

**Lecture 16: 3.2 Properties of determinants.**

**Recall:** Let  $A = (a_{ij})$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix and let  $A_{ij}$  denote the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix obtained from  $A$  by deleting the row and column containing  $a_{ij}$ . The **cofactors** are

$$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$$

and the **determinant** is

$$(2) \quad \det A = a_{11}C_{11} + \dots + a_{n1}C_{n1}.$$

We saw that if  $E$  is an elementary matrix then

$$(*) \quad \det(EA) = \begin{cases} -\det(A), & \text{if } E \text{ is of type I: interchange two rows.} \\ \alpha \det(A), & \text{if } E \text{ is of type II: multiply row by } \alpha. \\ \det(A), & \text{if } E \text{ is of type III: add multiple of row to another.} \end{cases}$$

**Example 1.** Find the determinant of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Solution.** Adding  $-2$  times the 1st row to the 2nd and expanding along the first column:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & -6 & -3 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -6 & -3 \\ -2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot ((-6)0 - (-3)(-2)) = -6.$$

By letting  $E$  in  $(*)$  act on the identity  $I$  in place of  $A$ , using that  $\det(I) = 1$ , we get

$$\det(E) = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{if } E \text{ is of type I} \\ \alpha, & \text{if } E \text{ is of type II} \\ 1, & \text{if } E \text{ is of type III} \end{cases}$$

It therefore follows that if  $E$  is an elementary matrix

$$(3.2.1) \quad \det(EA) = \det(E) \det(A)$$

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

**Proof.** If  $A$  is nonsingular it can be written as a product of elementary matrices  $E_k \cdots E_1$ :

$$\det(AB) = \det(E_k \cdots E_1 B) = \det(E_k) \cdots \det(E_1) \det(B) = \det(A) \det(B).$$

**Theorem.**  $\det A^T = \det A$ .

**Proof.** This is clear for the elementary matrices. Indeed, for type I and II, for example

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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we have  $E^T = E$  and so  $\det E^T = \det E$ . The transpose of a type III elementary matrix is also of type III, and both therefore have determinant equal to 1. Now for a general matrix  $A$ , either  $A$  and  $A^T$  are both singular and hence both have determinant zero, or we can write  $A$  as a product of elementary matrices  $E_k \cdots E_1$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \det A^T &= \det(E_k \cdots E_1)^T = \det(E_1^T \cdots E_k^T) = \det E_1^T \cdots \det E_k^T \\ &= \det E_1 \cdots \det E_k = \det(E_1 \cdots E_k) = \det A. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem.** For any  $i$  and  $j$  we have

$$\det A = a_{i1}C_{i1} + \dots + a_{in}C_{in} = a_{1j}C_{1j} + \dots + a_{nj}C_{nj}$$

**Proof.** We can show by induction on  $n$  that

$$\det A = a_{11}C_{11} + \dots + a_{1n}C_{1n}.$$

For example, we do this in three dimensions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix},$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= \det A^T = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & a_{32} \\ a_{13} & a_{23} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{32} \\ a_{23} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{23} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{22} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13}. \end{aligned}$$

In order to show that

$$\det A = a_{21}C_{21} + a_{22}C_{22} + \dots + a_{2n}C_{2n}$$

we use the fact that if  $E$  is the elementary matrix which interchanges the first two rows, then  $\det EA = -\det A$ . We carry this out in 3 dimensions. Indeed

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= -\det(EA) = - \begin{vmatrix} a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= -a_{31} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{12} & a_{13} \end{vmatrix} + a_{32} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{11} & a_{13} \end{vmatrix} - a_{33} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (-1)^{3+1}a_{31} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix} + (-1)^{3+2}a_{32} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix} + (-1)^{3+3}a_{33} \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

**Example 2.**

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} &= 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= -2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (-2)2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (-2)2(1 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 0) = -4 \end{aligned}$$

### 3.3 Determinants and volumes.

**Th** If  $A$  is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix, the area of the parallelogram determined by the columns of  $A$  is  $|\det A|$ . If  $A$  is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix, the area of the parallelepiped determined by the columns of  $A$  is  $|\det A|$ .

**Pf** of the  $2 \times 2$  cases. The theorem is obviously true for diagonal  $2 \times 2$  matrices:

$$\left| \det \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix} \right| = |ad| = \text{Area of rectangle with sides } a \text{ and } d$$

We will show that any  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2]$  can be transformed into a diagonal matrix in a way that changes neither the area of the associated parallelogram nor  $|\det A|$ . We know that the absolute value of the determinant is unchanged when two columns are interchanged or a multiple of one column is added to another and its easy to see that one can transform  $A$  into diagonal form with such operations. Column interchanges do not change the parallelogram at all so it suffices to prove the following fact: The area of the parallelogram determined by  $\mathbf{a}_1$  and  $\mathbf{a}_2$  equals the area of the parallelogram determined by  $\mathbf{a}_1$  and  $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$  for any  $c$ . This follows from that the points  $\mathbf{a}_2$  and  $\mathbf{a}_2 + c\mathbf{a}_1$  have the same perpendicular distance to the line through  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{a}_1$ .