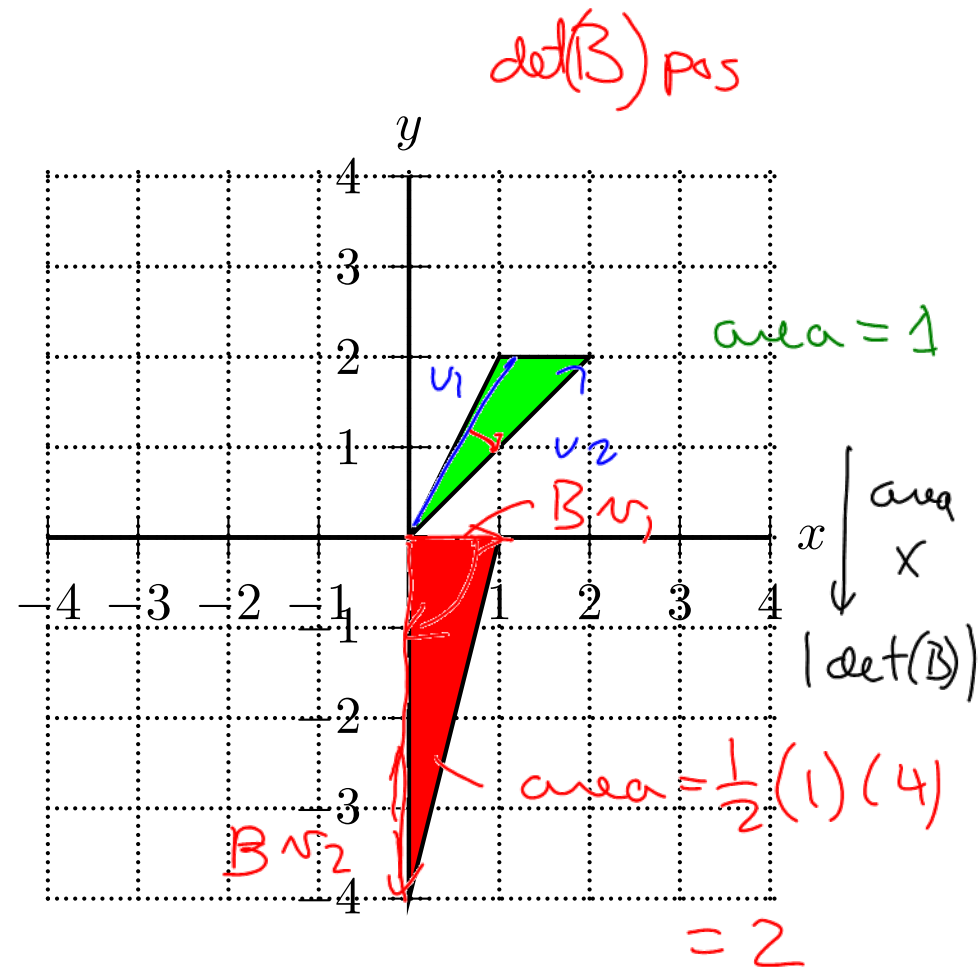
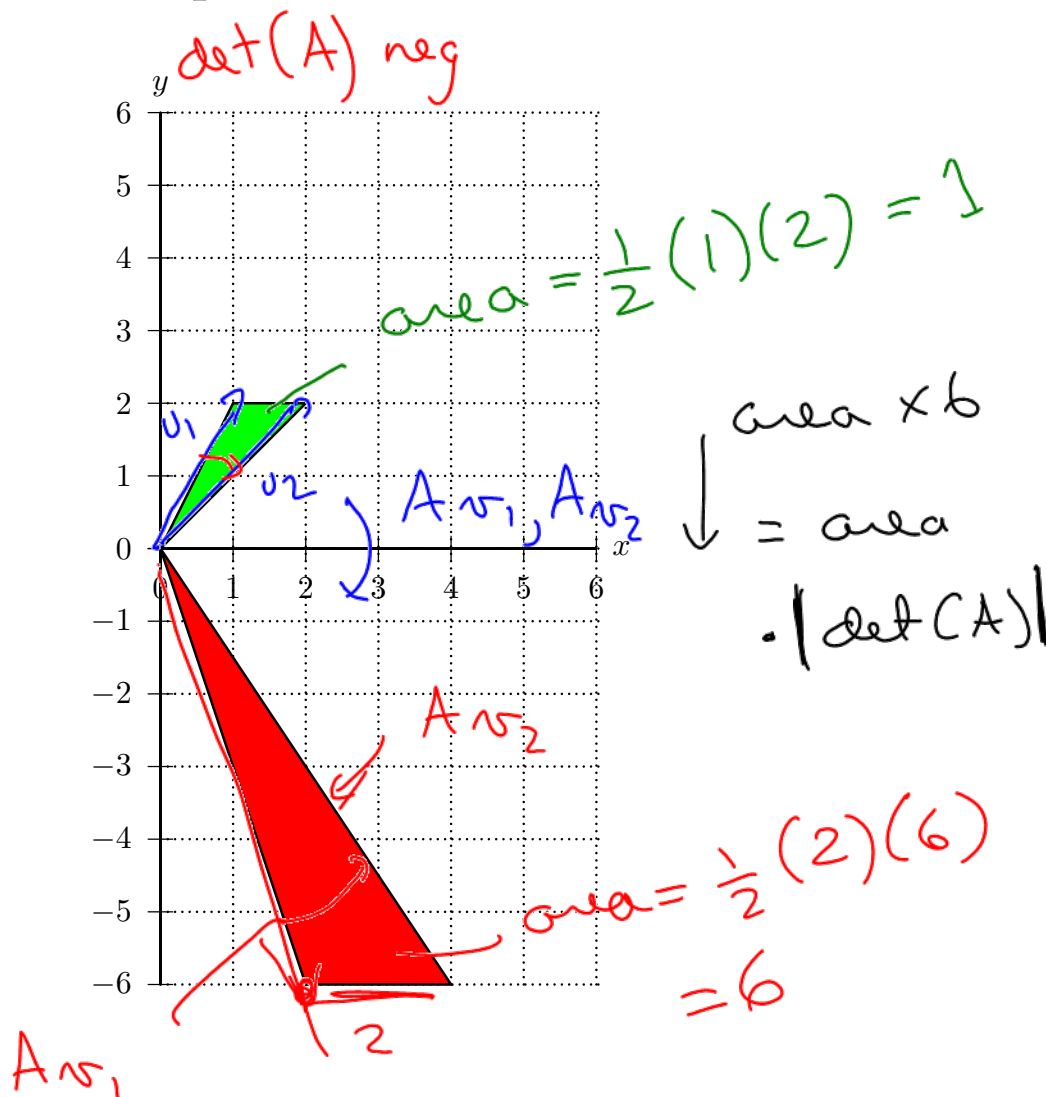
$$B \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$



