

## Lecture 20

Convention:

For any integer  $n$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n$  will denote the set  $M_{n \times 1}(\mathbb{R})$ .

We will also call this the set of column vectors with  $n$  entries.

(Elements of  $M_{1 \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  are called row vectors with  $n$  entries).

$\mathbb{R}^n$  is our prototypical example  
of something called a vector  
space.

Recall that the set  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has  
a binary operation called  
addition under which it is  
an abelian group.

$\mathbb{R}^n$  also has an operation called scalar multiplication which is a

function

$$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(\alpha, \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \alpha x_1 \\ \alpha x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

(This is not a binary operation  
on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .)

# Vector space

A (real) vector space, or a  
vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  is a

triple  $(V, +, \cdot)$  where

-  $V$  is a set

-  $+$  is a binary operation  
on  $V$

-  $\cdot$  is a function

$\mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$ , such that

(a)  $V$  is an abelian group under  $+$ .

(b)  $1 \cdot v = v \quad \forall v \in V.$

(c)  $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot v = \alpha v + \beta v$   
 $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{and} \quad \forall v \in V$

(d)  $\alpha \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = \alpha \cdot v_1 + \alpha \cdot v_2$   
 $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{and} \quad \forall v_1, v_2 \in V.$

## Convention

If the operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are known or implicitly understood, we may refer to "the vector space  $V$ " instead of writing the triple  $(V, +, \cdot)$ .

Remark: We may replace  $\mathbb{R}$  by  $\mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{Q}$  to define vector spaces over  $\mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{Q}$  respectively.

More generally, we can define vector spaces over any "field". (Fields are sets with two binary operations + and  $\times$  satisfying certain properties.)

When we study groups, we study functions  $G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  between groups which "respect the binary operation."

When we study vector spaces, we study functions  $V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  which "respect" addition and scalar multiplication.

# Linear transformation

Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be vector spaces. A linear map or a linear transformation is a function  $\varphi: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  such that the following two conditions hold:

- (I)  $\varphi$  is a group homomorphism with respect to addition.

$$(2) \quad \varphi(\alpha \cdot v) = \alpha \cdot \varphi(v)$$

for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $v \in V$ .

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### Example

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

Then, the function  $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

defined by  $\varphi(v) = A \cdot v$

is a linear transformation.

We will come back to linear transformations later...

Today we will use the concept of "linearity" of a function as we study determinants.

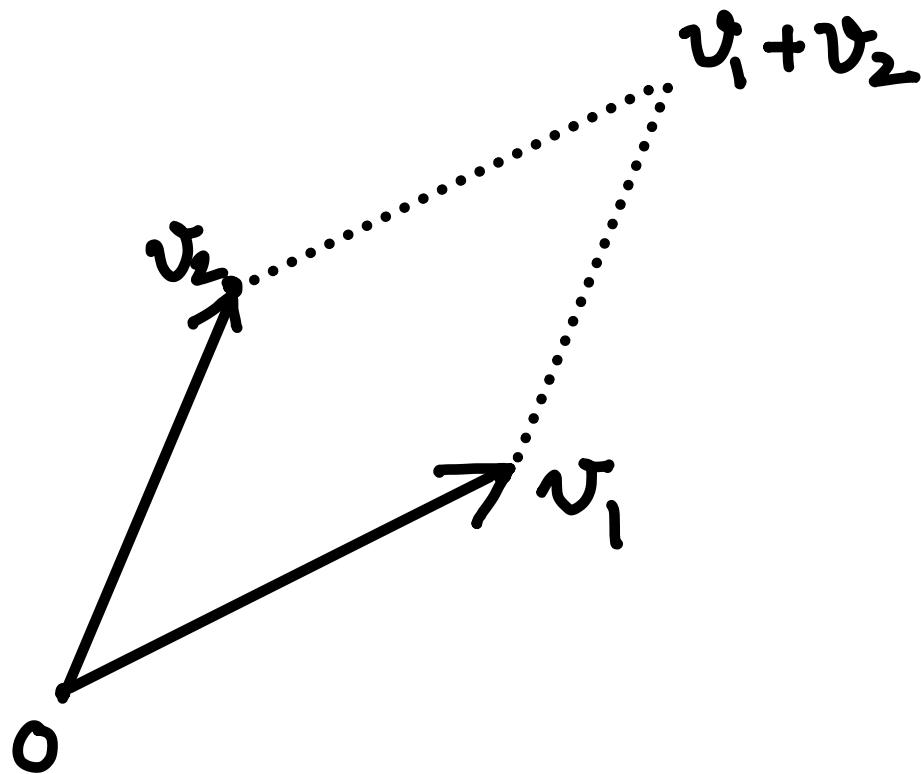
An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be viewed as an ordered collection of  $n$  column vectors (an "n-tuple" of column vectors).

