

Last time: · more examples of det computations

· properties of det. (w.r.t. row operations.)



application: proof of "Thm 1": $\det A \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow A$ is inv. square

Today: · more applications of det.

— determining inv. of matrix products.

— computing matrix inverses.

— solving matrix equations.

— computing areas/volumes.

} can already do with row reductions.

1. Invertibility of matrix products

Recall Thm 2: Let A, B be $n \times n$ matrices. Then $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$.

Corollary: Let A, B be $n \times n$ matrices. Then AB is inv. iff A and B are both inv. (In fact, let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k be $n \times n$ matrices. Then $A_1 A_2 \dots A_k$ is inv iff A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k are all invertible.)

Pf: $(A_1 A_2 \dots A_k)$ is inv $\stackrel{\text{Thm 1}}{\iff} \det(A_1 A_2 \dots A_k) \neq 0$

$\stackrel{\text{Thm 2}}{\iff} \det(A_1) \dots \det(A_k) \neq 0$

$\iff \det(A_1) \neq 0, \det(A_2) \neq 0, \dots, \det(A_k) \neq 0$

$\iff A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k$ are all inv. \square

2.* Finding matrix inverses

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ inv} \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Fact: If $\det A \neq 0$ (ie., if A is inv.), then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} x_{ij} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{entry in } i\text{th row, } j\text{th col}$$

where $x_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{\substack{j \\ i}}$
submatrix of A obtained by deleting the j th row, i th col.

E.g. 2x2:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} (-1)^{1+1} d & (-1)^{1+2} b \\ (-1)^{2+1} c & (-1)^{2+2} a \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

3* Solving matrix equations. Consider the matrix eq. $Ax = b$. ($A = [v_1 | \dots | v_n]$)
 $\begin{matrix} \mathbb{R}^n \\ \mathbb{R}^n \end{matrix}$

(a) Recall that if A is inv, then $(*)$ has a unique soln, namely $A^{-1}b$,
so since we can compute A^{-1} via determinants, we can solve $(*)$ via det.

b) There is also another, more direct way to solve $(*)$ via determinants:

Fact: If A is inv, the soln to $Ax = b$ is given by the vector $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$

where $x_i = \frac{\det(A_i(b))}{\det A}$ \rightarrow $A_i(b) = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_{i-1} & b & v_{i+1} & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$.
ith col

Ex: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$
det: 2

$$x_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 8 & 4 \end{vmatrix}}{2} = \frac{40}{2} = 20.$$

$$x_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{vmatrix}}{2} = \frac{54}{2} = 27.$$

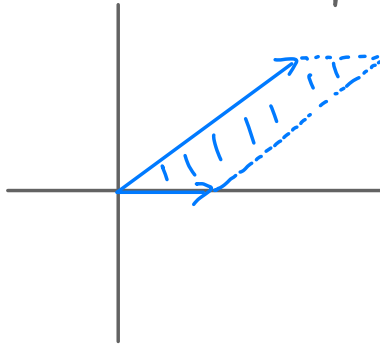
check: \checkmark .

4. Determinants as area / volume

(a) Det of 2×2 matrices vs area:

Thm 1. (Thm 3.3.9.) Given a 2×2 matrix $A = [v_1 | v_2]$, the area of the parallelogram determined by v_1 and v_2 equals $|\det A|$.
(with sides)

Eg. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

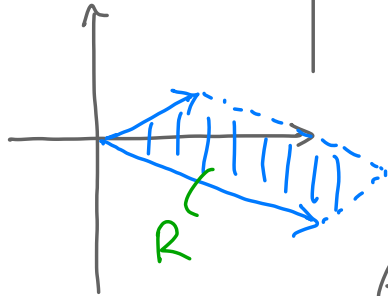


from grade school:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area}(\square) &= \text{base} \cdot \text{height} \\ &= 2 \times 3 = 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$|\det A| = |2 \times 3 - 4 \times 0| = 6 \quad \checkmark$$

Eg. $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$



$$\text{Area}(R) = |\det B| = |-9| = 9$$

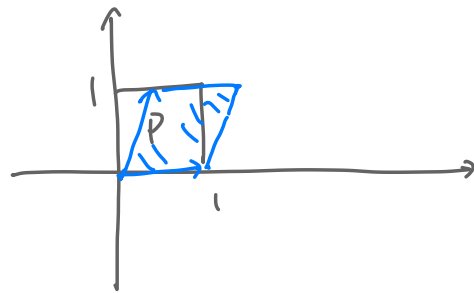
Thm 2. (Thm 3.3.10) Let $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a linear map. If P is a
 parallelogram in \mathbb{R}^2 , then so is $T(P)$, and

$$\text{Area}(T(P)) = |\det A_T| \cdot \text{Area}(P)$$

where A_T is the standard matrix of T .

Eg

$P =$ the unit square, $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{A_T} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$
 horizontal shear



(can be generalized to other shapes/regions)
 like a disk
 (*)

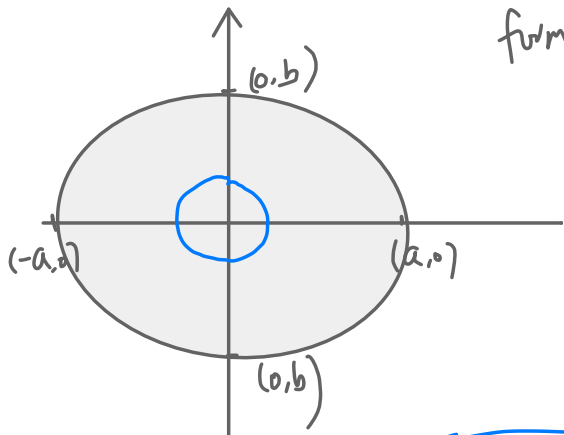
$\text{Area}(T(P)) = 1$ by geometry

$\text{Area}(P) = 1 \times 1 = 1$, $|\det A_T| = |1| = 1$. so (*) does hold.

E.g. Let a, b be positive numbers. The points (x, y) satisfying the eq.

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

form an ellipse enclosing a region in \mathbb{R}^2 .



Fact: We may take the unit circle and stretch it horizontally by a factor of a , vertically by b to obtain the enclosed region.

$$A_T = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left(T: \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} ax \\ by \end{bmatrix} \text{ satisfies } T(\textcircled{1}) = \text{shaded ellipse} \right)$$

Thus, $\text{Area}(\text{shaded ellipse}) = \text{Area}(\textcircled{1}) \cdot |\det A_T| = \pi \cdot 1^2 \cdot ab = \underline{\underline{\pi ab}}$

1b). 3×3 det, vs. parallelepiped:

Thm 1: (3.39.) Given a 3×3 matrix, $A = [v_1 | v_2 | v_3]$, the volume of the parallelepiped determined by v_1, v_2, v_3 is $|\det A|$.

Thm 2: (3.3.10.) Given a parallelepiped P in \mathbb{R}^3 and a linear map $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, then $\underbrace{P}_{\text{can be generalize to other "nice" regions.}}$

$$\text{Vol}(T(P)) = |\det A_T| \text{Vol}(P)$$

where A_T is the standard matrix of T .