

Determinants:
for square matrices only

Solve a general system (2×2)

$$\begin{array}{l} ax + by = f \\ cx + dy = g \end{array} \xrightarrow{\boxed{2} - \frac{c}{a} \boxed{1}} \begin{array}{l} ax + by = f \\ \left(d - \frac{bc}{a}\right)y = g - \frac{fc}{a} \\ \left(\frac{ad - bc}{a}\right)y = \frac{ag - fc}{a} \end{array}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\boxed{2} \times \frac{a}{ad - bc}} \begin{array}{l} ax + by = f \\ y = \frac{ag - fc}{ad - bc} \end{array}$$

Solve a general system (2×2 , ctnd.)

$$\boxed{1} - b \boxed{2}$$

$\longrightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} ax &= f - b \frac{ag - fc}{ad - bc} \\ &= \frac{fad - fbc - bag + bfc}{ad - bc} = a \frac{fd - bg}{ad - bc} \end{aligned}$$

$$y = \frac{ag - fc}{ad - bc}$$

$$\boxed{1} \times \frac{1}{a}$$

$\longrightarrow$

$$x = \frac{fd - bg}{ad - bc}$$

$$y = \frac{ag - fc}{ad - bc}$$

The value $ad - bc$ came up in the denominator — and we saw earlier that the system has a solution exactly when $ad - bc \neq 0$. It determines when a solution exists.

Definition

The *determinant* of $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ is $ad - bc$, denoted either $\det A$ or $|A|$.

Note: From the general system above:

$$x = \frac{fd - bg}{ad - bc} = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} f & b \\ g & d \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}} \quad y = \frac{ag - fc}{ad - bc} = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} a & f \\ c & g \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}}$$

Solve a general system (3×3)

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = p$$

$$a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = q$$

$$a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = r$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \boxed{2} & - & \frac{a_2}{a_1} \boxed{1} \\ \boxed{3} & - & \frac{a_3}{a_1} \boxed{1} \end{array}$$

$\longrightarrow$

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = p$$

$$\frac{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}{a_1}y + \frac{a_1c_2 - a_2c_1}{a_1}z = \frac{a_1q - a_2p}{a_1}$$

$$\frac{a_1b_3 - a_3b_1}{a_1}y + \frac{a_1c_3 - a_3c_1}{a_1}z = \frac{a_1r - a_3p}{a_1}$$

$$\boxed{3} - \frac{a_1b_3 - a_3b_1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1} \boxed{2}$$

$\longrightarrow$

→

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = p$$

$$\frac{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}{a_1}y + \frac{a_1c_2 - a_2c_1}{a_1}z = \frac{a_1q - a_2p}{a_1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{a_1b_2c_3 - a_2b_1c_3 - a_3b_2c_1 - a_1b_3c_2 + a_2b_3c_1 + a_3b_1c_2}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}z \\ &= \frac{a_1b_2r - a_2b_1r - a_3b_2p - a_1b_3q + a_2b_3p + a_3b_1q}{a_1b_2 - a_2p} \end{aligned}$$

ETC.

So:

Definition

If $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$\det A = a_1 b_2 c_3 - a_2 b_1 c_3 - a_3 b_2 c_1 - a_1 b_3 c_2 + a_2 b_3 c_1 + a_3 b_1 c_2 .$$

And then we get from the general system above:

$$z = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & p \\ a_2 & b_2 & q \\ a_3 & b_3 & r \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}} .$$

A a square matrix $\rightarrow \det A$ or $|A|$, a number built out of the entries of A

Basic Properties

1. $\det(I_n) = 1$ (for any n)
2. Reversing two rows changes sign.
3. Det is “multilinear”, i.e., linear in each row separately. [So, for example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2(2) + 3(4) & 2(-1) + 3(7) & 2(3) + 3(2) \end{vmatrix} \\ = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 7 & 2 \end{vmatrix} .]$$

Warning: By 3., $\det(cA) = c^n \det A$ (not $c \det A$), if A is $n \times n$.

