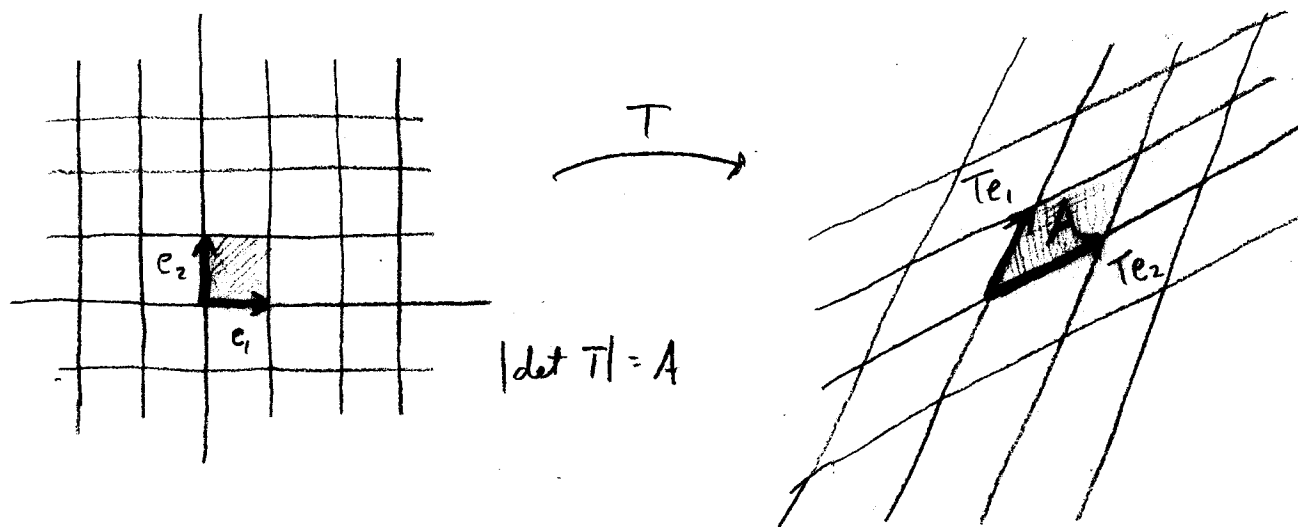


5. Determinant and trace.

The concept of the determinant of a linear map is simple - we will give an unofficial geometric definition as motivation, and then formalize it.

Def: (Unofficial). Let $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear map, and $[0, 1]^n$ the unit n -cube. The determinant of T is the "signed volume" of $T([0, 1]^n)$.



Our unofficial definition has some interesting properties:

- $\det T = 0$ iff T is not invertible
- $\det(TS) = (\det T)(\det S)$
- If T and S differ by swapping two columns, then $\det T = -\det S$.
- $\det T$ is "linear" in each column - i.e., if T is obtained from S by multiplying a column by c , then $\det T = c(\det S)$.

[2]

Permutations:

Def: Let $[n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$. A permutation is a bijection $\pi: [n] \rightarrow [n]$. The set of all permutations of n elements is denoted S_n , and is a group.

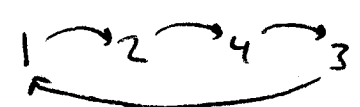
We can describe a permutation by a table, or more concisely, by cycle notation:

Example: $\pi: \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

i	1	2	3	4
$\pi(i)$	2	4	1	3

Table notation:

$$\pi = \frac{1234}{2413}, \quad \pi^2 = \frac{1234}{4321}, \quad \pi^3 = \frac{1234}{3142} = \pi^{-1}, \quad \pi^4 = \frac{1234}{1234}$$

Cycle notation: $\pi = (1\ 2\ 4\ 3)$ meaning 

$$\pi^2 = (1\ 4)(2\ 3), \quad \pi^3 = (1\ 3\ 4\ 2), \quad \pi^4 = (1)(2)(3)(4).$$

By convention, we usually omit length-1 cycles, e.g., $(12)(3) = (12)$.

Def: Let x_1, \dots, x_n be n variables. Their discriminant is defined as $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j)$.

