

### Summary of 5.1:

All that follows here generally works for coefficients in any commutative ring  $R$  with 1. But it's good enough to think of the real numbers  $R = \mathbb{R}$  or perhaps the complex numbers  $R = \mathbb{C}$ .

### Summary of 5.2 and 5.3:

Consider a function  $D$  that assigns to every  $n \times n$  matrix  $A \in R^{n \times n}$  a number  $D(A) \in R$ . Let  $\alpha_i = [A_{i1} \cdots A_{in}]$  be the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $A$ . We can view  $D(A) = D(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ .  $D$  is called *n-linear* if  $D(A)$  is a linear function of the row  $\alpha_i$  when keeping all the other rows fixed, whatever the position  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

The  $n$ -linear function  $D$  is *alternating* or *skew symmetric* if  $D(A) = 0$  for any  $A$  with two equal rows. This implies that  $D(A') = -D(A)$  whenever  $A'$  is obtained from  $A$  by switching two rows. Why? Let  $\alpha, \beta$  be two different rows of  $A$  and call  $d(\alpha, \beta) = D(A)$ . Now by  $n$ -linearity, clearly

$$0 = d(\alpha + \beta, \alpha + \beta) = d(\alpha, \alpha + \beta) + d(\beta, \alpha + \beta) = d(\alpha, \alpha) + d(\alpha, \beta) + d(\beta, \alpha) + d(\beta, \beta) = d(\alpha, \beta) + d(\beta, \alpha).$$

Thus  $d(\beta, \alpha) = -d(\alpha, \beta)$ . The converse holds as well, certainly for real or complex matrix entries: Since  $d(\alpha, \alpha) = -d(\alpha, \alpha)$  it follows that  $2d(\alpha, \alpha) = 0$ , which implies  $d(\alpha, \alpha) = 0$  (unless  $1+1 = 2 = 0$ , or  $d(\alpha, \alpha) = u \neq 0$ , but  $2u = 0$ , which can happen in certain rings  $R$ ).

**Uniqueness:** An alternating  $n$ -linear function  $D$  is completely determined by its value  $D(I) = D(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n)$ , where  $\varepsilon_j = (\delta_{1j}, \dots, \delta_{nj})$  is the standard unit row [vector] so that  $\alpha_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} \varepsilon_j$ . Then  $D(A) = D(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = D(\sum_{j_1=1}^n A_{1j_1} \varepsilon_{j_1}, \dots, \sum_{j_n=1}^n A_{nj_n} \varepsilon_{j_n}) = \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_n=1}^n A_{1j_1} \cdots A_{nj_n} D(\varepsilon_{j_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{j_n})$ , using  $n$ -linearity. Here the  $n$  indices  $j_1, \dots, j_n$  run independently from 1 to  $n$ . We can consider  $j$  as a function from the set of integers  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  into itself, with values  $j(k) = j_k$ . Note that  $D(\varepsilon_{j_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{j_n}) = 0$  whenever two indices are the same, as  $D$  is alternating. Therefore the original sum of  $n^n$  terms reduces to a sum taken over only the  $n!$  permutations  $j$  of the numbers  $1, \dots, n$ , i.e.  $j$  is one-to-one and then also onto. Let us denote the set of all these permutations by  $S_n$  [the *symmetric group of  $n$  letters*]. We now have

$$(1) \quad D(A) = D(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \sum_{j \in S_n} A_{1j_1} \cdots A_{nj_n} D(\varepsilon_{j_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{j_n}).$$

A *switch* is a permutation that interchanges two different numbers. Any permutation can be obtained as a sequence (composition) of switches, in many ways. Why? It follows that  $D(\varepsilon_{j_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{j_n}) = \pm D(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n)$ , and  $D(I)$  determines  $D(A)$  uniquely.

**Existence:** For any  $c \in R$  there exists an  $n$ -linear alternating function  $D_c$  with  $D_c(I) = c$ , and  $D_c$  is unique by the above. For  $c = 1$ , we call  $D_1(A) = \det A$ , the *determinant* of  $A$ .

*Proof:* It suffices to construct  $D_1(A) = \det A$ . Then set  $D_c(A) = c \cdot \det(A)$ .

Construct  $\det A$  recursively via *Laplace Expansion* with respect to column  $j$ . For  $n = 1$  we set  $\det A = A_{11}$ . Suppose an alternating  $(n-1)$ -linear function  $\det$  has been constructed for  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrices such that  $\det I_{n-1} = 1$ . For an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  and  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$  consider the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix  $\hat{A}_{ij} = "A(i|j)"$  obtained from  $A$  by deleting row  $i$  and column  $j$ . We define for a fixed number  $1 \leq j \leq n$ ,

$$(2) \quad \det A = \det_j A = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} A_{ij} \det \hat{A}_{ij}.$$

The above uniqueness result shows that  $\det_j(A)$  is independent of the row  $j$ . In order to prove (2) we need to verify:

- (a)  $\det_j(A)$  is linear in each row of  $A$ .
- (b)  $\det_j$  is alternating,
- (c)  $\det_j I_n = 1$ .

To verify (a), suppose some row  $\alpha_{i_0}$  is the sum of rows  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Then each term of the sum in (2) is additive in  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . For  $i \neq i_0$ , this follows since  $\det \hat{A}_{ij}$  is additive by induction assumption, and for  $i = i_0$ , the entry  $A_{i_0j}$  is of course additive, while the determinant factor does not involve the row  $\alpha_{i_0}$ . Similarly, a scalar factor of row  $\alpha_{i_0}$  can be taken out of each summand in (2).

If we have two equal rows  $\alpha_{i_1} = \alpha_{i_2} = \alpha$  for  $i_1 < i_2$  then all terms in (2) with  $i \neq i_1$  and  $i \neq i_2$  vanish by induction, since  $\hat{A}_{ij}$  has two equal rows. The remaining two summands have opposite sign and cancel each other out. Why? Note that the matrix  $\hat{A}_{i_2j}$  differs from  $\hat{A}_{i_1j}$  only in the position of the row  $\hat{\alpha}$  which remains when deleting  $A_{i_1j} = A_{i_2j}$  from  $\alpha$ . The first position is  $i_1$ , the second  $i_2 - 1$  (since we lost  $i_1$ ). As it takes  $(i_2 - 1) - i_1$  successive neighbor switches to move  $\alpha$  from one position into the other, we have  $\det \hat{A}_{i_2j} = (-1)^{(i_2-1)-i_1} \det \hat{A}_{i_1j}$ . Thus the sign for the  $i_1$ -term is  $(-1)^{i_1+j}$  and for the  $i_2$ -term  $(-1)^{i_2+j} \cdot (-1)^{(i_2-1)-i_1}$ , which are clearly opposite. This proves (b).

Finally, (c) follows immediately by induction as the only non-zero term in (2) is  $(-1)^{j+j} A_{jj} \det \hat{A}_{jj}$ . But  $A_{jj} = 1$  and  $\det \hat{A}_{jj} = \det I_{n-1} = 1$  for  $A = I_n$ .

**The Product Formula:** If  $A, B$  are  $n \times n$ -matrices then

$$(3) \quad \det AB = \det A \cdot \det B .$$

*Proof:* Fix  $B$  and consider the function  $D(A) = \det AB$ . Clearly,  $D(A) = \det(\alpha_1 B, \dots, \alpha_n B)$  is  $n$ -linear and alternating. Therefore, by the above uniqueness and existence results,  $D(A) = \det A \cdot D(I)$ . Since  $D(I) = \det B$ , we are done.