Secondary Properties

4. If two rows are equal, $\det = 0$.

- Pf: Reversing two rows changes the sign but, if the rows are equal, the matrix is the same. Only $d = 0$ satisfies $-d = d$.

5. Subtracting a scalar multiple of one row from another doesn't change $\det$.

- Pf:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_j + c\mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j + c\mathbf{a}_k \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{vmatrix} + c(0) = \begin{vmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_k & \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_j + c\mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_k & & \mathbf{a}_j & & \mathbf{a}_j + c\mathbf{a}_k \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{vmatrix}.$$

6. If A has a row of 0's, $\det A = 0$.

- Pf: If $\mathbf{a}_k = \mathbf{0} = 0\mathbf{a}_k$, then $\det A = 0(\det A) = 0$.

Secondary Properties (ctnd.)

7. If A is triangular, $\det A$ is the product of its main diagonal entries.
- ▶ Pf: If a main diagonal entry is 0, then by row ops we can make a row of zeros, so $\det$ is 0. If not, we can make it diagonal and use multilinearity to turn it into I .
8. $\det A = 0$ iff A is singular (= not invertible).
- ▶ Pf: A is singular iff its rref R has 0 on its diagonal; but $\det A = k \det R$ where $k \neq 0$.
- 9*. $\det(AB) = (\det A)(\det B)$.
- ▶ Pf: If A or B is singular, both sides are 0. If neither, A is a product of elementary matrices, and we can check $\det(EB) = (\det E)(\det B)$ for each of the 3 kinds of E .
- 9 $\frac{1}{2}$. $\det(A^{-1}) = 1/(\det A)$.
- ▶ Pf: $(\det A)(\det A^{-1}) = \det I$.

Secondary Properties (ctnd. again)

10. $\det(A^T) = \det A$.

- Pf: If A is singular, so is A^T . If not, A is a product of elementaries E , and $\det E = \det E^T$ for each kind of E . (For two of them, $E = E^T$. For the third, $\det E = 1 = \det E^T$.) So if $A = E_1 E_2 E_3$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\det A^T &= (\det E_3^T)(\det E_2^T)(\det E_1^T) \\ &= (\det E_3)(\det E_2)(\det E_1) \\ &= (\det E_1)(\det E_2)(\det E_3) \quad (\text{mult of scalars is comm}) \\ &= \det A .\end{aligned}$$

Claims:

- ▶ The Basic Properties imply the “Big Formula” for determinants that we’ll do soon.
- ▶ Because the Big Formula gives the determinant, it follows that any rule that has the Basic Properties is the determinant.

Check that $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$ has the Basic Properties.

Evaluating determinants I: Pivots

Do row ops to get a diagonal matrix, keeping track of how determinant changes.

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| \boxed{1} \overset{\leftrightarrow}{=} \boxed{2} - \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| \boxed{1} \overset{\times(1/2)}{=} -2 \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| \\ & \quad \boxed{3} \overset{-\boxed{1}}{=} -2 \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right| \boxed{3} \overset{-(1/3)\boxed{2}}{=} -2 \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -8/3 \end{array} \right| \\ & = -2(1)(3)(-8/3) = 16 \end{aligned}$$

This is the most efficient method, i.e., fewest arithmetic operations.

Note also, from $PA = LU$ and $|P| = \pm 1$ and $|L| = 1$, we get that $|A|$ is plus or minus the product of the pivots of A .

Evaluating determinants II: The Big Formula

Recall:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} \qquad \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$
$$\begin{aligned} &= a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} &= a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} \\ & &&+ a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} \end{aligned}$$

Note in each term the first subscript goes from 1 to n , and the second varies over a rearrangement of 1 to n , with all the rearrangements in different terms (i.e., each term is a product of entries, one from each row and one from each column). We need the signs of the terms.

In the same way, from solving bigger systems:

$$\det A = \sum_{\sigma} (\operatorname{sgn} \sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n a_{i,\sigma(i)}$$

where σ varies over all the permutations (rearrangements) of $1, 2, \dots, n$ and $\operatorname{sgn} \sigma$ is -1 to the power the number of backward pairs in σ .

