

Lecture XXXI: §6.3 Elementary Row Operations & determinants

Recall: $\det : \text{Mat}_{n \times n} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$A \longmapsto \det(A) \quad \text{a number}$$

Recursive definition:

$$n=1 \quad \det([a]) = a$$

$$n \geq 2 \quad \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \right) = a_{11} A_{11} + a_{12} A_{12} + \cdots + a_{1n} A_{1n}$$

(signs alternate!)

$$A_{ij} := (-1)^{i+j} \det \left(\text{A without row } i \text{ & col } j \right)$$

$(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix

$$\text{Ex } n=2 \quad \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} ab \\ cd \end{bmatrix} \right) = ad - bc$$

$$n=3 \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\det(A)=0) \quad \begin{array}{l} A \text{ is singular} \\ (\text{Col}_1 + \text{Col}_3 = 2 \text{ Col}_2) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= 1 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 56 \\ 89 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 2 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 46 \\ 79 \end{bmatrix} \right) + 3 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 45 \\ 78 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= 1(45-48) - 2(36-42) + 3(32-35) \\ &= 1(-3) - 2(-6) + 3(-3) = -3 + 12 - 9 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Properties ✓ ① $\det(A)$ is a polynomial in the entries of A .

② A is singular (i.e., non-invertible) if, and only if, $\det A = 0$
[Determinant Tests Invertibility]

③ \det is multiplicative ($\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$)

④ \det is compatible with elementary row operations (we can track changes) ← TODAY

✓ ⑤ If A is upper triangular, ie $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$\det A = a_{11} a_{22} \cdots a_{nn} = \text{product of diagonal entries}$$

↙ 0's below the diagonal

④ bis If A is lower triangular $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$\det A = a_{11} a_{22} \cdots a_{nn}$$

In particular: $\det I_n = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{1 \cdot \dots \cdot 1}_{n \text{ times}} = 1$

$$\textcircled{5} \quad \det(A^T) = \det A$$

Remark: Recursive formulas \rightarrow Inductive proof (Base case: $n=2$)

\textcircled{5} is KEY to show \textcircled{3}, \textcircled{2} will be used in \textcircled{1}

§1. Elementary row Operations

INPUT: $n \times n$ matrix A Row OPERATIONS OUTPUT: $n \times n$ matrix B

Q: How are $\det(B)$ & $\det(A)$ related?

A: Operation	$\det(B)$	Net Effect
(I) SWAP: Exchange 2 rows $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$	$-\det(A)$	sign change
(II) SCALE by $\alpha \neq 0$ $R_i \rightarrow \alpha R_i$	$\alpha \det(A)$	multiply by scalar α
(III) COMBINE $R_i \rightarrow R_i + aR_j (i \neq j)$	$\det(A)$	no change

Why? Use $\det(A^T) = \det(A)$ & use column operations instead with the cofactor (recursive) formula

$$\text{(I) SWAP} \quad A \xrightarrow[R_i \leftrightarrow R_j \ (i \neq j)]{} B \quad [\det \text{ swaps sign.}]$$

$$(1) \underline{n=2}: \quad \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc \quad \text{vs} \quad \det \begin{pmatrix} c & d \\ a & b \end{pmatrix} = cb - da = -\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(2) \underline{n=3}: \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det A = 1 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - 0 + 2 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = (5-8) + 2(4-3) = -3 + 2 = -1$$

$\uparrow - \text{(minor)} \quad \uparrow -$

$$R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3: \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det B = 1 \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - 0 + 2 \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = (8-5) + 2(3-4) = 1$$

$$R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 : \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det B = \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \right) - \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \right) + 2 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= -8 - (5-6) + 2 \cdot 4 = -8 + 1 + 8 = 1$$

Reason behind the rule: 2 ways to check

- 1. Check rule applied by swapping columns
- 2. Use $\det(A^T) = \det(A)$
- 3. Show it directly: need to argue separately if Row 1 is swapped or not.

Consequence $\det \left(\begin{array}{c|cc} \text{matrix with} \\ \hline \text{2 repeated rows} \end{array} \right) = 0$ ($\det(A) = -\det(A)$, so $\det(A)=0$)

(II) SCALE $A \xrightarrow[R_i \rightarrow \alpha R_i]{ } B \quad \Leftrightarrow \alpha \neq 0 \quad [\text{scale by } \alpha]$

$$(1) \underline{n=2} \quad \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \right) = (ad) - (cb) = ad - bc = \alpha \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ \alpha c & \alpha d \end{bmatrix} \right) = a(\alpha d) - b(\alpha c) = \alpha(ad - bc) = \alpha \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$(2) \underline{n=3} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A) = -1$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow \alpha R_1, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 2\alpha \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 0 + 2\alpha \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \alpha((5-8) + 2(4-3)) = \alpha(-3+2) = -\alpha$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow \alpha R_2 \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ \alpha & \alpha & 2\alpha \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2\alpha \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \right) - 0 + 2 \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = -\alpha$$

Reasons behind the rule: $\det A = a_{11}A_{11} + \dots + a_{1n}A_{1n}$

1. If we scale Row 1 by α , we scale a_{11}, \dots, a_{1n} by α in the cofactor formula for $\det(B)$
2. If we scale another rule, we scale A_{11}, \dots, A_{1n} by in the cofactor formula for $\det(B)$