For a permutation $\pi \in S_n$,

$$P(\pi(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = \prod_{i < j} (x_{\pi(i)} - x_{\pi(j)}) = \pm P(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Def: The signature $\text{sgn}(\pi)$ of a permutation $\pi \in S_n$ is defined as $P(\pi(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = \text{sgn}(\pi) P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

Clearly, $\text{sgn}(\pi) = \pm 1$.

Def: A transposition is a permutation $\tau \in S_n$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for some } j \neq k \in [n], \quad & \tau(i) = i \quad i \neq j, k \\ & \tau(j) = k \\ & \tau(k) = j. \end{aligned}$$

Prop: (i) $\text{sgn}(\pi_1 \circ \pi_2) = \text{sgn}(\pi_1) \text{sgn}(\pi_2)$

(ii) $\text{sgn}(\tau) = -1$ for any transposition

(iii) Every permutation $\pi \in S_n$ can be written as a composition of transpositions: $\pi = \tau_k \circ \dots \circ \tau_1$.

(iv) This decomposition is not unique, but the parity of k , the number of transpositions is.

(v) If $\pi = \tau_k \circ \dots \circ \tau_1$, then $\text{sgn}(\pi) = (-1)^k$.

Proof: Exercise.

Multilinear forms

Def: A k-linear form is a function $f: X_1 \oplus \dots \oplus X_k \rightarrow K$

(we'll assume $X_1 = \dots = X_k = X$) that is linear in each coordinate, i.e., upon fixing any $k-1$ arguments, it remains linear in the remaining argument.

(9)

Examples:

- (1) 1-linear forms are just functions
- (2) 2-linear forms are bilinear forms
- (3) A 3-linear form $f: X \oplus X \oplus X \rightarrow K$ has identities such as $f(a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2, y, z) = a_1 f(x_1, y, z) + a_2 f(x_2, y, z)$, and similarly for $f(x, a_1 y_1 + a_2 y_2, z)$, $f(x, y, a_1 z_1 + a_2 z_2)$, etc.

Theorem 5.1: The set of k -linear forms is a vector space of dimension n^k .

Proof: (sketch). Verify that a basis consists of functions

$$\left\{ f_{j_1, \dots, j_k}(x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}) = \delta_{i_1 j_1} \cdots \delta_{i_k j_k} : 1 \leq j_\ell \leq n \right\}. \quad \square$$

For any permutation $\pi \in S_k$, write

$$(\pi f)(x_1, \dots, x_k) = f(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(k)}).$$

Note that for any k -linear form f , πf is also k -linear.

Def: A k -linear form is symmetric if $\pi f = f$, for all $\pi \in S_k$.

Examples: (i) $f(x_1, x_2) = l_1(x_1)l_2(x_2) + l_1(x_2)l_2(x_1)$ for fixed $l_1, l_2 \in X'$.

$$(ii) f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{\pi \in S_k} \pi f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$$

Def: A k -linear form is skew-symmetric if $\tau f = -f$ for every transposition $\tau \in S_k$.

Example: $f(x_1, x_2) = l_1(x_1)l_2(x_2) - l_1(x_2)l_2(x_1)$.

Def: A k -linear form is alternating if $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0$ if $x_i = x_j$ for some $i \neq j$.

Prop: The set of alternating (resp. symmetric, or skew-symmetric) k -linear forms is a subspace.

Proof: Exercise.

Theorem 5.2: Every alternating multilinear form is skew-symmetric.

Proof: Pick $i \neq j$, and define $g(x_i, x_j) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ (i.e., the other entries are fixed). Note that g is bilinear, alternating.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } 0 &= g(x_i + x_j, x_i + x_j) = g(x_i, x_i) + g(x_j, x_j) + g(x_i, x_j) + g(x_j, x_i) \\ &= g(x_i, x_j) + g(x_j, x_i). \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x_i, x_j) = -g(x_j, x_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau f = -f \text{ for } \tau = (i j).$$

□

Remark: The converse "almost" holds.

Suppose $f = -f$. Then $(1+1)f = 0 \Rightarrow f = 0$ or $1+1 = 0$ (e.g., if $K = \mathbb{Z}_2$). Thus, the converse holds for $K \neq \mathbb{Z}_2$.

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Theorem 5.3: IF x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly dependent and f is an alternating k -linear form, then $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = 0$.

Proof: IF $x_i = 0$, the result is trivial.

otherwise, write $x_h = \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} a_i x_i$ for some x_h , and replace

x_h in $f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ by this sum.