A “backward pair” is a pair from 1 through n that is out of its usual order in σ .

Example: If σ is 41325, then of the ten pairs

1, 2 1, 3 1, 4 1, 5 2, 3 2, 4 2, 5 3, 4 3, 5 4, 5

1, 4 and 2, 3 and 2, 4 and 3, 4 are backwards in σ , so
 $\operatorname{sgn} \sigma = (-1)^4 = 1$.

Because there are $n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(2)(1) = n!$ permutations of 1 through n , using the Big Formula, a determinant has $n!$ terms of products of n entries.

So a 10×10 matrix requires

$$10!(9) = 32,659,200$$

arithmetic operations, even without trying to figure out the sgn for each term.

Example

1234	1
1243	-1
1324	-1
1342	1
1423	1
1432	-1
2134	-1
2143	1
2314	1
2341	-1
2413	-1
2431	1
3124	1
3142	-1
3214	-1
3241	1
3412	1
3421	-1
4123	-1
4132	1
4213	1
4231	-1
4312	-1
4321	1

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0 - 0 - 0 + 0 + 0 - 0 \\ &\quad - 1(1)(0)(3) + 1(1)(5)(4) + 1(2)(2)(3) \\ &\quad - 1(2)(5)(0) - 1(0)(2)(4) + 1(0)(0)(0) \\ &\quad + 2(1)(1)(3) - 2(1)(5)(1) - 2(-1)(2)(3) \\ &\quad + 2(-1)(5)(0) + 2(0)(2)(1) - 2(0)(1)(0) \\ &\quad - 3(1)(1)(4) + 3(1)(0)(1) + 3(-1)(2)(4) \\ &\quad - 3(-1)(0)(0) - 3(2)(2)(1) + 3(2)(1)(0) \\ &= 20 + 12 + 6 - 10 - (-12) - 12 + (-24) - 12 \\ &= -8 \end{aligned}$$

Evaluating determinants III: Cofactors

The only way to keep the Big Formula straight:

Definition

The (i, j) -th *cofactor* of the matrix A is $(-1)^{i+j}$ times the determinant of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix that results from deleting from A the i -th row and the j -th column.

$$\begin{aligned}\det A &= \sum_i a_{i,j} C_{i,j} \text{ for any } i \\ &= \sum_j a_{i,j} C_{i,j} \text{ for any } j\end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} &= - \left[1(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 0 + 5(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \right] \\ &\quad + 2 \left[-1(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 2(1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \right] \\ &= -[-(-6) - 5(2)] + 2[1(-6) + 2(0)] = -8 \end{aligned}$$

Cramer's Rule

As we saw earlier, we can solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ (for A nonsingular) by letting B_i be the result of replacing the i -th column of A (the coefficients of x_i) with $\mathbf{b}$ and setting

$$x_i = \frac{\det B_i}{\det A} \text{ for each } i .$$

Why does this work? Well, by the multilinearity on columns and the fact that a matrix with two equal columns has determinant 0:

$$\begin{aligned} |B_i| &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{b} & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & (x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n) & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{vmatrix} \\ &= x_1 \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + \dots + x_i \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_i & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + \dots + x_n \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 0 + \dots + x_i |A| + \dots + 0 = x_i |A| . \end{aligned}$$

Example

$$\begin{array}{rcrcrcrcl} & & 3y & + & 2z & = & 7 \\ x & - & 2y & + & z & = & 12 \\ 3x & + & 4y & & & = & -6 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0 - 3(0 - 3) + 2(4 - (-6)) = 29 :$$

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 7 & 3 & 2 \\ 12 & -2 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{29} = \frac{110}{29}, \quad y = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 7 & 2 \\ 1 & 12 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{29} = \frac{-39}{29},$$

$$z = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 1 & -2 & 12 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 \end{vmatrix}}{29} = \frac{160}{29}.$$

Inverses via the “classical adjoint”

To find the columns of A^{-1} , we need to solve the n systems

$$A\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1, \quad \dots, \quad A\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{e}_n$$

where the $\mathbf{e}$'s are the columns of the identity matrix. Suppose we solve them each by Cramer's rule, evaluating each $|B|$ by cofactors down the $\mathbf{e}$ column. Then, for example, to find the $(1, n)$ -th entry in A^{-1} , we replace the first column in A with $\mathbf{e}_n$ and evaluate the determinant of the result down the first column — which gives the cofactor C_{n1} of A — and divide by $|A|$. In general,

$$A^{-1} = (1/|A|) \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & \dots & C_{n1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & \dots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note this is the transpose of the obvious matrix of cofactors.

