

Question: What is the determinant of an orthogonal matrix?

Answer: ± 1 .

A orthogonal means $A^T A = I_m$. So:

$$\det(A^T A) = \det(I_m) \longrightarrow \det(A^T) \det(A) = 1$$

$$\longrightarrow \det(A) \det(A) = 1 \longrightarrow (\det(A))^2 = 1$$

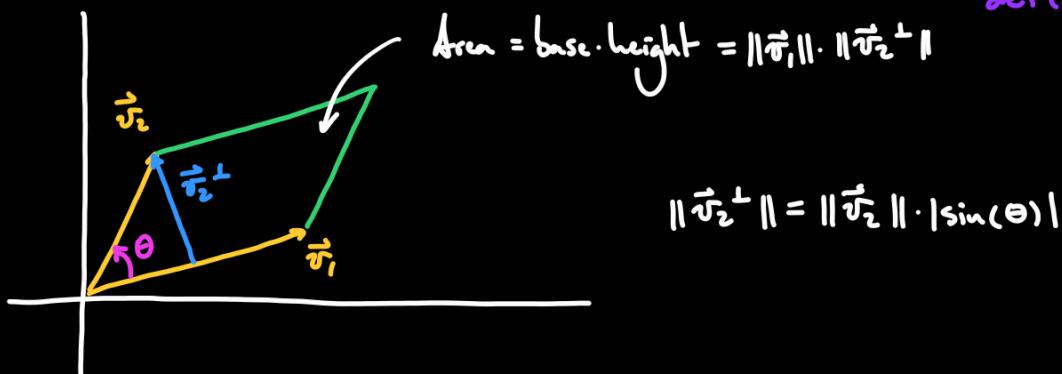
So $\det(A) = \pm 1$. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is orthogonal and has determinant -1 .

Geometric interpretation of the determinant:

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ a 2×2 matrix, $\det(A) = \|\vec{v}_1\| \cdot \|\vec{v}_2\| \cdot \sin(\theta)$ where θ is the angle between \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \vec{w}_1 & \vec{w}_2 & \vec{w}_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A) = \vec{w}_1 \cdot (\vec{w}_2 \times \vec{w}_3)$$

$$\det(A) = \|\vec{w}_1\| \cdot \|\vec{w}_2\| \cdot \|\vec{w}_3\|$$



Thus $|\det(A)| = \|\vec{v}_1\| \cdot \|\vec{v}_2^\perp\|$ is the area of the parallelogram spanned by \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 .

Let A be any invertible matrix, $A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix}$, using the Gram-Schmidt process

we can find a QR decomposition of A :

$A = QR$ upper triangular with strictly positive diagonal entries

$$\det(A) = \det(QR) = \det(Q) \det(R) = \underbrace{\det(Q)}_1 \cdot \det(R) = c_{11} \cdot c_{22} \cdots c_{nn} =$$

$$= \|\vec{v}_1\| \cdot \|\vec{v}_2^\perp\| \cdots \|\vec{v}_n^\perp\|.$$

$$c_{11} = \|\vec{v}_1\|, c_{22} = \|\vec{v}_2^\perp\|, \dots, c_{nn} = \|\vec{v}_n^\perp\|$$

\vec{v}_i^\perp is the component of \vec{v}_i perpendicular to $\text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_{i-1})$.

This formula exactly generalizes the formula:

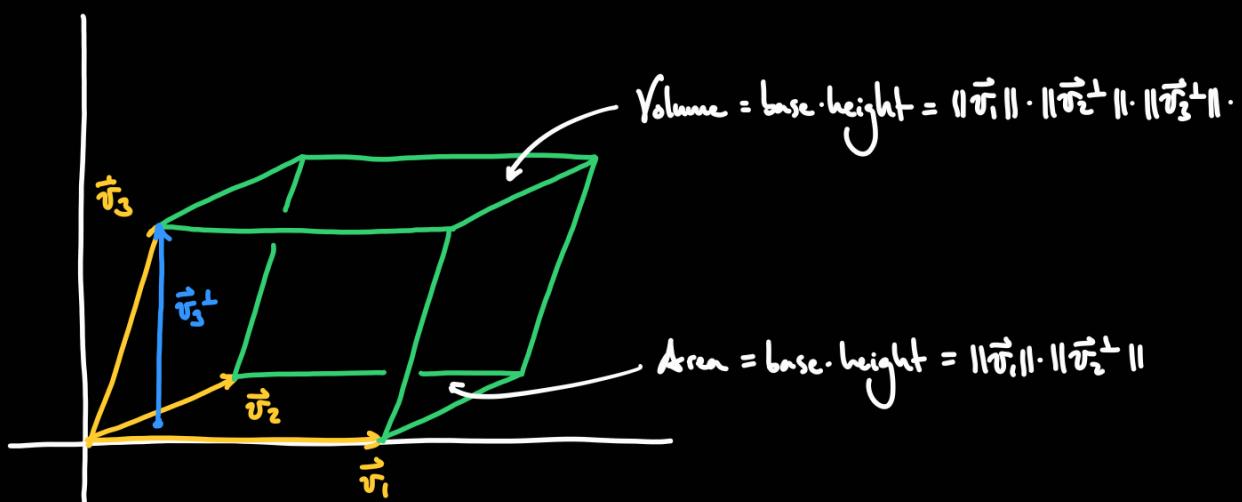
$$\text{Area} = \text{base} \cdot \text{height}$$

to any dimension n .

"length" is the 1-volume \mathbb{R}^n

"area" is the 2-volume

"volume" is the 3-volume



The volume in \mathbb{R}^n of the linearly independent vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ is $\left| \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \vec{v}_1 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \right|$.

Theorem: (Cramer's rule) Let $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ be a linear system, A is invertible, then

the solution has in the i -th entry :

$$x_i = \frac{\det(A_{\vec{b}, i})}{\det(A)}$$

where $A_{\vec{b}, i}$ is obtained from A by replacing the i -th column with \vec{b} .

The classical adjoint of an invertible matrix A is : (denoted $\text{adj}(A)$)

$$(\text{adj}(A))_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \cdot \det(A_{j|i}) .$$

Theorem: $A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(A)}{\det(A)} .$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} .$ To compute A^{-1} we first find all the minors

$\det(A_{ij})$ and put them in a 3×3 matrix in their respective positions with

their respective signs:

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ (-1)^{1+1} \det(A_{11}) & (-1)^{1+2} \det(A_{12}) & (-1)^{1+3} \det(A_{13}) \\ - & + & - \\ (-1)^{2+1} \det(A_{21}) & (-1)^{2+2} \det(A_{22}) & (-1)^{2+3} \det(A_{23}) \\ + & - & + \\ (-1)^{3+1} \det(A_{31}) & (-1)^{3+2} \det(A_{32}) & (-1)^{3+3} \det(A_{33}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 & -1 \\ -1 & -4 & 3 \\ -4 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

now we take the transpose:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -4 \\ -4 & -4 & 8 \\ -1 & 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} = \text{adj}(A)$$

finally, we divide by $\det(A) = -8$:

$$\therefore \text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} -3/8 & 1/8 & 1/2 \\ 1/8 & -1/8 & -1/4 \\ -1/8 & 3/8 & -1/4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -1 \\ \frac{1}{8} & -\frac{3}{8} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$