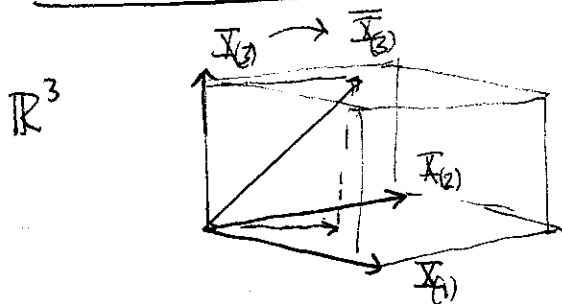


## Volume and determinants



volume of parallelepiped formed by vectors as edges with origin as a vertex

$$\text{Vol}(\underline{X}(1), \underline{X}(2), \underline{X}(3)) = \|\underline{X}(1)\| \|\underline{X}(2)\| \|\underline{X}(3)\|$$

3 perpendicular vectors

Adding any linear combinations of the other vectors to  $\underline{X}(3)$  doesn't change the volume, since the height of the parallelepiped remains the same.

One can thus add arbitrary linear combinations of the remaining vectors to a given vector without changing the volume. If any vector is multiplied by a positive number, the height in its direction is scaled by the same factor, and so the volume scales by that factor. Interchanging any two vectors in order doesn't change the volume which doesn't depend on which order the vectors are stated.

These properties explain why the determinant (absolute value of the determinant) measures volume. The sign of the determinant specifies the orientation of the three vectors, i.e., if  $\underline{X}(3)$  is on the same/opposite side of the plane of  $\underline{X}(1)$  and  $\underline{X}(2)$  as determined by the right hand screw rule (same side as  $\underline{X}(1) \times \underline{X}(2)$ ) then the determinant is positive/negative and the ordered set of vectors  $\{\underline{X}(1), \underline{X}(2), \underline{X}(3)\}$  is said to have the same/opposite orientation as the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

This same discussion (without the right hand screw rule) applies to any dimension. The sign of the determinant of an ordered set of  $n$ -vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  specifies the orientation of the linearly independent vectors when non-zero, (positive or negative) and the absolute value of the determinant gives the volume of the parallelepiped formed.

Zero determinant means zero volume and hence the vectors are not linearly independent.

## Volume and determinants 2

Any  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  with nonzero determinant can be obtained from the identity matrix by the following 3 operations:

- 1) Adding a linear combination of the remaining rows/columns to a given row/column det invariant
- 2) Interchanging any two rows/columns det changes sign,  $|\det|$  invariant
- 3) Multiplying a row/column by a nonzero number  $\alpha$  det scales by  $\alpha$   
 $|\det|$  scales by  $|\alpha|$ .

Any  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be thought of as an ordered set of column vectors

$$\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = (A_{1j}, \dots, A_{jn}) \equiv (\underline{X}_{(1)} \dots \underline{X}_{(n)}).$$

$$\underline{A} e_i = \underline{A} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ (ith row)} = (A_{ji}) = \text{ith column vector} = \underline{X}_{(i)}$$

These column vectors are just the images of the standard basis vectors under the linear transformation associated with the matrix.

We can build up an arbitrary matrix with nonzero determinant in the following way: Start with the identity matrix, whose columns are just the standard basis vectors. Its determinant is one, equal to the volume of a unit cube in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Now scale the columns of the identity matrix by arbitrary nonzero real numbers, mapping the  $n$  standard basis vectors to  $n$  orthogonal vectors, scaling the determinant by the product of the absolute values of the numbers. Adding arbitrary linear combinations of the remaining columns to each column maps these orthogonal vectors to general nonorthogonal positions leading to a general matrix  $A$  of the same nonzero determinant whose absolute value clearly represents the volume of the parallelepiped formed by the column vectors.

$$|\det(\underline{X}_{(1)}, \dots, \underline{X}_{(n)})| = \text{volume}(\underline{X}_{(1)}, \dots, \underline{X}_{(n)})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sgn } \det(\underline{X}_{(1)}, \dots, \underline{X}_{(n)}) > 0 & \text{ positively oriented lin. ind. set} \\ < 0 & \text{ negatively oriented lin. ind. set} \\ = 0 & \text{ linearly dep set.} \end{aligned}$$

### Volume and determinants 3

We can extend this from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with its Euclidean geometry to any  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$  with a nondegenerate inner product or "metric". It is enough to choose an orthonormal basis  $\{e_a\}$  of the space, i.e.  $e_a \cdot e_b = \pm 1 \delta_{ab}$ .

