

## Determinants

Determinants measure **volume** in  $N$ -dimensional space.

### Volumes of Boxes

**In one dimension:**

Let  $\mathbb{I}^1$  denote the **unit interval** in  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\mathbb{I}^1 = \{x ; 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$$

The *length* of  $\mathbb{I}^1$  is 1.

If  $\mathbb{L} = \{x ; 0 \leq x \leq b\}$  is any closed interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\text{length}[\mathbb{L}] = b$ .

**In two dimensions:**

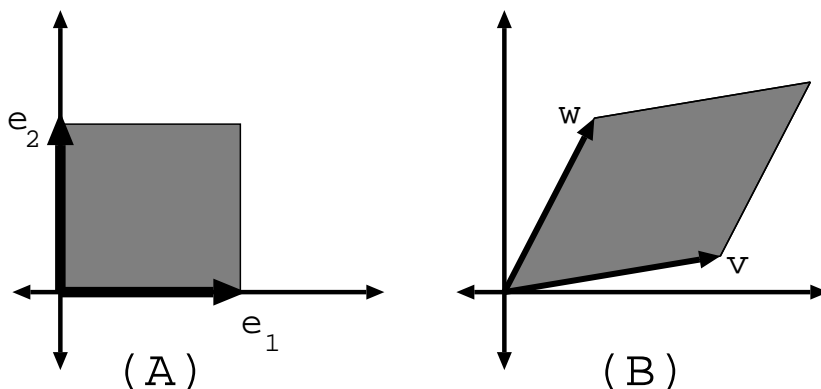


Figure 1: Parallelogram in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

Let  $\mathbb{I}^2$  be the **unit box** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ :

$$\mathbb{I}^N = \{(x_1, x_2) ; 0 \leq x_1, x_2 \leq 1\}$$

$\mathbb{I}^2$  has one corner at 0, and 2 edges extend from 0, along the vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1)$ . We say  $\mathbb{I}^2$  is the **parallelogram spanned by**  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ . (see **Part (A)** of Figure 1)

$\mathbb{I}^2$  has an *area* of 1.

Suppose we “flip” the two edges of  $\mathbb{I}^3$ ; metaphorically speaking, we now have the parallelogram “spanned by”  $\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1\}$ ; one with opposite “orientation”. To reflect the reversal of orientation, we say this new parallelepiped has “oriented area” of “-1”.

Suppose  $\mathbb{P}$  is a **parallelogram** on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , with one corner at zero, and edges along the vectors  $(v_1, v_2)$  and  $(w_1, w_2)$  (see **Part (B)** of Figure 1 on the page before) Then the **oriented area** of  $\mathbb{P}$  is given by the formula:

$$\mathbf{Area}^\pm[\mathbb{P}] = v_1 w_2 - v_2 w_1$$

The **(unsigned) area** of  $\mathbb{P}$  is therefore:

$$\mathbf{Area}[\mathbb{P}] = \left| v_1 w_2 - v_2 w_1 \right|$$

(check this).

**In three dimensions:**

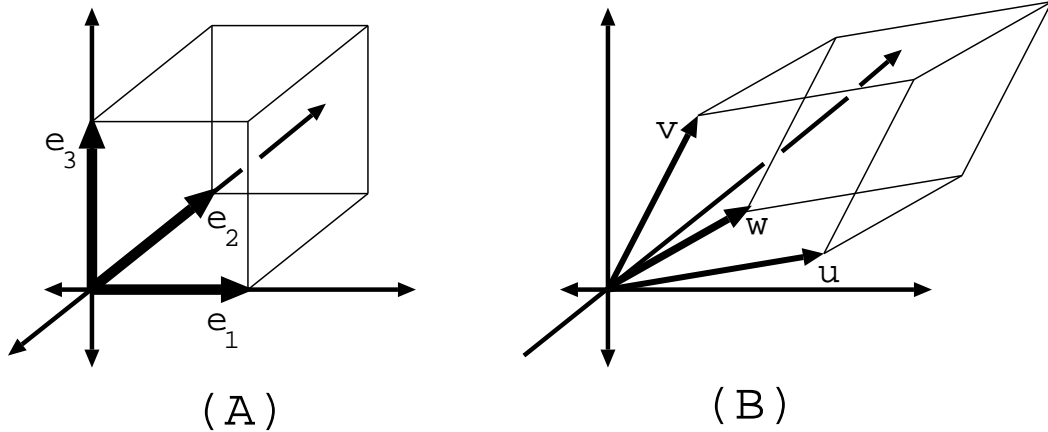


Figure 2: Parallelepipeds in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

Let  $\mathbb{I}^3$  be the **unit box** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ :

$$\mathbb{I}^3 = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) ; 0 \leq x_1, x_2, x_3 \leq 1\}$$

$\mathbb{I}^3$  has one corner at 0, and 3 edges extend from 0, along the vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{e}_3 = (0, 0, 1)$ . We say  $\mathbb{I}^3$  is the **parallelepiped spanned by  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$** . (see **Part (A)** of Figure 2)

$\mathbb{I}^3$  has a *volume* of 1.