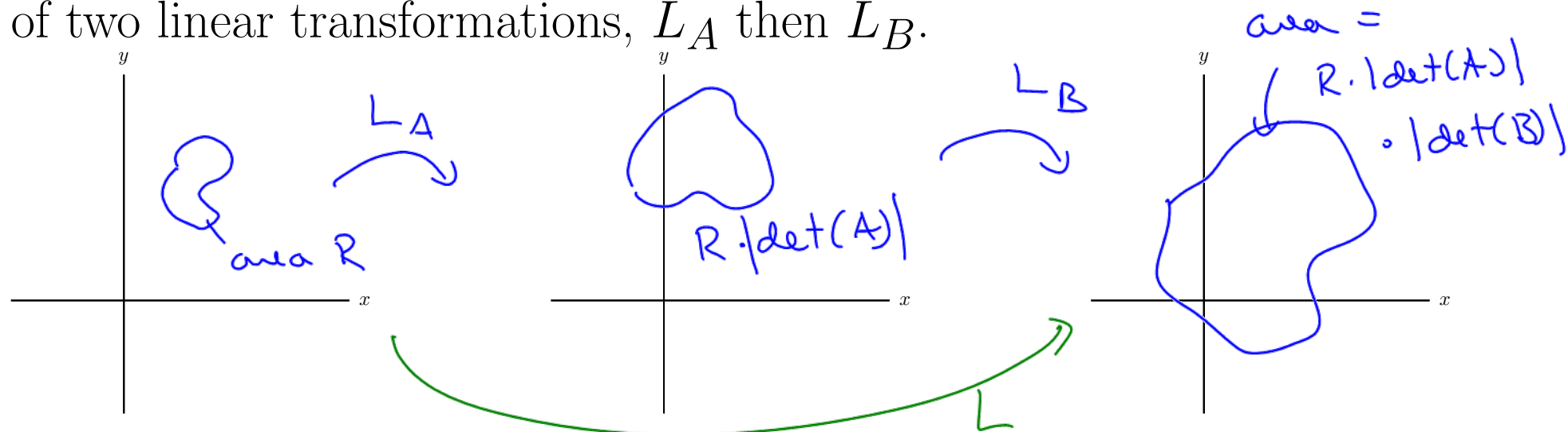
Recall:

- (1) The **magnitude** of D represents the **scaling of the area** for a closed region by the transformation.
- (2) The **sign** of D is related the relative direction/mirroring of vector pairs after the transformation.



The Determinant and Composition

Example: Sketch a region in \mathbb{R}^2 that is transformed by a composition of two linear transformations, L_A then L_B .



What is the effective change in area of the composition $L = L_B \circ L_A$?

mult by $|\det(A)| |\det(B)|$

What does this say about the determinant of the standard matrix for $L_B \circ L_A$?

\downarrow
BA

$$|\det(BA)| = |\det(A)| |\det(B)|$$

In general, for a matrix product (AB) :

$$\det(AB) = \det(BA) = \det(A)\det(B)$$

The Determinant and Invertibility

Example: Compute the transformation of the triangle shown by the linear transformation defined by $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$.

col's are not
linly indep
 $\Rightarrow C$ is not

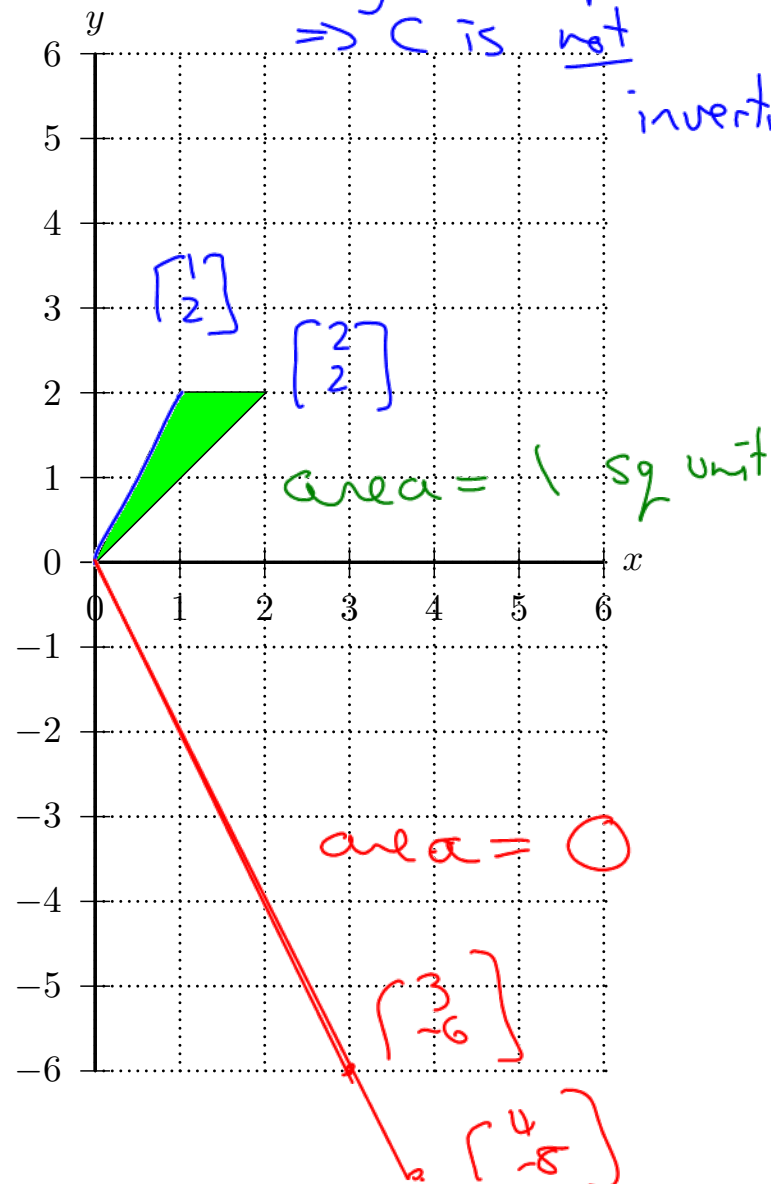
invertible

$$C \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$C \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

What do you notice about the resulting area?



$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

What is the dimension of the image of C ? \rightarrow 1D (line)

$$\text{span of } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \text{span } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is the dimension of the kernel of C ?

started in 2D

$$\text{Rank/ nullity} \quad (\dim \text{ker}) + (\dim \text{Im}) = 2 \Rightarrow \dim(\text{ker}) = 1$$

What is the determinant of C ?

From area, $\det(C) = 0$ | from 2x2 det formula

$$\left| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = (-2) - (-2) = 0.$$

Is C invertible?

No!

- not full rank
- ker is not just $\{\vec{0}\}$
- columns are not lin'ly indep
- $\det(C) = 0$

In general, a square $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if and only if:

• The columns of A are linearly independent.

• The rank of A is n .

• The kernel of A has dimension 0 .

New!! • The determinant of A is *not* zero.

seen
already

Computing the determinant for 2×2 matrices

Recall: for a 2×2 matrix,

$$\det(A) = |A| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \right| = ab - cd$$

Note: the vertical bars here are *not* absolute values. Remember the determinant can be negative!

Example: compute the determinant of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= (2)(-2) - (-1)(7) \\ &= -4 + 7 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

Computing the determinant for 3×3 matrices

$$\det(A) = |A| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{array}{ccc|cc} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{31} & a_{32} \end{array}$$

(Handwritten notes: Blue arrows point to 'row' and 'col'. Red lines and signs indicate the expansion process: a red line from a11 to a22 to a33 with a minus sign, and red lines from a12 to a23 to a31 with a plus sign. Green lines and signs indicate the expansion process: a green line from a11 to a23 to a32 with a plus sign, and a green line from a12 to a21 to a33 with a plus sign.)

- Copy the 1st two columns beside the matrix, then
- Multiply down the diagonals, and up the diagonals as shown, then
- **Add** the down-right diagonal products, and **subtract** the up-right diagonals.

Note: the subscripting in matrices works like a_{ij} as the

- row i .
- col j .

Example: Compute the determinant of the 3×3 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = \left[0 + (-6) + (-4) \right] - \left[0 + 3 + 16 \right]$$

copy

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tidy} &= -10 - 19 \\ &= -29 \end{aligned}$$

Computing the determinant for $n \times n$ matrices

We have seen techniques now for computing determinants of 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.

Sadly, there is no 'diagonal shortcut' for any matrices past 3×3 in size. Instead, we introduce a recursive process called **the Laplace Expansion Formula** or the co-factor expansion.

The co-factor expansion requires two building blocks:

(a) The checkerboard pattern of signs. This always starts as a $+$ in the top-left corner, and then alternates for every vertical or horizontal step taken.