Then expressing vectors in this ~~frame~~ basis, the entire discussion for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  in the standard basis carries over and determines volumes by the determinant function of the matrix of orthonormal basis components.

On  $\mathbb{R}^n$  the determinant function thought of as an antisymmetric multilinear function on  $n$ -vectors is the unique  $\binom{0}{n}$ -<sub>antisymmetric</sub> tensor

whose value on the standard basis is one. Once we introduce the wedge product, then we can represent this tensor by

$$\det(\Sigma_{(1)} \dots \Sigma_{(n)}) = \det(\Sigma_{(i)}^j) = \underbrace{\omega^1 \dots \omega^n}_{\omega^{1\dots n}}(\Sigma_{(1)}, \dots, \Sigma_{(n)})$$

This same formula holds for any positively oriented  $\omega^{1\dots n}$  orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e. the  $n$ -covector  $\omega^{1\dots n}$  defines an invariant ~~state~~ of antisymmetric  $\binom{0}{n}$ -tensor on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which evaluates volume, say "vol".

It has components  $\text{vol} = \omega^{1\dots n} = \underbrace{\epsilon_{a_1 \dots a_n}}_{\text{alternating symbol}} \omega^{a_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \omega^{a_n}$ .

Alternatively one has the result

$$\underbrace{\Sigma_{(1)} \wedge \dots \wedge \Sigma_{(n)}}_{\text{necessarily an antisymmetric } \binom{0}{n}\text{-tensor and hence a multiple of } e_{1\dots n}} = \det(\Sigma_{(i)}^j) \underbrace{e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n}_{e_{1\dots n}}$$

necessarily an antisymmetric  $\binom{0}{n}$ -tensor and hence a multiple of  $e_{1\dots n}$

the coefficient is just the determinant, equal to the dual basis  $n$ -vector  $\omega^{1\dots n}$  evaluated on the  $n$ -vectors  $\Sigma_{(i)}$ .

## Volume and determinant 4

Example with nonstandard inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ; standard basis  $\{e_a\}$ .

Let  $g = g_{ab} \omega^a \otimes \omega^b$ ,  $g_{ab} = g(e_a, e_b)$  have matrix of components

$$\underline{g} \equiv (g_{ab}) = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad g_{12} = 2 \neq 0 \text{ means that } e_1 \text{ and } e_2 \text{ are not}$$

orthogonal with respect to this metric, but  $g_{13} = g_{23} = 0$  means  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are orthogonal to  $e_3$ . We can get an orthonormal basis as follows:

$$\text{Normalize } e_3: \quad \bar{e}_3 = \frac{e_3}{\sqrt{3}} = (0, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}})$$

$$\text{Normalize } e_1: \quad \bar{e}_1 = \frac{e_1}{\sqrt{4}} = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0).$$

Now subtract from  $e_2$  its component along  $e_1$ :

$$\bar{e}_2 = e_2 - \frac{g(e_2, e_1)}{g(e_1, e_1)} e_1 = e_2 - \frac{g_{21}}{g_{11}} e_1 = (0, 1, 0) - \left(\frac{2}{4}\right) (1, 0, 0) = (-\frac{1}{2}, 1, 0) = \frac{1}{2}(-1, 2, 0)$$

Then  $g(\bar{e}_2, e_1) = g(e_2 - \frac{g_{21}}{g_{11}} e_1, e_1) = g_{21} - \frac{g_{21}}{g_{11}} g_{11} = 0$  shows it to be orthogonal to  $e_1$ , normalize it:

$$\bar{e}_2 = \frac{\bar{e}_2}{\sqrt{g(\bar{e}_2, \bar{e}_2)}} = \frac{(-1, 2, 0)}{\sqrt{(-1 \ 2 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}} = \frac{(-1, 2, 0)}{\sqrt{12}} = \left(-\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0\right)$$

Then  $\{\bar{e}_a\}$  is ON wrt  $g$ , i.e.  $g(\bar{e}_a, \bar{e}_b) = \delta_{ab}$ .