Use linearity to break apart $f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ into a sum, each one having some x_j in the h -position, $j \neq h$.

All of these terms are zero, since f is alternating. \square

The converse holds in one important special case: $k=n$.

Theorem 5.4: IF f is a non-zero alternating n -linear form, and x_1, \dots, x_n are linearly independent, then $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq 0$.

Proof: By assumption, x_1, \dots, x_n is a basis for X .

Pick $y_1, \dots, y_n \in X$, and write $y_i = a_{i1}x_1 + \dots + a_{in}x_n$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Now, } f(y_1, \dots, y_n) &= f\left(\sum a_{1j}x_{1j}, \dots, \sum a_{nj}x_{nj}\right) \\
&= \sum_i f(z_{i1}, \dots, z_{in}) \quad z_{ij} \text{ distinct } x_i\text{'s.} \\
&= \sum_{\text{lots of } \pi} f(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)}) \\
&= \sum \text{sgn}(\pi) f(x_1, \dots, x_n).
\end{aligned}$$

IF $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \Rightarrow f(y_1, \dots, y_n) = 0 \Rightarrow f = 0 \quad \square$

Remark: The proof of Theorem 5.4 yields an important corollary:

Theorem 5.5: Any two alternating n -linear forms are linearly dependent.

Proof: Let f, g be alternating n -linear forms, and let x_1, \dots, x_n be a basis of X .

Pick $y_1, \dots, y_n \in X$.

As before, $f(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \sum_{\text{lots}} \text{sgn}(\pi) f(x_{1, \dots, x_n}) = a \in K$.

$g(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \sum_{\text{lots}} \text{sgn}(\pi) g(x_{1, \dots, x_n}) = b = \lambda a \in K$.

Thus, $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \lambda f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. \square

* Thus, the space of alternating n -linear forms is at most, one-dimensional.

Theorem 5.6: The vector space of alternating n -linear forms is one-dimensional.

Proof: It suffices to show that there exists one such form. We'll use induction on $k \in n$.

Base case ($k=1$): Any $l \neq 0$ in X' is a non-trivial 1-linear form.

Now, suppose F is a non-zero alternating k -linear form, for

$k < n$. We will construct a non-zero alternating $(k+1)$ -linear form g .

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Pick y_1, \dots, y_k such that $f(y_1, \dots, y_k) \neq 0$, and find $y_{k+1} \in X$ not in the subspace $Y := \text{span}\{y_1, \dots, y_k\}$.

Pick $l \in Y^\perp$ such that $l(y_{k+1}) \neq 0$, and $l(y_1) = \dots = l(y_k) = 0$.

Define: $g(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}) = -f(x_1, \dots, x_k)l(x_{k+1}) + \sum_{i=1}^k (i-k+1)f(x_1, \dots, x_k)l(x_{k+1})$

[For example, if $k=3$, then

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = f(x_4, x_2, x_3)l(x_1) + f(x_1, x_4, x_3)l(x_2) + f(x_1, x_2, x_4)l(x_3) - f(x_1, x_2, x_3)l(x_4).]$$

It is elementary to prove that this is k -linear. We must show that it is non-zero and alternating.

Non-zero: $g(y_1, \dots, y_k, y_{k+1}) = -f(y_1, \dots, y_k)l(y_{k+1}) \neq 0$ ✓

Alternating: Consider vectors x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1} such that $i < j$ but $x_i = x_j$. It suffices to prove $g(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_{k+1}) = 0$.

Note: x_i and x_j occur in all but two "terms" of g . All other (besides these two) terms vanish.

Case 1: ($j = k+1$):

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}) &= (i-k+1)f(x_1, \dots, x_k)l(x_{k+1}) - f(x_1, \dots, x_k)l(x_{k+1}) \\ &= 0 \quad (\text{because } x_i = x_{k+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: ($j \leq k$):

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}) &= [(i-j)f(x_1, \dots, x_k) - f(x_1, \dots, x_k)]l(x_{k+1}) \\ &= 0 \quad (\text{because } f \text{ is alternating}). \end{aligned}$$

□

Let f be an alternating n -linear form on X , and $T: X \rightarrow X$ a linear map.

