1111: Linear Algebra I

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Lecture 9

PREVIOUSLY ON...

- If three matrices A, A', and A" have all rows except for the *i*-th row *i* in common, and the *i*-th row of A is equal to the sum of the *i*-th rows of A' and A", then det(A) = det(A') + det(A");
- if two matrices A and A' have all rows except for the *i*-th row in common, and the *i*-th row of A' is obtained from the *i*-th row of A by multiplying it by a scalar c, then det(A') = c det(A);
- if two matrices A and A' have all rows except for the *i*-th and the *j*-th row in common, and A' is obtained from the A by swapping the *i*-th row with the *j*-th row, then det(A') = -det(A);
- if two matrices A and A' have all rows except for the *i*-th row in common, and the *i*-th row of A' is obtained from the *i*-th row of A by adding a multiple of another row, then det(A') = det(A);

Effectively, these properties say that

- determinants are multilinear functions of their rows,
- determinants behave predictably with respect to elementary row operations.

Let us give an example of how this can be used:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 8 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(2)-(1),(3)-(1)}{=} \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} =$$
$$(-1) \cdot 6 \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(2)\leftrightarrow(3)}{=} 6 \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 6.$$

Let us prove the stated properties. In fact, they are quite easy to prove. Multilinearity is obvious: each of the terms in

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) A_{i_1 j_1} A_{i_2 j_2} \cdots A_{i_n j_n}$$

contains exactly one term from each row, so if for two matrices all rows but one are the same, in the sum of their determinants we can collect the similar terms, and get the determinant where two rows are added. A similar but easier argument works for scalar multiples.

Change of sign under swapping rows is also clear: swapping rows corresponds to swapping two elements in the top row of the two-row notation of each permutation, so changes the sign.

These two properties together imply that when combining rows, we have $\det(A') = \det(A) + c \det(\tilde{A})$ where \tilde{A} has two equal rows. But then of course $\det(\tilde{A}) = -\det(\tilde{A})$, so $\det(\tilde{A}) = 0$.

Now, as I mentioned in class before, we shall see what *determinants* actually *determine*:

An $n \times n$ -matrix A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.

Indeed, let us consider a sequence of elementary row operations that bring A to its reduced row echelon form R. Each of them multiplies det(A) by a non-zero scalar, so det $(A) \neq 0$ if and only det $(R) \neq 0$. It remains to notice that for an invertible matrix A, we have $R = I_n$ with the determinant $1 \neq 0$, and for a matrix which is not invertible, R has a row of zeros, so det(R) = 0, and det(A) = 0.

A somewhat nontrivial property of determinants which is almost immediate from our work is

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

Indeed, already for n = 10 this amounts to check that in more than 10^{16} terms on the left many do cancel each other, producing some 10^{13} terms on the right.

First, note that we already know it in the case when the matrix A is elementary. Indeed, det(EB) = det(E) det(B) for an elementary matrix E, because multiplying by E corresponds to performing a row operation on B, and we know how determinants behave with respect to row operations.

Hence, up to taking into account common factors $det(E_i)$, proving our statement is reduced to the case when A = R is in reduced row echelon form. In this case, the proof is easy: either $R = I_n$, so the formula becomes $det(B) = 1 \cdot det(B)$, otherwise both R and RB have a row of zeros which makes their determinants equal to zero.

It turns out that we can also simplify determinants by performing elementary column operations (same as with rows, but using columns). The easiest way to justify it utilises the notion of the transpose matrix. For an $m \times n$ -matrix A, its transpose A^T is the $n \times m$ -matrix whose rows are columns of A. For example,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{ au} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \; .$$

Exercise: Show that $(A^T)^T = A$ and $(A \cdot B)^T = B^T \cdot A^T$ whenever the product $A \cdot B$ is defined. Show also that if a square matrix A is invertible, then the matrix A^T is also invertible, and that $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$.

Let us show that $det(A^T) = det(A)$. Indeed, note that in the formula

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) A_{i_1 j_1} A_{i_2 j_2} \cdots A_{i_n j_n}$$

passing from A to A^T amounts to swapping i_k with j_k , that is swapping the first and the second row of the two-row matrix representing the permutation. As we know, it does not affect the sign of the permutation, since to compute it we count the total number of inversions in two rows.

Of course, this property implies that elementary column operations have the same effect on determinants as respective elementary row operations. This can sometimes be useful in computations.

MINORS AND COFACTORS

Our next goal will be to prove some formulas involving determinants. Even though we already know enough to compute determinants in practise, in some cases existence of formulas of a particular shape is important for applications. (An idle example: suppose that each element of a $10^4 \times 10^4$ -matrix A is a real number between -100 and 100, and we know these numbers with precision 10^{-5} . With what precision can we know the determinant of A?)

For an $n \times n$ -matrix A with entries a_{ij} , we denote by A^{ij} the i, j-minor of A, that is the determinant of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ -matrix obtained from A by removing the *i*-th row and the *j*-th column. For example, let us

consider the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $A^{11} = 3$, $A^{12} = 2$, $A^{13} = 2$, $A^{21} = 3$, $A^{22} = 1$, $A^{23} = 1$, $A^{31} = -6$, $A^{32} = -2$, $A^{33} = -5$.

MINORS AND COFACTORS

A notion that simplifies many formulas is that of a *cofactor*. Cofactors are "minors with signs": for the given matrix A, its cofactors C^{ij} are defined by the formula $C^{ij} = (-1)^{i+j}A^{ij}$.

In simple words, the extra signs follow a chessboard pattern: we put +1 in the top left corner, and then keep changing signs once we cross borders between rows / columns.

For example, for the matrix
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 we already computed
 $A^{11} = 3, A^{12} = 2, A^{13} = 2, A^{21} = 3, A^{22} = 1, A^{23} = 1, A^{31} = -6, A^{32} = -2, A^{33} = -5$, so we have $C^{11} = 3, C^{12} = -2, C^{13} = 2, C^{21} = -3, C^{22} = 1, C^{23} = -1, C^{31} = -6, C^{32} = 2, C^{33} = -5.$