(III) COMBINE $A \xrightarrow[R_i \rightarrow R_i + \alpha R_j]{ } B \quad i \neq j \quad \text{any number } \alpha \quad [\text{no effect}]$

$$\underline{n=2} \quad \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c+\alpha a & d+\alpha b \end{bmatrix} \right) = a(d+\alpha b) - b(c+\alpha a) = ad - bc +$$

$$+ \alpha (ab - ba) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \alpha \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ a & b \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

" 0 "

n=3 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A) = -1$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(B) = 1 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - 0 + 2 \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 5 - 0 + 2(-3) = -1$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + R_2 \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(D) = 2 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - 1 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} + 4 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 2(5-8) - 1(5-6) + 4(4-3) =$$

$$= -6 + 1 + 4 = -1$$

Reasons behind the rule: Distributive laws on R

$$\begin{aligned} \det(B) &= \det(A) + \det \left(\sum_j \begin{bmatrix} \alpha R_j \\ R_j \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \det(A) + \underbrace{\alpha \det \left(\sum_j \begin{bmatrix} R_j \\ R_j \end{bmatrix} \right)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{Scale rule}}} = \det(A) + \alpha \cdot 0 = \det(A) \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad \xrightarrow{\text{2 repeated rows}} \end{aligned}$$

§ 3 Algorithm for computing $\det A$:

IDEA: ① Record effect of row reduction operations on $\det(A)$ as we go from A to $B = EF(A)$

- ② B is upper triangular, so we can compute $\det(B)$ easily
- ③ Trace back the operations to compute $\det(A)$ using ① & value of $\det(B)$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ Compute $\det(A)$ by putting A into its echelon form.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(III)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(II)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(III)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 2\frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = EF(A)$$

Trace changes: $\det A$ $R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1$ $\det A$ $\frac{-1}{4} \det A$ $\frac{-1}{4} \det A$
 $EF(A)$ has $\det = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{-21}{2}$ so $-\frac{1}{4} \det A = \frac{21}{2}$, i.e. $\det A = -42$

Summary: Given A of size $n \times n$

- Use Gauss-Jordan elimination to put A into Echelon form

$$A \dashrightarrow B = EF(A)$$

• k swaps

• l scales by non-zero numbers c_1, \dots, c_l

Then $\det(B) = (-1)^k c_1 \cdots c_l \det(A) \rightsquigarrow$

$$\det A = \frac{(-1)^k \det B}{c_1 \cdots c_l}$$

EASY TO COMPUTE

Consequence: A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

Reason: A invertible means $EF(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & * & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ so $\det(B) = 1$.

Converse: A is not invertible means $EF(A)$ has last row of 0's, so $\det B = 0$.

§ 3. Det is multiplicative:

Theorem: If A, B have size $n \times n$, then $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$

We saw this last time for $n=2$

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det A = 2 \cdot 3 - 2 = 4 \neq 0$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det B = -1 \cdot -2 - 1 \cdot 3 = -1 \neq 0$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2+2 & 6-4 \\ -1+3 & 3-6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det AB = -1 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 2 = -4 = 4(-1)$$

Consequence: If A is invertible $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det A}$

Q: Why is the product formula valid for arbitrary n ?

Special case: IF AB is singular, then A or B are singular (HW)

Consequence: $\det(AB) \approx \det A \det B$ are both 0

Lemma: If A is singular & B is any $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is also singular.

Reason: $C_{n \times n}$ is singular if and only if C^T is (Recall: $(C^T)^{-1} = (C^{-1})^T$)

- $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ & if A is singular, so is A^T .
- If A^T is singular, then $B^T A^T$ is singular (pick $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ with $A^T \vec{x} = \vec{0}$, Then $(B^T A^T) \vec{x} = B^T (A^T \vec{x}) = B^T \cdot \vec{0} = \vec{0}$ so $B^T A^T$ is singular: $\vec{0} \neq \vec{x}$ is in $\text{N}(B^T A^T)$). In particular, $AB = (B^T A^T)^T$ is singular.

Proof of the Product Rule:

(1) If A is singular, then AB is also singular so
 $\det(AB) = 0 = 0 \cdot \det B = \det A \cdot \det B$

(2) If A is invertible, then $A \sim_{\text{row}} I_n$ by a sequence of row operations $\Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(I_n) = 1$ so $A = \frac{1}{\det A} \neq 0$
BUT (*) The same row operations give $AB \sim B$ so

$$\Rightarrow \det(AB) = \det B \quad \text{Conclude: } \det(AB) = \frac{1}{\det A} \det B = \det A \det B$$

(*) Optimal : Row operations can be viewed as multiplying on the left by particular matrices. ($R = R_s \dots R_2 R_1$ if s elem row operations)

2×2 case $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ (I) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ a & b \end{bmatrix}$ ($R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2$)

(II) $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a & \alpha b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ ($R_1 \rightarrow \alpha R_1$); $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \kappa \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ \kappa c & \kappa d \end{bmatrix}$ ($R_2 \rightarrow \kappa R_2$)

(III) $\begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a + \alpha c & b + \alpha d \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} & (R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + \alpha R_2) \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c + \alpha a & d + \alpha b \end{bmatrix} & (R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + \alpha R_1) \end{cases}$

So if $A \sim_{\text{row}} I_n$ by $R_A = I_n$ for some special matrix R ($R = A^{-1}$)

Then $AB \sim B$ because $RAB = B$