E.g.

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - \\ - & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{bmatrix} .$$

(b) The $(\underline{n - 1}) \times (\underline{n - 1})$ sub-matrix associated with any entry.

For any entry $\underline{a_{ij}}$ in an $n \times n$ matrix, we make a smaller sub-matrix by crossing out the row i and column j that entry is in.

Example:

a_{23}

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & -1 & 6 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

for a_{41}

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & -1 & 6 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 & 6 \\ 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Determinant - Laplace Expansion Formula

1. Pick any row or column. single
2. For every entry a_{ij} in that row or column:
 compute (checkerboard sign) \times (a_{ij}) \times (det of sub-matrix for a_{ij})
3. Take the sum of all the values from step 2.

Formally (Textbook, Page 186, 190): for A being a square $n \times n$ matrix, $\det(A)$ is the real number defined as follows:

- (i) If $n = 1$, i.e. $A = [k]$ for some real number k , then $\det(A) = k$.
- (ii) If $n > 1$, then $\det(A)$ is recursively defined as follows:

pick row $i \rightarrow \det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{i,j} \det([A]_{i,j})$

checker . .

↑ submatrix

pick col j or $= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{i,j} \det([A]_{i,j})$

for a selection of row i or column j .

Example: Compute the determinant of the 4×4 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & -1 & 6 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

pick row or col
 \rightarrow pick row 1

$$\det(A) = (+1) \det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + (-5) \det \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ + (+(-1)) \det \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + (-6) \det \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$= 0$

$$= (1)(42) + (-5)(20) + 0 + (-6)(24)$$

$$= 42 - 100 - 144 = \boxed{-202}$$

(continued)

$$\det(B) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|cc} 0 & 3 & 7 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 \end{array} \rightarrow [0+0+0] - [-42+0+0] = +42$$

$$\det(C) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|cc} 4 & 3 & 7 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 4 \end{array} \rightarrow [(-8)+0+0] - [-28+0+0] = +20$$

$$\det(D) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|cc} 4 & 0 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \rightarrow [0+0+0] - [0-24+0] = +24$$

Example: re-compute the determinant of the same matrix, using a different row or column.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} +1 & 5 & -1 & 6 \\ -4 & 0 & 3 & 7 \\ +0 & -0 & -2 & -0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

pick row or col
pick row 3

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= (+0) \det(\begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}) + (-0) \det(\begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}) \\ &= 0 + 0 \\ &+ (-2) \det(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 0 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}) + (-0) \det(\begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}) \\ &= (-2)(101) + 0 \\ &= -202 \end{aligned}$$

$$\det(E) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|cc} 1 & 5 & 6 & 1 & 5 \\ 4 & 0 & 7 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array}$$

$$= [0 + 70 + 72] - [0 + 21 + 20] = 142 - 41 = 101$$

Notes on determinants so far

Scaling by transformations:



Invertibility of matrices:

area or vol or hypervol

$$A \text{ invertible} \iff \det(A) \neq 0$$

Multiplication of matrices:

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

Determinants of inverse matrices:

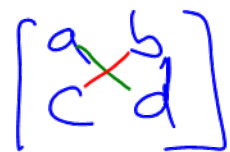
$$A \cdot A^{-1} = I_n$$

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

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

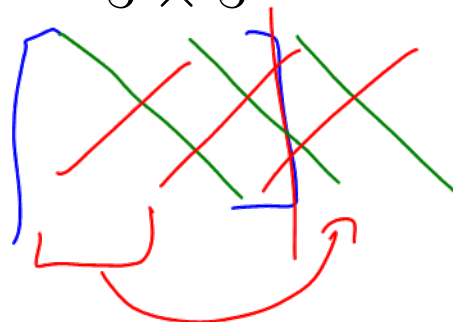
Computing determinants:

2×2



$$\det(A) = ad - bc$$

3×3



$n \times n$

- check board
- sub matrices