Suppose we “flip” dimensions 1 and 2 of  $\mathbb{I}^3$ ; metaphorically speaking, we now have the parallelepiped “spanned by”  $\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ ; one with opposite “orientation”. To reflect the reversal of orientation, we say this new parallelepiped has an “oriented volume” of “ $-1$ ”.

**Question:** If  $\mathbb{P}$  is a **parallelepiped** in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , with one corner at zero, spanned by the vectors  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$ ,  $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$  and  $(w_1, w_2, w_3)$ , what is the (oriented) **volume** of  $\mathbb{P}$ ? (see **Part (B)** of Figure 2 on the preceding page)

**In  $N$  dimensions:**

Let  $\mathbb{I}^N$  be the **unit box** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ :

$$\mathbb{I}^N = \{(x_1, \dots, x_N) ; 0 \leq x_1, \dots, x_N \leq 1\}$$

$\mathbb{I}^N$  has one “corner” at 0, and  $N$  “edges”, all of length 1, come out of this corner, extending in the directions of the “standard basis” vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_N$ .

Intuitively, we might say that this box has an  **$N$ -dimensional volume** of 1.

**Question:** If  $\mathbb{P}$  is a “**hyperparallelepiped**” in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , with one corner at zero, and edges along the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_N$ , what is the **volume** of  $\mathbb{P}$ ?

## Determinants of Matrices

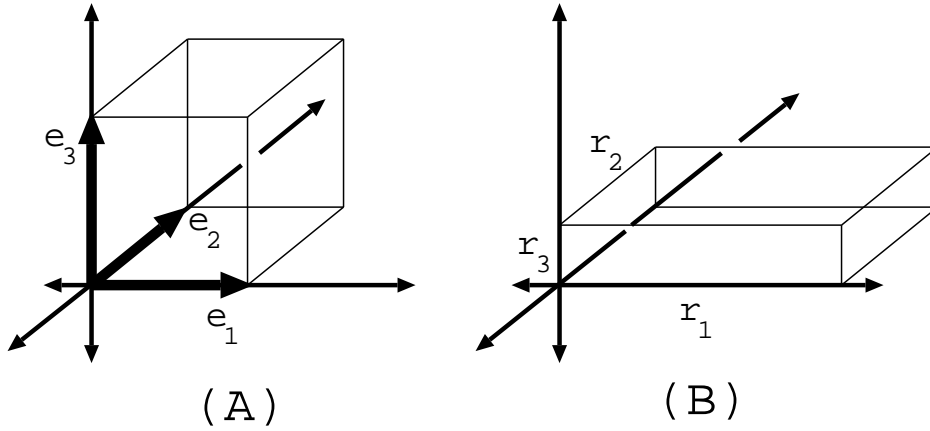
The way to compute the oriented volume of an  $N$ -dimensional parallelepiped is with **determinants**.

**Definition 1:** *Determinant of a Matrix*

Let  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$ . The **determinant** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the **oriented volume** of the  $N$ -dimensional parallelepiped  $\mathbb{P}$ , having one corner at zero, and edges along the vectors  $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_N\}$ . The determinant is therefore a *real number*, denoted  $\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ .

**Examples 2:**

- If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = [a]$  is a  $1 \times 1$  matrix, then  $\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = a$ .

Figure 3: Boxes in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

- If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$  is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix, then

$$\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = a_{11} \cdot a_{22} - a_{21} \cdot a_{12}.$$

- $\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1$ , because this is just the volume of a  $1 \times 1 \times 1 \times \dots \times 1$  **cube** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . (see **Part (A)** of Figure 3)

- $\det \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & r_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & r_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & r_N \end{bmatrix} = r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot r_N$ , because this is just the volume of a  $r_1 \times r_2 \times r_3 \times \dots \times r_N$  **box** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . (see **Part (B)** of Figure 3)

### Properties of Determinants

We can immediately deduce that  $\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  must have certain properties.

$$\text{Let } \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}.$$

- If  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & r \cdot \mathbf{a}_k & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} = r \cdot \det [\mathbf{A}]$$

because multiplying  $\mathbf{a}_k$  by  $r$  simply corresponds to multiplying the “thickness” in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}_k$  of the parallelepiped by a factor of  $r$ .

