

Math 221: LINEAR ALGEBRA

Chapter 3. Determinants and Diagonalization

§3-2. Determinants and Matrix Inverses

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¹Slides are adapted from those by Karen Seyffarth from University of Calgary.

Determinants and Matrix Inverses

Adjugates

Cramer's Rule

Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant

Determinants and Matrix Inverses

Theorem (Product Theorem)

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

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Theorem (Determinant of Matrix Inverse)

An $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$. In this case,

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

Example

Find all values of c for which $A = \begin{bmatrix} c & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & c \\ -1 & c & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible.

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Therefore, A is invertible for all $c \neq 0, 3, -3$.

Theorem (Determinant of Matrix Transpose)

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then $\det(A^T) = \det A$.

Proof.

1. This is trivially true for all elementary matrices.
2. If A is not invertible, then neither is A^T (why?). Hence, $\det A = 0 = \det A^T$.
3. If A is invertible, then $A = E_k E_{k-1} \cdots E_2 E_1$. Hence, by case 1,

$$\det A = \cdots = \det A^T.$$



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Therefore, $\det A = -2$.

Example (continued)

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\det(\mathbf{A}^3(\mathbf{B}^{-1})^T) &= -4 \\ (\det \mathbf{A})^3 \det(\mathbf{B}^{-1}) &= -4 \\ (-2)^3 \det(\mathbf{B}^{-1}) &= -4 \\ (-8) \det(\mathbf{B}^{-1}) &= -4 \\ \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{B}} &= \frac{-4}{-8} = \frac{1}{2}\end{aligned}$$

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Therefore, $\det B = 2$.

Example

Suppose A , B and C are 4×4 matrices with

$$\det A = -1, \det B = 2, \quad \text{and} \quad \det C = 1.$$

Find $\det(2A^2(B^{-1})(C^T)^3B(A^{-1}))$.

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Find $\det(2A^2(B^{-1})(C^T)^3B(A^{-1}))$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det(2A^2(B^{-1})(C^T)^3B(A^{-1})) &= 2^4(\det A)^2 \frac{1}{\det B} (\det C)^3 (\det B) \frac{1}{\det A} \\ &= 16(\det A)(\det C)^3 \\ &= 16 \times (-1) \times 1^3 \\ &= -16. \end{aligned}$$

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Since $A^T = A^{-1}$,

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Assuming A is a **real** matrix, this implies that $\det A = \pm 1$, i.e., $\det A = 1$ or $\det A = -1$.

Adjugates

For a 2×2 matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, we have already seen the **adjugate** of A defined as

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix},$$

and observed that

$$\begin{aligned} A(\text{adj}A) &= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} ad - bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad - bc \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (\det A)I_2 \end{aligned}$$

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Furthermore, if $\det A \neq 0$, then A is invertible and

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

Definition

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then

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

where $c_{ij}(A)$ is the (i, j) -cofactor of A , i.e., $\text{adj}A$ is the transpose of the **cofactor matrix** (matrix of cofactors).

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Reminder. $c_{ij}(A) = (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$.

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Solution.

$$\text{adj}A = \begin{bmatrix} 42 & 6 & 22 \\ 33 & -21 & 13 \\ 21 & 3 & -19 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} A(\text{adj}A) &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 42 & 6 & 22 \\ 33 & -21 & 13 \\ 21 & 3 & -19 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 180 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 180 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 180 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example (continued)

Also,

$$\begin{aligned}\det A &= \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & -7 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 19 & 0 & 22 \\ 3 & 0 & -6 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 19 & 22 \\ 3 & -6 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 180,\end{aligned}$$

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so **in this example**, we see that

$$A(\operatorname{adj}A) = (\det A)I$$

Theorem (The Adjugate Formula)

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then

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

Furthermore, if $\det A \neq 0$, then

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

Remark

Except in the case of a 2×2 matrix, the adjugate formula is a very inefficient method for computing the inverse of a matrix; the matrix inversion algorithm is much more practical. However, the adjugate formula is of theoretical significance.

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Using the adjugate formula,

$$\begin{aligned}A(\text{adj}A) &= (\det A)I \\ \det(A(\text{adj}A)) &= \det((\det A)I) \\ (\det A) \times \det(\text{adj}A) &= (\det A)^n (\det I) \\ (\det A) \times \det(\text{adj}A) &= (\det A)^n\end{aligned}$$

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If $\det A \neq 0$, then divide both sides of the last equation by $\det A$:

$$\det(\text{adj}A) = (\det A)^{n-1}.$$

Example (continued)

For the case $\det A = 0$, we claim that

$$\det A = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \det(\operatorname{adj}A) = 0, \quad (\star)$$

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which implies that

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Proof. (of (\star))

We will prove (\star) by contradiction.