Note that $(\bar{T}f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) := f(Tx_1, \dots, Tx_n)$ is alternating and n -linear as well.

* Moreover, \bar{T} is a linear map on the (one-dimensional) space of all such forms. Thus, $\bar{T}: f \mapsto \lambda f$ for some $\lambda \in K$.

Def: This scalar is the determinant of T , denoted $\det T$.

Thus, the determinant satisfies the following:

Universal property: Given a linear map $T: X \rightarrow X$, there exists a unique scalar $\lambda \in K$ such that for every alternating n -linear form f ,

$$f(Tx_1, \dots, Tx_n) = \lambda f(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V^n & \xrightarrow{T \oplus \dots \oplus T} & V^n \\ f \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ K & \xrightarrow{\lambda} & K \end{array}$$

Remark: This definition is not only independent of matrices, but also independent of choice of basis!

Example: If $Tx = cx$, then

$$(\bar{T}f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(cx_1, \dots, cx_n) = c^n f(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Thus, $\det T = c^n$. It follows that $\det 0 = 0$, $\det I = 1$.

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Theorem 5.7: For any two linear maps $A, B: X \rightarrow X$,

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

Proof: Write $C = AB$. For an alternating n -linear form f ,

$$\begin{aligned} (\bar{C}f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= f(ABx_1, \dots, ABx_n) \\ &= (\bar{A}f)(Bx_1, \dots, Bx_n) = (\overline{BA}f)(x_1, \dots, x_n). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\bar{C} = \overline{BA}$. We have $\bar{C}f = (\det C)f$

$$\text{and } \bar{C}f = \overline{BA}f = (\det B)\bar{A}f = (\det B)(\det A)f$$

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

□

Corollary: $A: X \rightarrow X$ is invertible iff $\det A \neq 0$.

Proof: If A is invertible, then $AA^{-1} = I$.

$$1 = \det I = \det(AA^{-1}) = (\det A)(\det A^{-1}). \quad \checkmark$$

Conversely, if $\det A \neq 0$, and x_1, \dots, x_n is a basis of X , and f a non-zero alternating n -linear form on X , then

$$(\det A)f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq 0 \quad (\text{by Theorem 5.4})$$

$\Rightarrow \{Ax_1, \dots, Ax_n\}$ is linearly independent (by Theorem 5.3)

$\Rightarrow A$ is invertible.

□

Determinants and matrices

Let f be a non-zero alternating n -linear form.

Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a basis of X , and, let $A = (a_{ij})$ be the matrix of a linear map $X \rightarrow X$ w.r.t this basis.

Recall that $Ax_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} x_i$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } (\det A) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= f(Ax_1, \dots, Ax_n) \\ &= f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_{i1} x_i, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n a_{in} x_i\right) \end{aligned}$$

Now, expand this by multilinearity, to get a large sum of terms such as $f(z_1, \dots, z_n)$ where each z_i is a distinct x_i (if $z_i = z_j$, then $f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = 0$).

Moreover, every permutation $f(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)}) = \pi f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ appears in this sum.

Remark: The coefficient of $\pi f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is $a_{\pi(1),1} \dots a_{\pi(n),n}$.

Since f is skew-symmetric, we have

$$\det A = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} (\text{sgn } \pi) a_{\pi(1),1} \dots a_{\pi(n),n}. \quad (*)$$

Also note that if $\pi, \sigma \in S_n$, then $a_{\pi(1),1} \dots a_{\pi(n),n}$ and $a_{\pi\sigma(1),\sigma(1)} \dots a_{\pi\sigma(n),\sigma(n)}$ differ in the order of the factors only.

(12)

Let's apply this with $\sigma = \pi^{-1}$. (Note: $\text{sgn}(\pi) = \text{sgn}(\pi^{-1})$)

$$\det A = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} (\text{sgn } \pi) a_{\pi(1),1} \cdots a_{\pi(n),n} = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} (\text{sgn } \pi) a_{1,\pi(1)} \cdots a_{n,\pi(n)} = \det A^T.$$

* In summary, the determinant of A can be thought of as an n -linear function of its column vectors, or of its row vectors. In fact it is the unique "normalized" alternating n -linear form, in that $f(e_1, \dots, e_n) = 1$. ($\det I = 1$).

