

LECO1 - Linear Systems, Matrix Algebra

→ System of linear equations

$$S = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m a_i x_i = \alpha \right. \\ \dots \dots m \text{ lines}$$

S is consistent iff S admits at least 1 soln
 S is inconsistent iff S admits no soln
 $\alpha, \beta, \dots = 0 \Rightarrow S$ is homogeneous

• Systems are equivalent if they have the same solution set.

$S \Leftrightarrow Ax = b \Leftrightarrow [A|b]$

Matrix representation:

$$\begin{matrix} A & x & = & b \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \dots & & \dots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mm} \end{array} \right] & \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \dots \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad \Bigg| \quad \begin{matrix} [A|b] \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} & \alpha \\ \dots & & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & & \dots & \beta \end{array} \right] \\ \text{augmented matrix} \end{matrix}$$

coefficient matrix
 m -vector
augmented matrix

• linear combination of column vectors: $x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \dots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ \dots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix} \dots = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \dots \end{bmatrix}$

→ Matrix algebra

• addition: commutative, associative, neutral element: zero matrix $[0]$
 • scalar product: commutative, associative, distributive (+)

• transposition: → $A^T = [a_{ji}]$ is the transpose of $A = [a_{ij}]$ iff $\begin{cases} A_{m \times n} \Rightarrow A^T_{n \times m} \\ \forall i, j, a_{ij} = a_{ji} \end{cases}$
 → $(A^T)^T = A, (A+B)^T = A^T + B^T, cA^T = (cA)^T, (AB)^T = B^T A^T$

• multiplication: → AB is the product of $A_{m \times n}$ and $B_{n \times p}$ iff $\begin{cases} AB_{m \times p} = [c_{ij}] \\ \forall i, j, c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj} \end{cases}$
 → non-commutative, neutral element: identity matrix I_m
 → resulting matrix hosts dot product of rows of A and cols of B

• exponentiation: $A^0 = I_m, A^p A^q = A^{p+q}, (A^p)^q = A^{pq}, (AB)^p = A^p B^p \Leftrightarrow AB = BA$

→ Square Matrices

• invertible (= nonsingular) iff $\exists B, BA = AB = I_m$ (singular = noninvertible)
 → $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_m, (A^{-1})^{-1} = A, (A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
 → $(A_1 \times A_2 \dots A_n)^{-1} = A_n^{-1} A_{n-1}^{-1} \dots A_1^{-1}$

• square matrix: A is $n \times n$

- diagonal matrix: square $\wedge \forall i, j, i \neq j \Rightarrow a_{ij} = 0$
- scalar matrix: diagonal $\wedge \exists! \alpha, \forall i, j, i = j \Rightarrow a_{ij} = \alpha$
- identity matrix: scalar $\wedge \forall i, j, i = j \Rightarrow a_{ij} = 1$

• upper triangular matrix (resp. lower triangular matrix): $\begin{bmatrix} xxx & & \\ 0 & xxx & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \left(\begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 \\ xxx & 0 & \\ 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} \right)$

• symmetric matrix: $A^T = A$ (i.e. $\forall i, j, a_{ij} = a_{ji}$)

• skew symmetric matrix: $A^T = -A$ (i.e. $\forall i, j, a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$)

LECO2 - Solving Systems of linear equations

→ Echelon Form

- Row echelon form (REF) → all rows of zeros are at bottom of matrix
→ first nonzero entry of every row is a leading one
→ leading one are to the right and below one another
- reduced row echelon f. (RREF) → every column contains a single leading one.
- column echelon form and reduced CEF are transpositions of those.

△ Every square matrix in RREF is either I_n or has a row of zeros $[0 \dots 0]$

→ Elementary operations

- elementary row (col.) operations → interchange two rows: $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$ (or cols)
→ multiply row (or col.) by nonzero num: $R_i \leftarrow kR_i$
→ linear combinations of rows (or cols): $R_j \leftarrow kR_i + R_j$
- Matrices are row (col.) equivalent if they differ by a sequence of elem. row ops.
- \forall nonzero matrices, \exists equiv matrix in REF; $\exists!$ equiv matrix in RREF.
- If the augmented matrices of two linear systems are row equivalent, the systems are equiv.