- Thus,  $\det [r \cdot \mathbf{A}] = r^N \det [\mathbf{A}]$ .
- If we *switch* two adjacent columns, we *reverse* the orientation of the parallelepiped, and therefore, we **negate** the sign:

$$\begin{aligned} & \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_j & \dots & \mathbf{a}_k & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -1 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow & \rightsquigarrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_k & \dots & \mathbf{a}_j & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow & \leftarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- If two distinct columns of  $[\mathbf{A}]$  are the **same**, then the corresponding parallelepiped is “flat” in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , only occupying an  $(N - 1)$ -dimensional space. Thus,  $\det [\mathbf{A}] = 0$ .
- Also, if any columns of  $[\mathbf{A}]$  is **zero**, then the corresponding parallelepiped again only occupies  $(N - 1)$  dimensions, so,  $\det [\mathbf{A}] = 0$ .

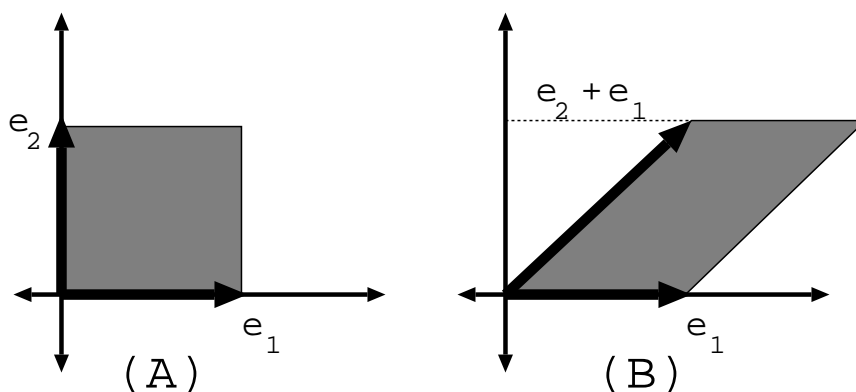


Figure 4: Adding  $\mathbf{e}_1$  to  $\mathbf{e}_2$  doesn't change the area of the parallelogram

- If we **add** a multiple of one column to another, then the determinant is unchanged: for any  $k$  and  $j$ , and any real number  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & (\mathbf{a}_j + r \cdot \mathbf{a}_k) & \dots & \mathbf{a}_k & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \\ = \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_j & \dots & \mathbf{a}_k & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

(This is easiest to see in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ : Imagine beginning with the unit square, and adding  $\mathbf{e}_1$  to  $\mathbf{e}_2$ . See Figure ?? on page ?. Convince yourself that the resulting parallelogram has the same area as the square you started with).

- If  $\mathbf{b}$  is **linearly independent** of  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{j-1}, \mathbf{a}_{j+1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_N$ , then

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}_j & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \\ = \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_{j-1} & \mathbf{a}_j & \mathbf{a}_{j+1} & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} + \\ \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_{j-1} & \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{a}_{j+1} & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

### Column Reduction Algorithm For Computing Determinants

This suggests the following algorithm for computing the determinant of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ : *column-reduce*  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  to **echelon form**, and keep track of the **column operations** you perform, and their effect on the determinant.

Suppose that we column-reduce  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  via the sequence:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \boxed{A_0} \rightarrow \boxed{A_1} \rightarrow \boxed{A_2} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \boxed{A_M} = \boxed{\mathbf{E}}$$

where  $\boxed{\mathbf{E}}$  is the echelon form. Then

$$\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = c_1 \cdot c_2 \cdot \dots \cdot c_M \cdot \det \boxed{\mathbf{E}},$$

where:

- If  $\boxed{A_{j-1}} \rightarrow \boxed{A_j}$  involves *exchanging* two columns, then  $c_j = -1$ .

- If  $\boxed{A_{j-1}} \rightarrow \boxed{A_j}$  involves *adding* a multiple of one column to another, then  $c_j = 1$ .
- If  $\boxed{A_{j-1}} \rightarrow \boxed{A_j}$  involves *multiplying* a column by a constant  $r$ , then  $c_j = \frac{1}{r}$ .

If  $\boxed{E}$  is *not* the identity matrix, then it *must* have a zero column. Thus,  $\det \boxed{E} = 0$ , and thus,  $\det \boxed{A} = 0$ .

Otherwise,  $\boxed{E}$  is the identity matrix. Thus,  $\det \boxed{E} = 1$ , and thus,  $\det \boxed{A} = c_1 \cdot \dots \cdot c_M$ .

**Example 3:** Let  $\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then  $\boxed{A}$  has column-reduction:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-C_2 \leftrightarrow C_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_1 = 1) \\
 \xrightarrow{-2C_1 \leftrightarrow C_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_2 = 1) \\
 \xrightarrow{-4C_1 \leftrightarrow C_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_3 = 1) \\
 \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} -C_2 \leftrightarrow C_1 \\ C_2 \leftrightarrow C_3 \end{array}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_4 = 1) \\
 \xrightarrow{\frac{-1}{7} \times C_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_5 = -7) \\
 \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} -3C_3 \leftrightarrow C_1 \\ 2C_3 \leftrightarrow C_2 \end{array}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (c_6 = 1)
 \end{array}$$

Thus,  $\det \boxed{A} = -7$ .