The matrix transforming from the standard basis to the new one is

$$\bar{e}_a = A^b_a e_b \quad \underline{A} = (\bar{e}_1 \ \bar{e}_2 \ \bar{e}_3) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \underline{A}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

The dual basis is:

$$\bar{\omega}^a = A^{-1 a}_b \omega^b$$

$$\bar{\omega}^1 = 2\omega^1 + \omega^2$$

$$\bar{\omega}^2 = \sqrt{3}\omega^2$$

$$\bar{\omega}^3 = \sqrt{3}\omega^3$$

$$\text{Vol}(g) = \bar{\omega}^{123} = \bar{\omega}^1 \wedge \bar{\omega}^2 \wedge \bar{\omega}^3 = \frac{(2\omega^1) \wedge (\omega^1 + \sqrt{3}\omega^2) \wedge (\sqrt{3}\omega^3)}{2\sqrt{3}\omega^1 \wedge \omega^2} = 6 \omega^{123}$$

## Volume and determinant 5

so the volume of the parallelepiped formed by the standard basis vectors measured by the inner product  $g$  is

$$\text{Vol}(g)(e_1, e_2, e_3) = 6 \omega^{123}(e_1, e_2, e_3) = 6 \delta_{123}^{123} = 6$$

on the other hand

$$\bar{e}_{123} = \bar{e}_1 \wedge \bar{e}_2 \wedge \bar{e}_3 = \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{2}e_1\right) \wedge \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}[-\frac{1}{2}e_1 + e_2]\right) \wedge \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}e_3\right)}_{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} e_1 \wedge e_2} = \frac{1}{6} e_{123}$$

$$= \det(\bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2, \bar{e}_3) = \text{volume of parallelepiped formed by } \{\bar{e}_a\} \text{ measured with respect to the Euclidean metric.}$$

Since  $\{\bar{e}_a\}$  is ON wrt  $g$ , one can express  $g$  as

$$g = \bar{g}_{ab} \bar{\omega}^a \otimes \bar{\omega}^b \quad \bar{g}_{ab} = g(\bar{e}_a, \bar{e}_b) = \delta_{ab}$$

## Raising and lowering indices

with any vector  $X = X^a e_a = \bar{X}^a \bar{e}_a$ , we can associate a covector  $X^b$  by partially evaluating the tensor  $g$  on  $X$ :

$$X^b = g(X, \cdot) = C_X g \quad \text{evaluation of first argument on } X$$

$$X^b = X_a \omega^a \quad \text{where} \quad X_a \equiv g_{ab} X^b$$

$$= \bar{X}_a \bar{\omega}^a \quad \bar{X}_a \equiv \bar{g}_{ab} \bar{X}^b = \delta_{ab} \bar{X}^b$$

For example the covectors corresponding to the standard basis vectors are

$$e_1^b = 4\omega^1 + 2\omega^2$$

$$e_2^b = 2\omega^1 + 4\omega^2$$

$$e_3^b = 3\omega^3$$

$$\text{But } \bar{e}_1^b = \bar{\omega}^1$$

$$\bar{e}_2^b = \bar{\omega}^2$$

$$\bar{e}_3^b = \bar{\omega}^3$$

For an orthonormal basis, "lowering the index" just produces the dual basis.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim (2, 0, 0) \rightarrow \bar{\omega}^1$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim (0, \sqrt{3}, 0) \rightarrow \bar{\omega}^2 \quad \text{check}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \sim (0, 0, \sqrt{3}) = \bar{\omega}^3$$

## Volume and Determinant G

The inverse matrix defines an inner product on the dual space, i.e., an inner product for covectors:

$$\underline{g}^{-1}(g^{ab}) \equiv \underline{g}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix} \quad g^{-1} = g^{ab} e_a \otimes e_b = \bar{g}^{ab} \bar{e}_a \otimes \bar{e}_b$$

$$g^{ab} = g^{-1}(\omega^a, \omega^b)$$

$$\bar{g}^{ab} = g^{-1}(\bar{\omega}^a, \bar{\omega}^b) = \delta^{ab}$$

We can use this to "raise indices" on covectors  $\sigma = \sigma_a \omega^a = \bar{\sigma}_a \bar{\omega}^a$ :

$$\sigma^\# = g^{-1}(\sigma, \cdot) = \text{evaluation of } g^{-1} \text{ on first argument}$$

$$\sigma^\# = \sigma^a e_a \quad \text{where} \quad \sigma^a = g^{ab} \sigma_b$$

$$= \bar{\sigma}^a \bar{e}_a \quad \bar{\sigma}^a = \bar{g}^{ab} \bar{\sigma}_b = \delta^{ab} \bar{\sigma}_b$$

↑  
this makes the dual basis to the ON basis  $\{\bar{e}_a\}$  orthonormal wrt  $g^{-1}$ .