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

For example, when  $n=2$ , a  $2\times 2$  matrix gives us a pair of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , which we visualize as a plane.

A vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is just a point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , but we represent it as an arrow from  $0$  to the point.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Consider the parallelogram with vertices  $0, v_1, v_2$  and  $v_1 + v_2$ .

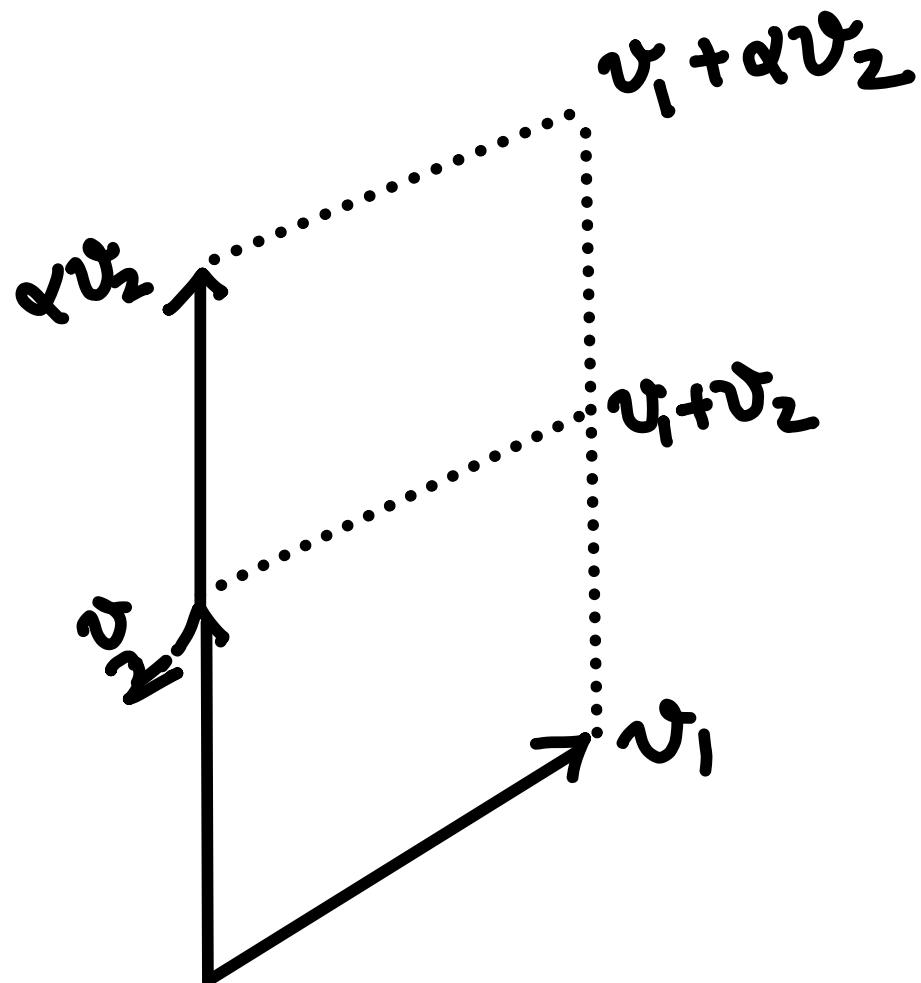
Area of parallelogram  
= (length of a side) ×  
(distance from that side  
to the opposite side).