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We will prove (\star) by contradiction. Indeed, if $\det A = 0$, then

$$A(\operatorname{adj}A) = (\det A)I = (0)I = O,$$

i.e., $A(\operatorname{adj}A)$ is the zero matrix.

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i.e., $A(\operatorname{adj}A)$ is the zero matrix. If $\det(\operatorname{adj}A) \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{adj}A$ would be invertible, and $A(\operatorname{adj}A) = 0$ would imply $A = O$.

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Problem

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Solution

Notice that

$$(A + B^T)^T = A^T + (B^T)^T = A^T + B.$$

Since a matrix and its transpose have the same determinant

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A + B^T) &= \det((A + B^T)^T) \\ &= \det(A^T + B).\end{aligned}$$

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Example

Prove or give a counterexample to the following statement:

If $\det A = 1$, then $\text{adj}A = A$.

Cramer's Rule

If A is an $n \times n$ **invertible** matrix, then the solution to $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ can be given in terms of determinants of matrices.

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Theorem (Cramer's Rule)

Let A be an $n \times n$ invertible matrix, the solution to the system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ of n equations in the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n is given by

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

where, for each j , the matrix $A_j(\vec{b})$ is obtained from A by replacing column j with \vec{b} :

$$A_j(\vec{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \cdots & \vec{a}_{j-1} & \vec{b} & \vec{a}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof.

► Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} A_j(\vec{b}) &= \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \cdots & \vec{a}_{j-1} & \vec{b} & \vec{a}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} A\vec{e}_1 & \cdots & A\vec{e}_{j-1} & A\vec{x} & A\vec{e}_{j+1} & \cdots & A\vec{e}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1 & \cdots & \vec{e}_{j-1} & \vec{x} & \vec{e}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{e}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= A I_j(\vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

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where

$$\begin{aligned} I_j(\vec{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1 & \cdots & \vec{e}_{j-1} & \vec{x} & \vec{e}_{j+1} & \cdots & \vec{e}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & x_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \vdots & & & \\ & & 1 & x_{j-1} & & & \\ & & & x_j & & & \\ & & & x_{j+1} & 1 & & \\ & & & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & & & x_n & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Proof. (continued)

- ▶ Hence, by taking the determinants on both sides, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A_j(\vec{b})) &= \det(A I_j(\vec{x})) \\ &= \det(A) \det(I_j(\vec{x}))\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ And because $\det(A) \neq 0$, we can then write:

$$\det(I_j(\vec{x})) = \frac{\det(A_j(\vec{b}))}{\det(A)}$$

- ▶ Finally, notice that $\det(I_j(\vec{x})) = \dots$

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Example

Solve for x_3 :

$$3x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = -1$$

$$5x_1 + 2x_2 = 2$$

$$x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = 1$$

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By Cramer's rule, $x_3 = \frac{\det A_3}{\det A}$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Computing the determinants of these two matrices,

$$\det A = -4 \quad \text{and} \quad \det A_3 = -6.$$

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Computing the determinants of these two matrices,

$$\det A = -4 \quad \text{and} \quad \det A_3 = -6.$$

Therefore, $x_3 = \frac{-6}{-4} = \frac{3}{2}$.

Example (continued)

For practice, you should compute $\det A_1$ and $\det A_2$, where

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

and then solve for x_1 and x_2 .

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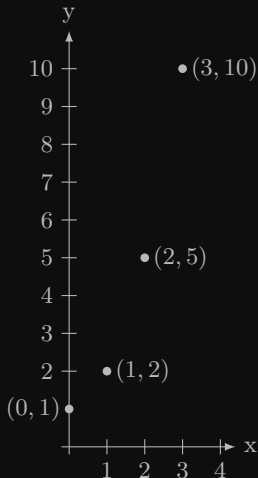
and then solve for x_1 and x_2 .

Solution. $x_1 = -1$, $x_2 = \frac{7}{2}$.

Polynomial Interpolation and Vandermonde Determinant

Problem

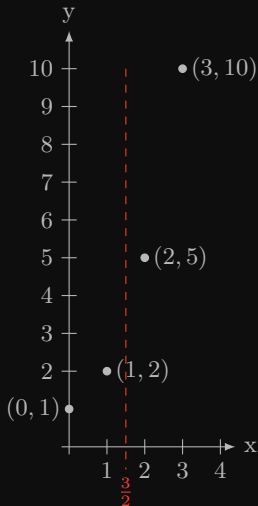
Given data points $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 5)$ and $(3, 10)$, find an interpolating polynomial $p(x)$ of degree at most three, and then estimate the value of y corresponding to $x = 3/2$.



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Problem

Given data points $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 5)$ and $(3, 10)$, find an interpolating polynomial $p(x)$ of degree at most three, and then estimate the value of y corresponding to $x = 3/2$.