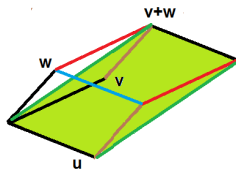
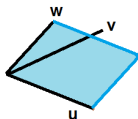
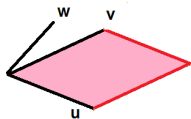
Determinants are signed areas

1. $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$ is the area of the parallelogram with vertices $(0,0)$, (a, c) , (b, d) and $(a + b, c + d)$, with sign determined by whether (b, d) is counterclockwise or clockwise from (a, c) .

2. $\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix}$ is the volume of the parallelepiped from $(0,0,0)$

determined by the columns, with sign determined by whether the columns give a right-handed system.

Why? Well, signed area has the three Basic Properties (the third is the hard one to see), so it is the determinant function.



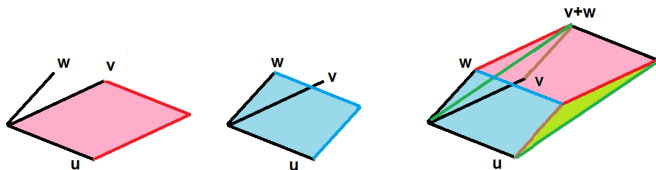
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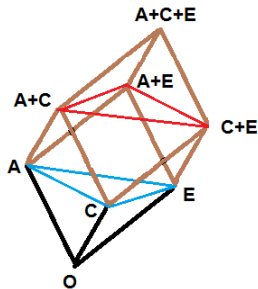


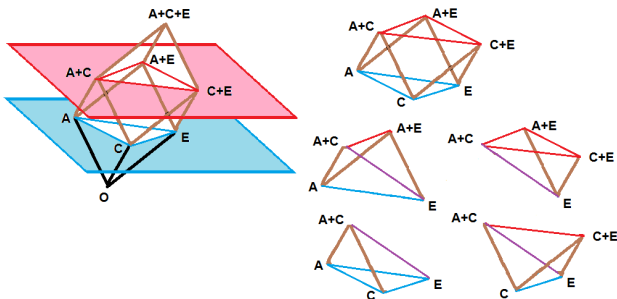
Area of a triangle not at (0,0)

Area of triangle with vertices (a, b) , (c, d) , (e, f) is half the

absolute value of $\begin{vmatrix} a & b & 1 \\ c & d & 1 \\ e & f & 1 \end{vmatrix}$.

Why? Volume of parallelopiped with these vertices in plane $x_3 = 1$ (call those points A, C, E) is that determinant.





But it is also sum of areas of:

- ▶ the upside-down pyramid with vertex $(0,0,0)$ and base triangle A, C, E ,
- ▶ four tetrahedra that assemble to give the piece between $x_3 = 1$ and $x_3 = 2$; and
- ▶ the pyramid from triangle $A + C, A + E, C + E$ in $x_3 = 2$ to vertex $A + C + E$ in $x_3 = 3$.

All 6 have same volume (4 clear, 2 harder).