→ Gaussian elimination

• Process to reduce matrix to REF

- forward elimination: use elementary row ops to obtain REF (or degenerate)
- backward substitution: substitute results bottom-up
- Gauss-Jordan elimination: use elementary row ops to obtain RREF (or degen.)
- linear system has $\begin{cases} 0 \text{ solutions if } \text{matrix becomes degenerate: } [0 \ 0 \ 0 \dots \ 1 \ x] \\ 1 \text{ solution if } \text{matrix becomes identity: } I_n \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \\ \infty \text{ solutions if } \text{matrix has rows of zeros: } [0 \ 0 \ 0 \dots \ 1 \ 0] \end{cases}$

→ Elementary matrices

- An elementary matrix is a matrix that differs from I_n by a single elementary row op.
- Performing an elem. row op on A is equivalent to premultiplying A by the elementary mat. that differs from I_n by the same operation: $B = A_{op} \Leftrightarrow B = E_{op} A$
- A and B are row-equiv. iff $\exists (E_i), B = E_k \dots E_1 A$ (with E_1, \dots, E_k elem. mat.)

→ Nonsingular matrices

- Equivalent statements: A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow A$ is the product of elementary matrices
 $\Leftrightarrow A$ is row-equiv to $I_n \Leftrightarrow A \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ has a unique trivial solvo
 $\Leftrightarrow A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution (per vector \vec{b})

- Finding the inverse: apply Gauss-Jordan on augmented matrix with I_n : $[A \mid I_n]$
to obtain: $[I_n \mid A^{-1}]$, then: $E_k \dots E_1 [A \mid I_n] = [I_n \mid A^{-1}]$

△ The inverse of an elem. matrix is obtained easily by performing the exact opposite op. to I_n $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} A^{-1} = E_k \dots E_1 \\ A = [E_k \dots E_1]^{-1} = E_1^{-1} \dots E_k^{-1} \end{cases}$

LEC03 - Vector spaces and subspaces

→ Real vector spaces

- Def: set V with two operations:
 - vector addition $+$: $V \times V \rightarrow V$, such that:
 - (1) identity elem ($a+0=a$) / (2) associativity ($a+(b+c)$) / (3) commutativity / (4) negative ($a+(-a)=0$)
 - scalar multiplication \cdot : $V \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow V$, such that:
 - (5) identity elem ($1 \cdot v = v$) / (6) associativity / (7) dist. $v \in V \Rightarrow (k(\vec{a} + \vec{b})) = (k\vec{a} + k\vec{b})$ / (8) dist. $\vec{a} \in V \Rightarrow ((k+l)\vec{a}) = k\vec{a} + l\vec{a}$

→ Subspaces

- Def: subset of vector space V with same properties on $+$ and \cdot .
- W is a subspace of V iff $W \subseteq V \wedge W$ is closed under $+$ and \cdot .
- Δ V vecspc V , V and $\{0\}$ are subspaces of V .

LEC04 - Span & Linear Independence

→ Span

- Def: set of linear combinations: $\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} = \{w \mid w = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i\}$
- $S \subseteq V \Rightarrow \text{span}(S)$ is a subspace of V .
- $\text{span}(S) = V \Leftrightarrow S$ is a spanning set of V .

→ Linear Independence

- Def: set of vectors $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent iff $\sum a_i v_i = 0 \Leftrightarrow \forall a_i, a_i = 0$
i.e. no vector in $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a linear combination of others.
- To show that property, consider the coefficient matrix $V = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$. Use Gauss-Jordan to show that $V\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ admits a unique trivial solution, if not, the vectors are linearly dependent.

LEC05 - Basis, Dimension, Rank

→ Basis

- Def: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for vecspc V iff $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} = V \\ \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \text{ is linearly independent} \end{array} \right.$
- if vectors in $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ are pairwise orthogonal, $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ form a natural basis.
↳ and for every v_i , all its values are 0 except for one (which is equal to 1)

→ Dimension

- Def: $\dim V$ (|| vecspc) = $\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } V = \{0\} \\ |B|, \text{ where } B \text{ is a basis for } V & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- V is finite-dimensional iff \exists finite subset of V such that it is a basis for V .
- The maximal independent subset T of S is a subset of S such that T is linearly indep. and there is no other subset in S that properly contains T .
- Thm: $S \subseteq V \wedge \text{span } S = V \Rightarrow$ Max indep. subs of S is a basis for V .
- Δ S is a basis for $V \Leftrightarrow \exists!$ lin. combi of vecs in S equal to a given vector in V

- Corollaries: $\dim V = m \Rightarrow VS \subseteq V, |S| > m \Rightarrow S$ is lin. dep.
- $\Rightarrow VS \subseteq V, |S| < m \Rightarrow \text{span } S \neq V$
- $\Rightarrow VS \subseteq V, |S| = m \wedge \text{span}(S) = V \Rightarrow S$ is a basis for V
- $\Rightarrow VS \subseteq V, |S| = m \wedge S$ is lin. indep. $\Rightarrow S$ is a basis for V

Process for finding a basis for V :

- Find $S \subseteq V$, such that $\text{span } S = V$ ($S = \{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$)
- $\exists T \subseteq V$, such that T is a basis for V (T is the max indep. subs. of S)
- Use Gaussian elimination on augmented matrix of homogeneous system $[V_1 \dots V_m | 0]$
- Rows with a leading one are those in T .