**Example 4:** *Upper Triangular Matrices*

Suppose  $\boxed{A}$  is an **upper triangular matrix**:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & * & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & a_2 & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 & * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_N \end{bmatrix}$$

then  $\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = a_1 \cdot a_2 \dots a_N$ .

**Remark 5:** *Second Definition of Determinant*

The previous algorithm shows that the determinant is in fact *uniquely defined* as the function  $f : \mathcal{M}_{N \times N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying the following five **axioms**:

1. If  $\boxed{\mathbf{B}}$  is obtained from  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  by **adding** a multiple of one column to another, then  $f(\boxed{\mathbf{B}}) = f(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$ .
2. If  $\boxed{\mathbf{B}}$  is obtained from  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  by **multiplying** a column by  $r$ , then  $f(\boxed{\mathbf{B}}) = r \cdot f(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$ .
3. If  $\boxed{\mathbf{B}}$  is obtained from  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  by **switching** two columns, then  $f(\boxed{\mathbf{B}}) = -f(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$ .
4. If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  has a **zero column**, then  $f(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) = 0$

$$5. f \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1.$$

If  $f$  is any function satisfying these five axioms, then we can use the previous algorithm to compute  $f$ ..... and we will end up with the determinant! Hence,  $f$  must *be* the determinant.

Sometimes the determinant is *defined* as the function satisfying these five axioms.

## The Laplace Expansion

The “Laplace Expansion” is a recursive formula for computing the determinant of a matrix in terms of the determinants of “submatrices”.



**Definition 6:** *Submatrix, Minor, Cofactor*

Let  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  be an  $N \times N$  matrix. Let  $i, j \in [1 \dots N]$ .

The  $(i, j)$ th **submatrix** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the  $(N-1) \times (N-1)$  matrix  $\boxed{A_{[i,j]}}$  obtained by *deleting* the  $i$ th row and the  $j$ th column of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ . In other words,

$$\text{If } \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc|ccc} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1,k-1} & a_{1,k} & a_{1,k+1} & \dots & a_{1,N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{j-1,1} & \dots & a_{j-1,k-1} & a_{j-1,k} & a_{j-1,k+1} & \dots & a_{j-1,N} \\ \hline a_{j,1} & \dots & a_{j,k-1} & a_{j,k} & a_{j,k+1} & \dots & a_{j,N} \\ \hline a_{j+1,1} & \dots & a_{j+1,k-1} & a_{j+1,k} & a_{j+1,k+1} & \dots & a_{j+1,N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{N,1} & \dots & a_{N,k-1} & a_{N,k} & a_{N,k+1} & \dots & a_{N,N} \end{array} \right],$$

$$\text{then } \boxed{A_{[i,j]}} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1,k-1} & a_{1,j+1} & \dots & a_{1,N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{j-1,1} & \dots & a_{j-1,k-1} & a_{j-1,j+1} & \dots & a_{j-1,N} \\ \hline a_{j+1,1} & \dots & a_{j+1,k-1} & a_{j+1,j+1} & \dots & a_{j+1,N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{N,1} & \dots & a_{N,k-1} & a_{N,j+1} & \dots & a_{N,N} \end{array} \right],$$

The  $(i, j)$ th **minor** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the **determinant** of the  $(i, j)$ th submatrix:

$$M_{ij}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) = \det(\boxed{A_{[i,j]}})$$

The  $(i, j)$ th **cofactor** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the  $(i, j)$ th minor, subjected to a *sign change*:

$$C_{i,j}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) = (-1)^{(i+j)} M_{ij}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$$

The factor  $(-1)^{(i+j)}$  is called the **sign** of the  $(i, j)$ th position.

**Example 7:** If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \boxed{A_{[2,3]}} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \\ M_{2,3}(\boxed{A}) &= 8 - 14 = -6 \\ C_{2,3}(\boxed{A}) &= (-1)^{2+3} M_{2,3}(\boxed{A}) = (-1)(-6) = 6. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 8:** If  $\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \boxed{A_{[1,1]}} &= [a_{22}], & \boxed{A_{[2,1]}} &= [a_{12}]; \\ M_{1,1}(\boxed{A}) &= a_{22}, & M_{1,2}(\boxed{A}) &= a_{12}; \\ C_{1,1}(\boxed{A}) &= +a_{22}, & C_{1,2}(\boxed{A}) &= -a_{12}; \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 9:** *The Laplace Expansion*

If  $\boxed{A}$  is an  $N \times N$  matrix, then we can compute the determinant of  $\boxed{A}$  via the following recursive formula:

For any fixed  $j \in [1 \dots N]$ ,

$$\det(\boxed{A}) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_{n,j} C_{n,j}$$

This formula is called the **Laplace Expansion** (along the  $j$ th column) for the determinant of  $\boxed{A}$

**Example 10:** Let  $\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$ , and choose  $j = 3$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\boxed{A}) &= a_{1,3} \cdot C_{1,3}(\boxed{A}) + a_{2,3} \cdot C_{2,3}(\boxed{A}) + a_{3,3} \cdot C_{3,3}(\boxed{A}) \\ &= 3 \cdot (-1)^{1+3} \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \cdot (-1)^{2+3} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad + 9 \cdot (-1)^{3+3} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= 3(+1)(-3) + 6(-1)(-6) + 9(+1)(-3) \\
&= -9 + 36 - 27 \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

**Example 11:** If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}
\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} &= a_{11} \cdot (-1)^{1+1} \det \boxed{A_{[1,1]}} + a_{21} \cdot (-1)^{2+1} \det \boxed{A_{[2,1]}} \\
&= a_{11} \cdot (-1)^2 a_{22} + a_{21} \cdot (-1)^3 a_{12} \\
&= a_{11} a_{22} - a_{21} a_{12},
\end{aligned}$$

the familiar formula.

**Example 12:** If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}
\det \boxed{\mathbf{A}} &= a_{11} \cdot (-1)^{1+1} \det \boxed{A_{[1,1]}} + a_{21} \cdot (-1)^{2+1} \det \boxed{A_{[2,1]}} \\
&\quad + a_{31} \cdot (-1)^{3+1} \det \boxed{A_{[3,1]}} \\
&= a_{11} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} - a_{21} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \\
&\quad + a_{31} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= a_{11} (a_{22} a_{33} - a_{23} a_{32}) - a_{21} (a_{12} a_{33} - a_{13} a_{32}) \\
&\quad + a_{31} (a_{12} a_{23} - a_{22} a_{13}) \\
&= a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} - a_{11} a_{23} a_{32} - a_{21} a_{12} a_{33} + a_{21} a_{13} a_{32} \\
&\quad + a_{31} a_{12} a_{23} - a_{31} a_{22} a_{13}
\end{aligned}$$

This formula can be used to compute  $3 \times 3$  determinants quickly... if you can remember it.

**Proof of “Laplace Expansion” (sketch):** Fix  $j$ . Let  $f : \mathcal{M}_{N \times N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the function defined by the Laplace Expansion along the  $j$ th column:

$$f \left( \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_{n,j} (-1)^{(n+j)} \det \boxed{A_{[n,j]}}$$

It is straightforward to **check** that this function satisfies the **five axioms** listed in the *Second Definition of Determinant*. Thus, it must be *equal* to the determinant.

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□ [Laplace Expansion]

The Laplace Expansion also gives us a slick method of computing the inverse.

**Definition 13:** *Cofactor Matrix, Adjoint-Cofactor Matrix*

If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is an  $N \times N$  matrix, then the **cofactor matrix** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is the matrix whose  $(i, j)$ th entry is the  $(i, j)$ th cofactor of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ :

$$\mathbf{cof}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) & \dots & C_{1N}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{N1}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) & \dots & C_{NN}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \end{bmatrix}$$

The **adjoint-cofactor matrix** is the *transpose* of the cofactor matrix:

$$\mathbf{adj}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) & \dots & C_{N1}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{1N}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) & \dots & C_{NN}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \end{bmatrix}$$

(this is often called the **adjoint matrix**, but this terminology is ambiguous; in other parts of linear algebra, the “adjoint matrix” means something completely different).

**Theorem 14:** *Adjoint-Cofactor formula for Matrix Inverse*

If  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is a square matrix with **adjoint-cofactor matrix**  $\mathbf{adj}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$ , then

$$\mathbf{adj}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{A}} = \det(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{Id}_M}$$

As a consequence, if  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  is **invertible**, then its inverse is given:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{A}}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})} \cdot \mathbf{adj}(\boxed{\mathbf{A}})$$

**Proof:** The second assertion follows immediately from the first. The first assertion is an immediate consequence of the Laplace Expansion. The  $(i, j)$ th

entry of the product matrix  $\mathbf{adj}(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A}$ , is the **dot product** of the  $j$ th column of  $\mathbf{A}$  and the  $i$ th row of  $\mathbf{adj}(\mathbf{A})$ :

$$\sum_{n=1}^N a_{nj} C_{ni}(\mathbf{A}).$$

- If  $j = i$ , then this is just the **Laplace Expansion** (along the  $j$ th column) for the determinant of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Hence, the **diagonal** entries of  $\mathbf{adj}(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A}$  are all equal to  $\det \mathbf{A}$ .
- If  $j \neq i$ , then it is the Laplace expansion for the determinant of a matrix whose  $i$ th column and  $j$ th column are *identical* (check this); hence the determinant must be zero. Hence, the **off-diagonal** entries of  $\mathbf{adj}(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A}$  are all equal to 0.