Let us define a function

Area :  $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

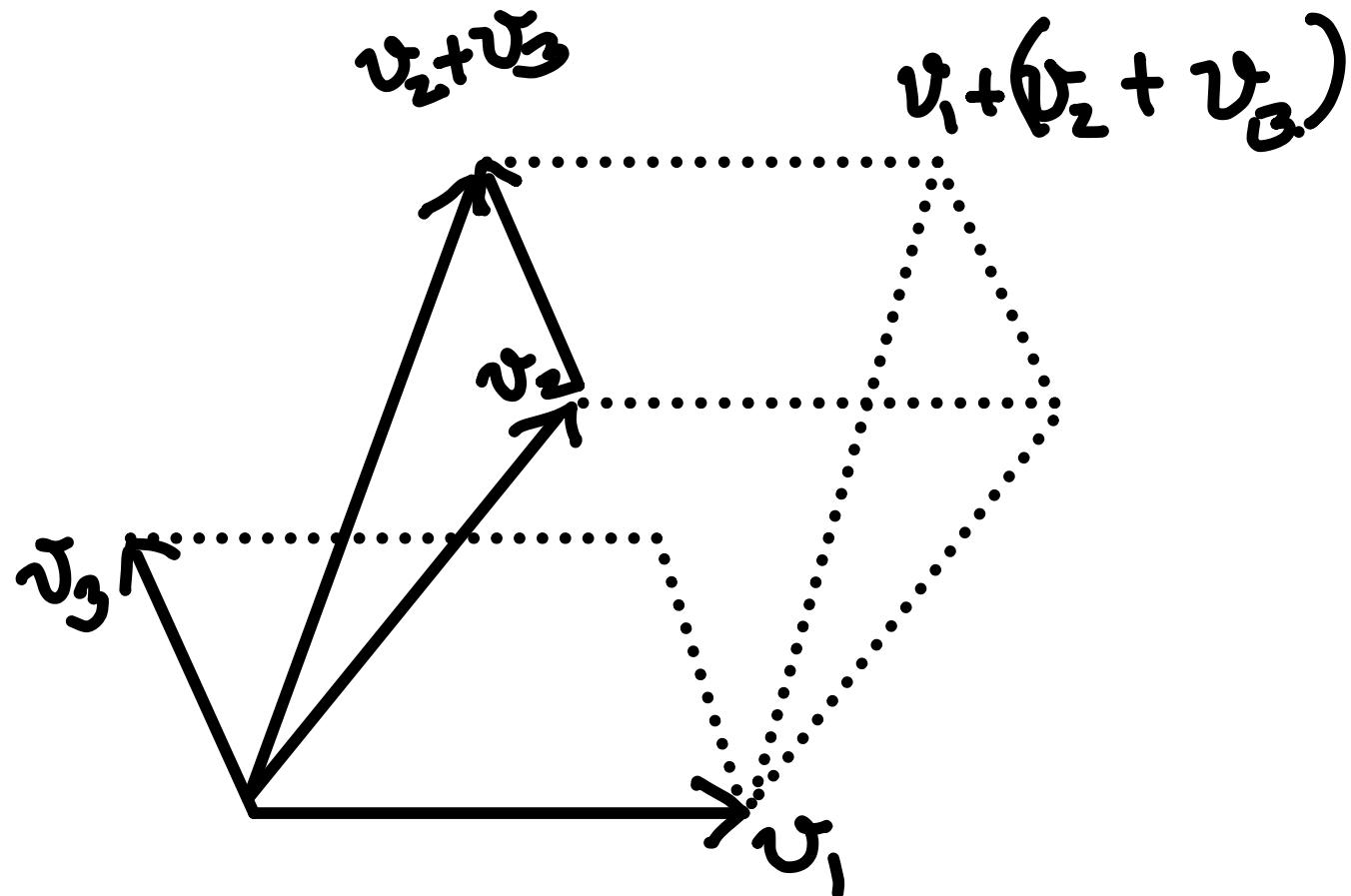
$A = [v_1, v_2] \mapsto$  area of parallelogram  
with vertices  $0, v_1,$   
 $v_2$  and  $v_1 + v_2.$

This function seems to be "linear" in the variables  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ .



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area}(v_1, \alpha v_2) \\ = \alpha \cdot \text{Area}(v_1, v_2). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Area}(v_1, v_2 + v_3) = \text{Area}(v_1, v_2) + \text{Area}(v_1, v_3).$$

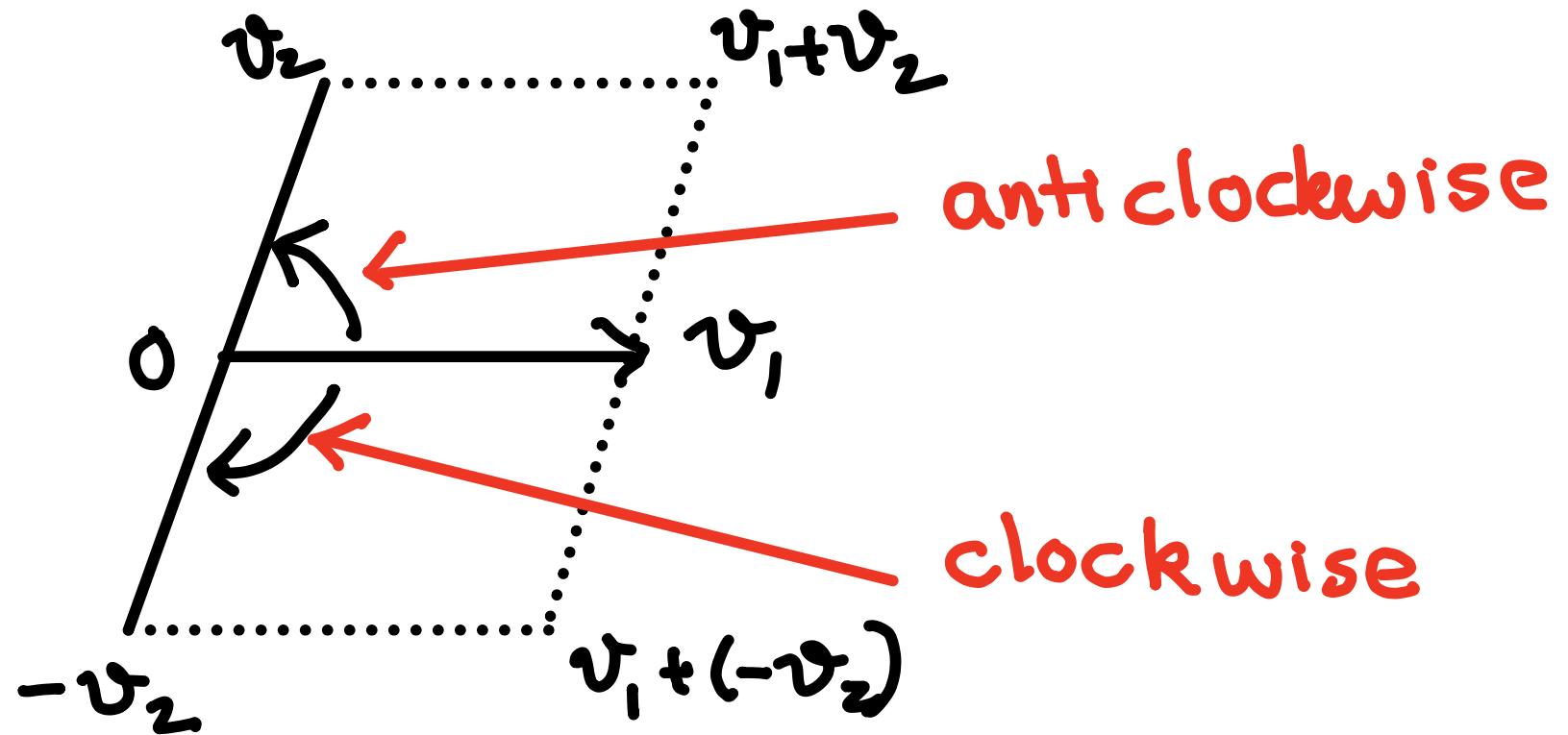


However, for area to be genuinely linear in each variable, it cannot always be a positive number.

Area will have a "sign".

In other words, some pairs of vectors  $v_1, v_2$  will enclose parallelograms with negative area.

In fact, for linearity, we  
need  $\text{Area}(v_1, -v_2) = -\text{Area}(v_1, v_2)$



Also, for any  $v$  we should have  $\text{Area}(v, v) = 0$

(The "parallelogram" with vertices  $0, v, v$  and  $v+v$  is "flat".)