Lemma 5.8: Let $A = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$ be a matrix (c_i is a column vector) and let B be the matrix obtained from A by adding k times the i th column of A to the j th column, $i \neq j$. Then $\det A = \det B$.

Proof: Exercise.

Lemma 5.9: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix whose first column is e_1 :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & x & x \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & A_{11} & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}$$
Then $\det A = \det A_{11}$

Proof: By lemma 5.8, $\det A = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & A_{11} & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}$.

Define $f(A_{11}) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}$, a function of an $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix A_{11} .

Clearly, f is an alternating n -linear form with $f(I)=1$, so it must be the determinant function. □

Corollary 5.10: Let A be a matrix whose j^{th} column is e_j .

Then $\det A = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}$, where A_{ij} is the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained by striking out the i^{th} row and j^{th} column of A (called the $(ij)^{th}$ minor of A).

Proof: Exercise.

Theorem 5.11: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix, and $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Then $\det A = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} (\det A_{ij})$. (The "Laplace expansion".)

Proof: To simplify notation, take $j=1$.

Write $a_1 = a_{11}e_1 + \dots + a_{n1}e_n$, where $A = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{By multilinearity, } \det A &= f(a_1, \dots, a_n) \\ &= f(a_{11}e_1 + \dots + a_{n1}e_n, a_2, \dots, a_n) \\ &= a_{11}f(e_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + \dots + a_{n1}f(e_n, a_2, \dots, a_n) \end{aligned}$$

Now apply Corollary 5.10. □

Applications: Systems of equations.

Consider a system $Ax = u$, A is invertible and $x = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j e_j$,
 $A = (a_1, \dots, a_n) = (Ae_1, \dots, Ae_n)$.

(14)

Thus, our system can be written as $\sum_{j=1}^n x_j a_j = u$.

Let $A_k = (a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, u, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n)$ for each k .

$$= (a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, \sum_{j=1}^n x_j a_j, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n).$$

By multilinearity, $\det A_k = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \det(a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, a_j, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n)$

$$= x_k \det(a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, a_k, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n)$$

$$= x_k \det A.$$

Since A is invertible, $\det A \neq 0 \Rightarrow x_k = \frac{\det A_k}{\det A}$.

Now apply the Laplace Expansion (Thm 5.11) to A_k :

$$\det A_k = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} \det A_{ik} u_i.$$

$$\Rightarrow x_k = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} \frac{\det A_{ik}}{\det A} u_i. \quad \text{This is "Cramer's rule."}$$

Theorem 5.12: If A is invertible, then its inverse A^{-1}

has the form $(A^{-1})_{ki} = (-1)^{i+k} \frac{\det A_{ik}}{\det A}$.

Proof: Consider a system $AX = u \Rightarrow X = A^{-1}u$. By Cramer's

rule: $\sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} \frac{\det A_{ik}}{\det A} u_i = x_k = (A^{-1}u)_k = \sum_{i=1}^n (A^{-1})_{ki} u_i.$

□

Note: This formula isn't "practical" for computing inverses.

Def: The trace of an $n \times n$ matrix is $\text{tr } A = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$.

Theorem 5.13:

(a) Trace is linear: $\text{tr}(kA) = k(\text{tr } A)$.

$$\text{tr}(A+B) = \text{tr } A + \text{tr } B.$$

(b) Trace is "commutative": $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$

Proof: (a) is obvious.

$$\text{For (b): } (AB)_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{ki} \quad \text{and} \quad (BA)_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^n b_{ik} a_{ki}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \text{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i,k} a_{ik} b_{ki} = \sum_{i,k} b_{ik} a_{ki} = \text{tr}(BA). \quad \square$$

Theorem 5.14: Similar matrices have the same determinant and trace.

Proof: Suppose that $A = SBS^{-1}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= \det(SBS^{-1}) = (\det S)(\det B)(\det S^{-1}) = (\det B)(\det S)(\det S^{-1}) \\ &= (\det B) \det(SS^{-1}) = \det B. \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{tr } A = \text{tr}(SBS^{-1}) = \text{tr}(S^{-1}SB) = \text{tr } B. \quad \checkmark \quad \square$$

Since similar matrices represent the same linear map but with a different choice of basis, it is well-founded to speak of the determinant and trace as functions of linear maps, not just matrices.