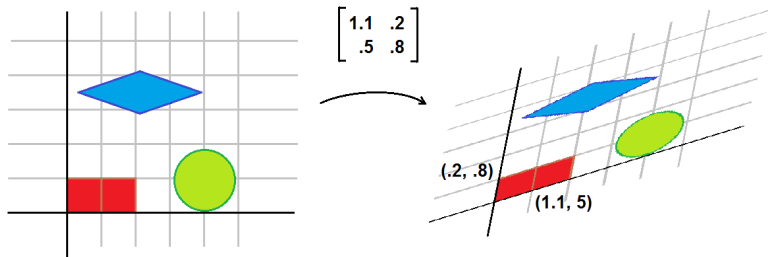
So

$$\det = \text{volume} = 6\left(\frac{1}{3}\mathfrak{A}\right) \implies \mathfrak{A} = \frac{1}{2} \det .$$

Example: The area of the triangle with vertices $(1,2)$, $(2,5)$, $(-2,3)$ is

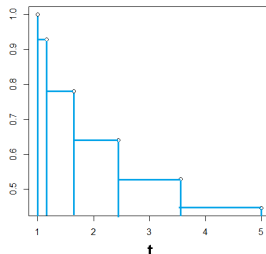
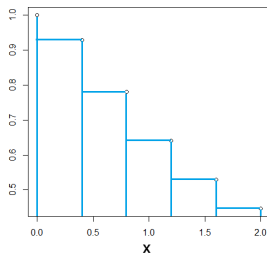
$$\frac{1}{2} \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right| = 5 .$$

If a region $\mathcal{R}$ in the plane has area $\mathfrak{A}$ and the plane is transformed by multiplication by a matrix A , then each one of the unit squares in the plane is converted to a parallelogram with area $|A|$, so the area of the transformed region $A(\mathcal{R})$ is $\mathfrak{A}|A|$.



Change of variable, one variable

If we set $t = 1 + x^2$, then the values of the functions $1/\sqrt{t}$ and $1/\sqrt{1+x^2}$ agree at corresponding values:

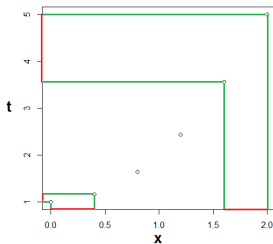


but clearly

$$\int_0^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} dx \neq \int_1^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} dt .$$

Change of variable, one variable, ctnd.

To get the correct equality for integrals, we need to adjust the — ultimately infinitesimal — widths of the rectangles, and that adjustment has to vary with the x and t values.



The equation $dt = 2x \, dx$ gives the (varying) horizontal adjustment in the widths from the x -line to the t -line:

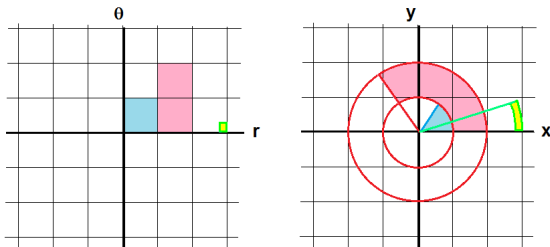
$$\int_0^2 \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = \int_1^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} \, dt .$$

Change of variable, two variables

So how do we make a similar change of variable in multivariate integral?

$$\int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} dy dx = ?$$

The change of variable $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r \cos \theta \\ r \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$ simplifies the integrand to $1/r$. But what about the varying change of (infinitesimal) area (in place of length) from $dr d\theta$ in the $r\theta$ -plane to $dy dx$ in the xy -plane:



Change of variable, two variables, ctnd.

That change is done with the determinant of the matrix of partial derivatives, the *Jacobian*, which is the factor that the area of an infinitesimal square in the $r\theta$ plane changes by as it becomes an infinitesimal parallelogram in the xy plane:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \partial x / \partial r & \partial x / \partial \theta \\ \partial y / \partial r & \partial y / \partial \theta \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r \cos^2 \theta + r \sin^2 \theta = r .$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} dy dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{r} r dr d\theta = 2\pi .$$

In general, if the change of variable is $(x, y) = \mathbf{f}(u, v)$,

$$\begin{array}{cc} \text{rectangle} & \text{parallelogram} \\ du \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, dv \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & \rightarrow du \begin{bmatrix} \partial x / \partial u \\ \partial y / \partial u \end{bmatrix}, dv \begin{bmatrix} \partial x / \partial v \\ \partial y / \partial v \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

and the area changes from $du dv$ to $J(\mathbf{f}) du dv$.