So for any vectors  $v$  and  $w$ , we have

$$\text{Area}(v+w, v+w) = 0.$$

But

$$\text{Area}(v+w, v+w)$$

$$= \text{Area}(v, v+w) + \text{Area}(w, v+w)$$

$$= \text{Area}(v, v) + \text{Area}(v, w)$$

$$+ \text{Area}(w, v) + \text{Area}(w, w).$$

$$\text{Area}(v, v) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Area}(w, w) = 0$$

$$\text{So } \text{Area}(v, w) = -\text{Area}(w, v).$$

So, a "good" area function  
should satisfy:

$$(1) \text{Area}(v_1 + v_2, w) = \text{Area}(v_1, w) + \text{Area}(v_2, w)$$

$$(2) \text{Area}(v, w_1 + w_2) = \text{Area}(v, w_1) + \text{Area}(v, w_2)$$

$$(3) \text{Area}(\alpha v, w) = \alpha \text{Area}(v, w)$$

$$\text{Area}(v, \alpha w) = \alpha \text{Area}(v, w)$$

$$(4) \text{Area}(v, w) = -\text{Area}(w, v).$$

Similar arguments hold in higher dimensions.

Given an  $n \times n$  matrix, we view it as an  $n$ -tuple of column vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ .

These vectors enclose an " $n$ -dimensional box" with vertices  $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n$  where  $a_i = 0$  or  $1$ .

We want a "volume" function

$$\text{Vol}_n : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n] \mapsto \text{Vol}_n(v_1, \dots, v_n).$$

This function should be  
linear in each variable.

If two vectors  $v_i, v_j$  interchange positions, the volume should change sign.

## Unit of measurement

An  $n$ -dimensional cube with each side equal to 1 has volume 1.

So if  $e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  (1 in row  $i$  and 0 in other rows).

then  $\text{Vol}_n(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n) = 1$ .

So, does such a function exist?

Yes.

We will assume that it exists and derive a formula.  
(we should then check if the formula has the required properties. — omitted for this course.)

This volume function is called the determinant.

For any  $n$ , we have the function  $\det : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Let us assume that this is a function with all the properties we listed and try to get a formula.

$n = 2$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{11}a_{12} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_{12}a_{21} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = a_{21}a_{22} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\text{So } \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(only matrices with one entry in each row and column survive)

$$= a_{11}a_{22} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + a_{12}a_{21} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

But we want  $\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1$

$$\text{So } \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = - \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = -1$$

$$\text{So } \det A = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}.$$

(You can easily check this has all required properties.)

Similarly

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ a_{11} a_{23} a_{32} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ a_{12} a_{23} a_{31} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ a_{12} a_{21} a_{33} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ a_{13} a_{21} a_{32} \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ a_{13} a_{22} a_{31} \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let us understand each term.

Pick a permutation  $\sigma$  of  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ .

For example:  $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Take terms of the form  $a_{i\sigma(i)}$

So:  $a_{12}$ ,  $a_{23}$  and  $a_{31}$ .

Use  $\sigma$  to permute columns of  $I_3$ :  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Term in  $\det A$  :  $a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

A matrix obtained by permuting the columns of  $I_n$  is called a permutation matrix.

How do we calculate the determinant of a permutation matrix?

## Easy observation

Any permutation can be written as a product of 2-cycles (also called transposition).

To see this, write any permutation as a product of cycles. Given a cycle  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r)$  we see that

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r) = (a_1, a_r) \dots - (a_1, a_2)(a_1, a_2)$$

So, we start with  $I_n$  and switch columns two at a time. Each such switch contributes a minus sign.

So, if total transpositions used is  $k$ , the determinant is  $(-1)^k$ .

We say that  $(-1)^k$  is the sign of  $\sigma$  (denoted  $\text{sgn}(\sigma)$ )

For example.  $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\sigma = (1, 3)(1, 2)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1, 2) \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det = 1$$

$$\det = -1$$

$$(1, 3) \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det = 1$$

$$\text{So } \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) = 1.$$

So, we see that given an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = (a_{i,j})_{i,j}$

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (\text{sgn}(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)})$$

(We have skipped a lot of proofs! But... that's okay.)