---

□ [Theorem 14]

**Corollary 15:** *Cramer's Rule*

If  $\mathbf{A}$  is an invertible  $N \times N$  matrix, and  $\mathbf{Y}$  is an  $N$ -dimensional vector, then the solution to the system of linear equations:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y}$$

is  $\mathbf{X} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N]$ , where

$$x_1 = \frac{\det \mathbf{A}_1}{\det \mathbf{A}}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det \mathbf{A}_2}{\det \mathbf{A}}, \quad \dots \quad x_N = \frac{\det \mathbf{A}_N}{\det \mathbf{A}},$$

where, for each  $n$ ,  $\mathbf{A}_n$  is the matrix obtained by replacing the  $n$ th column of  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

---

□

## Products and Inverses

**Theorem 16:** *Product and Inverse Formulae for Determinants* Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be an  $N \times N$  matrix.

1.  $\left( \mathbf{A} \text{ is invertible} \right) \iff \left( \det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0 \right).$
2. if  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, then  $\det(\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{A})^{-1}.$

3. If  $\boxed{\mathbf{B}}$  is another  $N \times N$  matrix then

$$\det(\boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \boxed{\mathbf{B}}) = \det(\boxed{\mathbf{A}}) \cdot \det(\boxed{\mathbf{B}})$$

**Proof:** Let  $\boxed{\mathbf{E}}$  be the **column reduced echelon form** of  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ . Recall that we can make  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  into  $\boxed{\mathbf{E}}$  by applying a sequence of **elementary column operations** to  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$ , which is equivalent to multiplying  $\boxed{\mathbf{A}}$  on the right by a sequence of **elementary column operation matrices**. In other words:

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E}} = \boxed{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \boxed{X_1} \cdot \boxed{X_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \boxed{X_K}$$

Where  $\boxed{X_k}$  are all invertible matrices defined as follows:

- If the  $k$ th step in the reduction involves **multiplying** column  $n$  by  $r$ , then

$$\boxed{X_k} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & r & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus,  $\det(\boxed{X_k}) = r$ .

- If the  $k$ th step in the reduction involves **switching** columns  $i$  and  $j$ , then

$$\boxed{X_k} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow & \rightsquigarrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{e}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{e}_j & \dots & \mathbf{e}_i & \dots & \mathbf{e}_N \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & \leftarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 \quad [i] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \quad [j] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus,  $\det(\boxed{X_1}) = (-1)$ .

- If the  $k$ th step in the reduction involves **adding**  $r$  times column  $i$  to column  $j$ , then

$$\boxed{X_k} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{e}_1 & \dots & (\mathbf{e}_j + r \cdot \mathbf{e}_i) & \dots & \mathbf{e}_i & \dots & \mathbf{e}_N \\ \downarrow & & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \quad [i] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & r & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 \quad [j] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus,  $\det(\boxed{X_1}) = 1$ .

If you look at the column-reduction algorithm for computing determinants, you will see that it says:

$$\det(\boxed{A}) = \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_1})} \cdot \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_2})} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_J})} \det(\boxed{E})$$

**Proof of Part 1 “ $\implies$ ”:**

There are two cases:

- If  $\boxed{A}$  is **invertible**, then the **column-reduced echelon form** of  $\boxed{A}$  must be the identity; in other words,  $\boxed{E} = \boxed{Id}$ , so  $\det(\boxed{E}) = 1$ , and therefore,

$$\det(\boxed{A}) = \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_1})} \cdot \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_2})} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_J})}$$

- If  $\boxed{A}$  is *not* invertible, then the **column-reduced echelon form** of  $\boxed{A}$  must contain a **zero column** (check this). But if  $\boxed{E}$  has a zero column, then  $\det(\boxed{E}) = 0$ , and therefore,

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{X}_1)} \cdots \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{X}_J)} \cdot 0 = 0.$$

**Proof of Part 1 “ $\Leftarrow$ ”:** If  $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$ , then this means that  $\det(\mathbf{E})$  must be nonzero, which means that  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{Id}$ . Thus, since

$$\mathbf{Id} = \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{X}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_2 \cdots \mathbf{X}_K,$$

we conclude that  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible, and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{X}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_2 \cdots \mathbf{X}_K$ .

**Proof of Part 2:** First suppose  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$ . Thus, by **Part 1**,  $\mathbf{A}$  is not invertible. Hence,  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$  is *also* not invertible, hence  $\det(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = 0$ , again by **Part 1**.

Likewise, if  $\det(\mathbf{B}) = 0$ , then  $\det(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = 0$ .

