

## Determinants and inverses

In this section, we give some properties of the determinants of invertible matrices, and then use determinants to give a formula for the solution of  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  when  $A$  is invertible, without calculating  $A^{-1}$ .

Product Theorem: If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then

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

Notice that if  $A$  is invertible, this tells us that

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

so  $\det(A) \neq 0$ , and  $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$ .

Conversely, if  $A$  is a matrix and  $\det A \neq 0$ , we can take  $A$  to its RRE form  $R$  via elem. operations:

$$R = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A.$$

$$\text{so } \det R = \underbrace{\det E_k \cdots \det E_2 \det E_1}_{\neq 0} \underbrace{\det A}_{\neq 0}$$

so  $\det R \neq 0$ , which means it doesn't have a row of zeros,

so  $R = I \Rightarrow A^{-1} = (E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_1)$ , so  $A$  is invertible.

We've thus proven the following:

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

Ex: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3c & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , for which values of  $c$  is  $A$  invertible? i.e. when is  $\det A \neq 0$ ?

Taking  $R_3 - 3cR_1$ , we get

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0-3c(2) & 1-3c(-1) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -6c & 1+3c \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -6c & 1+3c \end{vmatrix} = (1+3c) - 2(-6c) = 1+3c+12c = 1+15c$$

so  $\det A = 0$  when  $1+15c = 0$ , i.e. when  $c = -\frac{1}{15}$ .

Thus,  $A$  is invertible when  $c \neq -\frac{1}{15}$ .

Thm:  $\det A^T = \det A$ .

Def: A square matrix is orthogonal if  $A^{-1} = A^T$ .

What can we say about the determinant of orthogonal matrices? If  $A$  is orthogonal, then

$$I = AA^{-1} = AA^T,$$

$$\text{so } 1 = \det I = \det(AA^T) = \det(A)\det(A^T) = \det(A)^2$$

so  $\det A = \pm 1$ .

## Adjugates

For a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ , we defined the adjugate to be  $\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ .

For an  $n \times n$  matrix, there is a simple description of the adjugate. First define the cofactor matrix of  $A$  to be  $[c_{ij}(A)]$ . i.e. the  $(i,j)$ -entry is the corresponding cofactor.

Def: The adjugate of  $A$  is the transpose of the cofactor matrix. That is,

$$\text{adj}(A) = [c_{ij}(A)]^T.$$

Ex: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 7 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ , the cofactor matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 7 & -1 \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 7 \end{vmatrix} \\ -\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 7 & -1 \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 \end{vmatrix} \\ \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -10 & 4 & -12 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

so the adjugate is  $\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} -10 & 2 & 2 \\ 4 & -1 & -1 \\ -12 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Just like in the  $2 \times 2$  case, we can use the adjugate to find the inverse:

**Adjugate Formula:** If  $A$  is a square matrix, then

$$A (\text{adj} A) = (\det A) I.$$

Thus, if  $\det A \neq 0$ , the inverse of  $A$  is

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

**Warning:** Do NOT use this formula to compute the inverse.

This formula is for theoretical purposes only.

We can also use it to compute a single entry of the inverse of a matrix:

**Ex:** If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 & 9 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$ , what is the  $(3,2)$ -entry of  $A^{-1}$ ?

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 7 & 9 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & -8 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 7 & -11 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & -18 \end{vmatrix} = -1 \begin{vmatrix} 7 & -11 \\ 2 & -18 \end{vmatrix} = -(-126 + 22) = 104$$

column 3  
- 5 (column 1)

↑  
cofactor expansion along row 2

The  $(3,2)$ -entry of  $A^{-1}$  will be the  $(2,3)$ -entry of the cofactor matrix divided by  $\det A$ .

So the  $(3,2)$ -entry is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{104} C_{23}(A) &= \frac{1}{104} \left( (-1)^5 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \right) = \frac{1}{104} \left( -(8 - 14) \right) \\ &= \frac{6}{104} = \boxed{\frac{3}{52}} \end{aligned}$$

### Cramer's Rule

The adjugate formula has an application to linear equations. Specifically, recall that if  $A$  is an invertible matrix, then a system of equations

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

has unique solution  $\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$ . Applying the adjugate formula, this becomes

$$\vec{x} = \frac{1}{\det A} (\text{adj} A) \vec{b}.$$

Multiplying this out, we obtain Cramer's Rule (see book for details of how to derive this).

Cramer's Rule: If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  invertible matrix, the solution to the system  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  is

$$x_1 = \frac{\det A_1}{\det A}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det A_2}{\det A}, \quad \dots, \quad x_n = \frac{\det A_n}{\det A},$$

where for each  $k$ ,  $A_k$  is the matrix obtained from  $A$  by

replacing column  $k$  with  $\vec{b}$ .

Ex: 
$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{b}}$$

$$\det A = 4 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 4, \text{ so } A \text{ is invertible.}$$

$$\det A_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 3$$

↑  
expansion along row 3

$$\det A_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 7 \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -3(2 - 21) = 57$$

↑  
expansion along col. 2

$$\det A_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = -3(3) = -9$$

↑  
expansion along row 2

$$\text{so } x_1 = \frac{3}{4}, \quad x_2 = \frac{57}{4}, \quad x_3 = \frac{-9}{4}$$

Note: Cramer's rule is not a good way to solve systems of equations. Just like with the adjugate formula, it is only useful in theoretical applications.

## Application: Polynomial interpolation

If we have several data points, how do we "fit" a polynomial to the data?

Ex: We are given the following stock price data:

Date	Stock price
Feb 1	\$ 1
Apr 1	\$ 4
July 1	\$ 6

We want to estimate the price of the stock on August 1 by finding a best fit quadratic polynomial:

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2$$

where  $x$  = month of the year,  $p(x)$  = price on the first of that month.

Our 3 data points are  $p(2) = 1$ ,  $p(4) = 4$ ,  $p(7) = 6$ .

$$r_0 + 2r_1 + 4r_2 = 1$$

$$r_0 + 4r_1 + 16r_2 = 4$$

$$r_0 + 7r_1 + 49r_2 = 6$$

This is three linear equations in 3 variables, so we can

solve:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 16 & 4 \\ 1 & 7 & 49 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 12 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 45 & 5 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 5 & 45 & 5 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 15 & -\frac{5}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{6} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -8 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{6} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{10}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{5}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{6} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{So } p(x) = -\frac{10}{3} + \frac{5}{2}x - \frac{1}{6}x^2.$$

$$\text{So an estimate for August 1 is } p(8) = -\frac{10}{3} + \frac{5}{2} \cdot 8 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 8^2 = 6$$

**Note:** An  $n$  degree polynomial has  $n+1$  coefficients, so if we have  $n+1$  distinct data points, we can use this same method to try to find a degree  $n$  polynomial fit to the data. It turns out there is always a unique polynomial that works, called the interpolating polynomial. That is:

**Theorem:** If  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are distinct numbers,

$$\text{then } \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \dots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \dots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_n & a_n^2 & \dots & a_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \neq 0.$$



This is called a Vandermonde determinant.

It has a formula given by:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \dots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \dots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_n & a_n^2 & \dots & a_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n} (a_i - a_j).$$

Practice problems: 3.2 : 1bc, 2ade, 3, 6b, 8c, 9b, 22b