Solution

We want to find the coefficients r_0 , r_1 , r_2 and r_3 of

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + r_3x^3$$

so that $p(0) = 1$, $p(1) = 2$, $p(2) = 5$, and $p(3) = 10$.

$$p(0) = r_0 = 1$$

$$p(1) = r_0 + r_1 + r_2 + r_3 = 2$$

$$p(2) = r_0 + 2r_1 + 4r_2 + 8r_3 = 5$$

$$p(3) = r_0 + 3r_1 + 9r_2 + 27r_3 = 10$$

Example (continued)

Solve this system of four equations in the four variables r_0 , r_1 , r_2 and r_3 .

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Solve this system of four equations in the four variables r_0 , r_1 , r_2 and r_3 .

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 & 10 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

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Therefore $r_0 = 1$, $r_1 = 0$, $r_2 = 1$, $r_3 = 0$, and so

$$p(x) = 1 + x^2.$$

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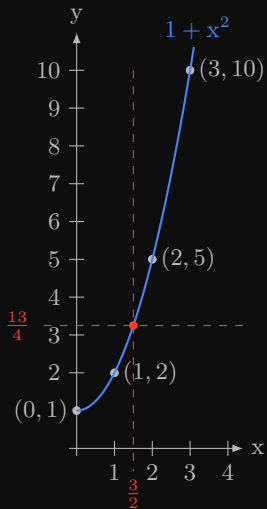
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The estimate is

$$y = p\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 1 + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{13}{4}.$$



Theorem (Polynomial Interpolation)

Given n data points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ with the x_i **distinct**, there is a unique polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

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The polynomial $p(x)$ is called the **interpolating polynomial** for the data.

To find $p(x)$, set up a system of n linear equations in the n variables $r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{n-1}$. $p(x) = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x^{n-1}$:

$$\begin{aligned}r_0 + r_1x_1 + r_2x_1^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x_1^{n-1} &= y_1 \\r_0 + r_1x_2 + r_2x_2^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x_2^{n-1} &= y_2 \\r_0 + r_1x_3 + r_2x_3^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x_3^{n-1} &= y_3 \\&\vdots \\r_0 + r_1x_n + r_2x_n^2 + \dots + r_{n-1}x_n^{n-1} &= y_n\end{aligned}$$

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The coefficient matrix for this system is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

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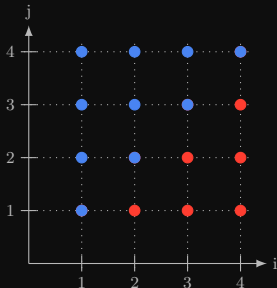
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & \cdots & x_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant of a matrix of this form is called a **Vandermonde determinant**.

Theorem (Vandermonde Determinant)

Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be real numbers, $n \geq 2$. The corresponding Vandermonde determinant is

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



Proof.

We will prove this by induction. It is clear that when $n = 2$,

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_1 \\ 1 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} = a_2 - a_1 = \prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq 2} (a_i - a_j).$$

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Assume that it is true for $n - 1$. Now let's consider the case n . Denote

$$p(x) := \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \\ 1 & x & x^2 & \cdots & x^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof. (continued)

Because $p(a_1) = \cdots = p(a_{n-1}) = 0$ (why?), $p(x)$ has to take the following form:

$$p(x) = c(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_{n-1}).$$

To identify the constant c , notice that c is the coefficient for x^{n-1} . By cofactor expansion of the determinant along the last row,

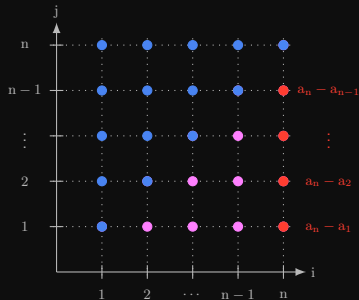
$$\begin{aligned} c &= (-1)^{n+n} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n-1} (a_i - a_j). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. (continued)

Hence,

$$p(a_n) = \left(\prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n-1} (a_i - a_j) \right) \times (a_n - a_1)(a_n - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_{n-1})$$

$$= \prod_{1 \leq j < i \leq n} (a_i - a_j).$$



Example

In our earlier example with the data points $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 5)$ and $(3, 10)$, we have

$$a_1 = 0, \quad a_2 = 1, \quad a_3 = 2, \quad a_4 = 3$$

giving us the Vandermonde determinant

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$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 \end{vmatrix}$$

According to the previous theorem, this determinant is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} & (a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1)(a_3 - a_2)(a_4 - a_1)(a_4 - a_2)(a_4 - a_3) \\ = & (1 - 0)(2 - 0)(2 - 1)(3 - 0)(3 - 1)(3 - 2) = 2 \times 3 \times 2 \\ = & 12. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence of the theorem, the Vandermonde determinant is nonzero if a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are distinct.

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This means that given n data points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ with **distinct** x_i , then there is a unique interpolating polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1}x^{n-1}.$$