For example:

$$\omega^{1\#} = \frac{2e_1 - e_2}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\omega^{2\#} = -\frac{e_1 + 2e_2}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\omega^{3\#} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} e_3$$

$$\bar{\omega}^{1\#} = \bar{e}_1 \quad ?$$

$$\bar{\omega}^{2\#} = \bar{e}_2$$

$$\bar{\omega}^{3\#} = \bar{e}_3$$

Raising the index on the dual basis to an ON basis gives back the basis.

Now notice that

$$g(\sigma^\#, X) = \underbrace{g_{ab}}_{\delta_b^c} (g^{bc} \sigma_c)(X^b) = \sigma_b X^b = \sigma(X)$$

$$\text{so} \quad g(\omega^{a\#}, e_b) = \omega^a(e_b) = \delta_b^a$$

Sometimes  $\{\omega^{a\#}\}$  is called the basis reciprocal to  $e_a$  since it picks out the components with respect to  $\{e_a\}$  by inner products of vectors rather than natural evaluation of covectors on vectors.

## Volume and determinant 7

The Euclidean metric tensor

$$E = \delta_{ab} \omega^a \otimes \omega^b$$

is a tensor whose indices can be raised by  $g^{-1}$ :

$$E^{ab} = g^{ac} g^{bd} \delta_{cd} = g^{ac} \delta_{cd} g^{db} = \underline{(g^{-1})^2}^{ab}$$

$$\underline{(g^{-1})^2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & \frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$"E^\# " = E^{ab} e_a \otimes e_b = e_1 \otimes e_1 - (e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_1) + \frac{2}{3} e_2 \otimes e_2 + \frac{1}{3} e_3 \otimes e_3$$

practice with wedges

$$\vec{x} \wedge \vec{y} \wedge \vec{z} = -\vec{y} \wedge \vec{x} \wedge \vec{z} = +\vec{y} \wedge \vec{z} \wedge \vec{x}$$

$$\vec{x} \wedge \vec{s} = \textcircled{S \wedge \vec{x}}$$

$$e_1 \wedge e_{23} = e_{123}$$

$$\vec{x} \wedge \vec{y} \wedge \vec{z} \wedge \vec{x} = 0$$

$$\vec{x} \wedge (S^{23} e_{23} + S^{31} e_{31} + S^{12} e_{12})$$

S =

$$\begin{pmatrix} \vec{x} \wedge \dots \\ \vec{x} \wedge e_2 \\ \vec{x} \wedge e_3 \end{pmatrix} \wedge \left( \begin{matrix} S^{23} \\ S^{31} \\ S^{12} \end{matrix} \right)$$

$$S^{23} e_{123}$$

$$S^{31} e_2 \wedge e_3 \wedge e_1 = e_{123}$$

$$S^{12} e_3 \wedge e_1 \wedge e_2 = e_{123}$$

$$= (S^{23} + S^{31} + S^{12}) e_{123}$$

$$SAT = (-1)^{pq} T \wedge S$$

$$e_{123} = \frac{1}{3!} \epsilon^{123} e_{123}$$

$$e_{123} = \delta_{123} e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3 = e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge e_3$$

$$\left( \sum_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_p} e_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_p} \right) \wedge \left( \prod_{\beta_1 \dots \beta_q} e_{\beta_1 \dots \beta_q} \right)$$

$$\prod_{\alpha_i} S^{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_p} \prod_{\beta_i} T^{\beta_1 \dots \beta_q}$$

$$e_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_p} e_{\beta_1 \dots \beta_q}$$

$$\textcircled{e_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_p} \wedge e_{\beta_1 \dots \beta_q}} = e_{\dots}$$

$$(-1)^{pq}$$

= det

$$\vec{x}_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \vec{x}_m = \det(x_{ij}) e_{i_1 \dots i_m}$$

$$\text{"det"} = \frac{\delta^{i_1 \dots i_m}}{\epsilon^{j_1 \dots j_m}} = \epsilon^{j_1 \dots j_m}$$

$$\text{det} = \epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_m} \omega^{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_m}$$