Hence, assume that  $\det(\mathbf{A})$  and  $\det(\mathbf{B})$  are both nonzero—in other words, that both  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  are invertible, and their **column-reduced echelon form** is the identity matrix.

Consider the argument concerning the column-reduction of  $\mathbf{A}$ ; we can apply the same argument to  $\mathbf{B}$ . The column-reduced echelon form of  $\mathbf{B}$  is  $\mathbf{Id}$ , and is obtained by multiplying by **elementary column operation matrices**:

$$\mathbf{Id} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{Y}_1 \cdot \mathbf{Y}_2 \cdots \mathbf{Y}_J$$

Thus,

$$\det(\mathbf{B}) = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{Y}_1)} \cdot \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{Y}_2)} \cdots \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{Y}_J)}$$

Now consider  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ . Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{Y}_1 \cdots \mathbf{Y}_J) (\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots \mathbf{X}_K) &= \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{Id} \cdot (\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots \mathbf{X}_K) \\ &= \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{X}_1 \cdots \mathbf{X}_K) \\ &= \mathbf{Id} \end{aligned}$$



Hence, we can column-reduce  $\boxed{A} \cdot \boxed{B}$  to echelon form by subjecting it to this sequence of *elementary column operations*. Hence, by the same reasoning used earlier to prove the *Column reduction formula* for computing the determinant,

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\boxed{A} \cdot \boxed{B}) &= \left( \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{Y_1})} \cdots \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{Y_J})} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{X_1})} \cdots \frac{1}{\det(\boxed{Y_J})} \right) \\ &= \det \boxed{B} \cdot \det \boxed{A}. \end{aligned}$$

**Proof of Part 2:** If  $\boxed{A}$  is invertible, then, by **Part 3**,

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\boxed{A}) \cdot \det(\boxed{A}^{-1}) &= \det(\boxed{A} \cdot \boxed{A}^{-1}) \\ &= \det(\boxed{\text{Id}_M}) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

□ [Theorem 16]

## The Amazing Transposition Property

So far, everything we have said about determinants has been in terms of the **columns** of the matrix. Amazingly, all the same things are true if we define determinants in terms of the **rows** of the matrix.

**Theorem 17: Transposition Formula**

Let  $\boxed{A}$  be a square matrix, and  $\boxed{A}^t$  be its **transpose**. Then

$$\det \boxed{A} = \det(\boxed{A}^t)$$

**Proof:** First suppose that  $\boxed{A}$  is **invertible**. Then the **column reduced echelon form** of  $\boxed{A}$  is the identity matrix  $\boxed{\text{Id}_M}$ . Suppose that this is achieved via the sequence of **elementary column operation matrices**:

$$\boxed{\text{Id}_M} = \boxed{A} \cdot \boxed{X_1} \cdot \boxed{X_2} \cdots \boxed{X_K}$$

$$\text{Thus, } \boxed{X_K}^{-1} \cdots \boxed{X_2}^{-1} \cdot \boxed{X_1}^{-1} = \boxed{A}$$

In other words, if  $\boxed{Y_k} = \boxed{X_k}^{-1}$  for all  $k$ , then

$$\boxed{A} = \boxed{Y_K} \cdots \boxed{Y_2} \cdot \boxed{Y_1}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \boxed{A}^t = \boxed{Y_1}^t \cdot \boxed{Y_2}^t \cdots \boxed{Y_K}^t$$

Now, it is easy to **check** that, for *any elementary column operation matrix*  $\boxed{Y_k}$ , we have:

$$\det(\boxed{Y_k}^t) = \det \boxed{Y_k}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\boxed{A}^t) &= \det(\boxed{Y_1}^t \cdot \boxed{Y_2}^t \cdots \boxed{Y_K}^t) \\ &= \det(\boxed{Y_1}^t) \cdot \det(\boxed{Y_2}^t) \cdots \det(\boxed{Y_K}^t) \\ &= \det(\boxed{Y_1}) \cdot \det(\boxed{Y_2}) \cdots \det(\boxed{Y_K}) \\ &= \det(\boxed{Y_K}) \cdots \det(\boxed{Y_2}) \cdot \det(\boxed{Y_1}) \\ &= \det(\boxed{Y_K} \cdots \boxed{Y_2} \cdot \boxed{Y_1}) \\ &= \det \boxed{A} \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, if  $\boxed{A}$  is not invertible, then  $\det \boxed{A} = 0$ . But if  $\boxed{A}$  is not invertible, then  $\text{rank} \boxed{A} < N$ , which means that also,  $\text{rank} \boxed{A}^t < N$ , which means that  $\boxed{A}^t$  is *also* not invertible, which means  $\det(\boxed{A}^t) = 0$ .

---

□ [Theorem 17]

**Corollary 18:** *Columns unto Rows*

Everything we have said so far about determinants in terms of **columns** is also true in terms of **rows**. In particular:

- The determinant of matrix  $\boxed{A}$  is *also* the oriented volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the **row vectors** of  $\boxed{A}$ .

- The determinant of  $\boxed{A}$  can *also* be computed by computing the **row** reduced echelon form of  $\boxed{A}$ , and keeping track of the *row* operations, in exactly the same fashion as with columns.
- The determinant of  $\boxed{A}$  can *also* be computed by taking the Laplace Expansion along any **row** of  $\boxed{A}$ . In other words, for any fixed  $i \in [1 \dots N]$ ,

$$\det \boxed{A} = \sum_{n=1}^N a_{i,n} C_{i,n} (\boxed{A})$$

### Determinants of Linear Transformations

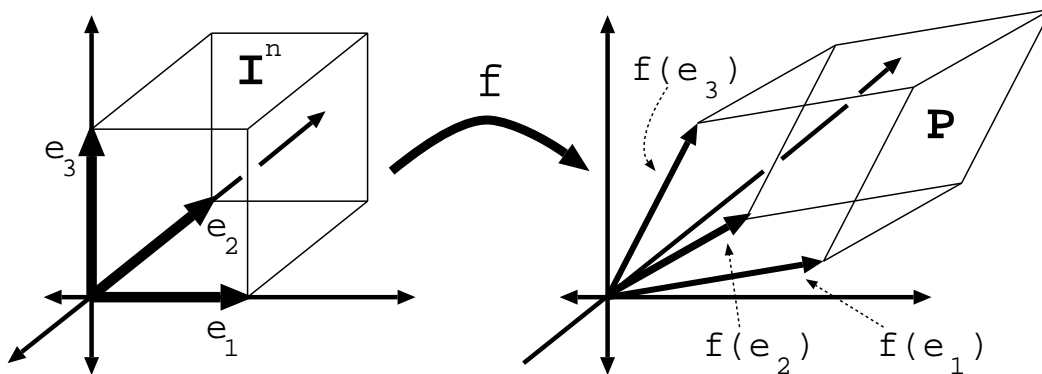


Figure 5:  $f$  maps the unit box  $\mathbb{I}^N$  into the parallelepiped  $\mathbb{P}$

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  is a linear transformation. Let  $\mathbb{P} = f(\mathbb{I}^N)$ . Since  $f$  is linear, therefore  $\mathbb{P}$  is a **parallelepiped** in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

**Definition 19:** *Determinant*

The **determinant** of  $f$  is the oriented volume of  $\mathbb{P} = f(\mathbb{I}^N)$

**Remark 20:** Suppose  $f$  is equivalent to multiplication by the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}$  is the parallelepiped spanned by  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_N$ .  
Thus,

$$\det[f] = \det \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant of  $f$  measures the extent to which  $f$  “expands” “compresses” and/or “reverses”  $N$ -dimensional space.

- If  $|\det(f)| > 1$ , this means that  $f(\mathbb{I}^N)$  is “bigger” than  $\mathbb{I}^N$ , so somehow,  $f$  is “stretching” space.
- If  $|\det(f)| < 1$ , this means that  $f(\mathbb{I}^N)$  is “smaller” than  $\mathbb{I}^N$ , so somehow,  $f$  is “compressing” space.
- If  $|\det(f)| = 1$ , this means that  $f(\mathbb{I}^N)$  has the same volume as  $\mathbb{I}^N$ ;  $f$  is a **volume-preserving** deformation of space.
- If  $\det(f) > 0$ , this means that  $f(\mathbb{I}^N)$  has the same **orientation** as  $\mathbb{I}^N$ ;  $f$  is an **orientation-preserving** transformation of space (for example, a rotation).
- If  $\det(f) < 0$ , this means that  $f(\mathbb{I}^N)$  has the opposite **orientation** as  $\mathbb{I}^N$ ;  $f$  is an **orientation-reversing** transformation of space (for example, a reflection).

**Example 21:** Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$  corresponds to multiplication by the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- If  $|a_n| > 1$ , this means that  $f$  “stretches” the  $n$ th dimension of space.
- If  $|a_n| < 1$ , this means that  $f$  “compresses” the  $n$ th dimension of space.
- If  $a_n < 0$ , this means that  $f$  “reverses” the  $n$ th dimension of space; if  $a_n > 0$ , then  $f$  preserves the orientation of the  $n$ th dimension.

Now,  $\det[f] = a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \dots \cdot a_N$ . This product is **positive** either if all of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N$  are positive, or if an *even* number are negative (heuristically speaking, an *even* number of orientation reversals “cancel out”).

Also,  $|\det[f]| = |a_1| \cdot |a_2| \cdot \dots \cdot |a_N|$ , which is larger than one only if  $f$  “stretches” space in some dimensions *more* than it “compresses” it in others.