Rank

- The column space of A (matrix) is the span of the col vectors of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- The row space of A (matrix) is the span of the row vectors of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- Row rank $(A) = \dim(\text{rowspc } A)$; col rank $(A) = \dim(\text{colspc } A)$

Thm: A row-equiv $B \Rightarrow \text{rowspc (resp. colspc)} A = \text{rowspc (resp. colspc)} B$

Process for finding a basis for V :

- repeat previous method by forming aug. mat. of hom. sys $[V_1 \dots V_m | 0]$ where $\text{span rowspc } A = V$
- NONZERO rows will form basis for rowspc of $\text{REF}(A)$. Since $A \Leftrightarrow \text{REF}(A) \Rightarrow \text{colspc } A \Leftrightarrow \text{colspc } \text{REF}(A)$, it is also a basis for rowspc A .

note: we can apply this method to find a basis for the col space of A by using A^T . This would be equiv. to using A with $\text{CEF}(A)$.

Rank $A = \text{rowrank } A = \text{column rank } A \Leftrightarrow \text{rank } A = \text{rank } A^T$

note: rank A is the number of pivots in $\text{REF}(A)$
 \Leftrightarrow nonzero rows in $\text{REF}(A)$ or $\text{REF}(A^T)$

Nullity

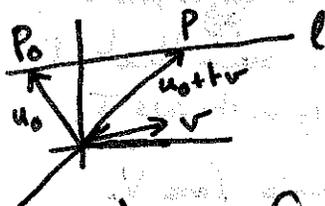
The Null Space (or kernel) of a matrix A is the solution space of $A\vec{z} = \vec{0}$.

nullity $(A) = \dim(\text{null spc } A)$

Thm (rank-nullity): $A_{m \times n} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{rank } A + \text{nullity } A = n \text{ (nb of cols in } A) \\ \text{rank } A + \text{nullity } A^T = m \text{ (nb of rows in } A) \end{cases}$

LEC06 - Vector Geometry

Lines in \mathbb{R}^3



$$P_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0) \Rightarrow \vec{u}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ z_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = (x, y, z) \Rightarrow \vec{u} = \vec{u}_0 + t\vec{v}$$

parametric equation

NORM of \vec{v} in Eucl. Space: $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$

distance in Eucl. sp: $d(A, B) = \|\vec{AB}\| = \|\vec{OB} - \vec{OA}\|$ (where $\vec{OX} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$)

Geometric interpretation of subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n

- subspaces of \mathbb{R} are: $\{0\}$ and \mathbb{R} .
- subspaces of \mathbb{R}^2 are: $\{0\}$, \mathbb{R}^2 and any line passing through the origin.
- subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 are: $\{0\}$, \mathbb{R}^3 and any plane through the origin, any line through the origin.

→ Dot Product

$\forall u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n, u \cdot v = u^T v$

(→ $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^2, [u_1, u_2] \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$)

$\vec{u} \perp \vec{v} \Leftrightarrow \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \geq 0 \quad (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{u} = \vec{0})$

• $\text{COMP}_{\vec{u}}(\vec{v}) = (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) \frac{\vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \Rightarrow \text{PROJ}_{\vec{u}}(\vec{v}) = (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) \frac{\vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2}$

LECO7 - Inner Product Spaces

→ Inner product spaces

• Def: Vector Space V with inner product \cdot , such that:
 (→ the inner product on \mathbb{R}^n ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) is the dot product)

- $\begin{cases} u \cdot u \geq 0 \wedge (u \cdot u = 0 \Leftrightarrow u = \vec{0}) \\ \langle (u \cdot v) \rangle = \langle (cu \cdot v) \rangle = \langle (u \cdot cv) \rangle \\ \cdot \text{ is dist over vect} \\ \cdot \text{ is commutative} \end{cases}$

• A Euclidian Space is a finite-dimensional inner product space.

• Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality: $\forall u, v \in V (:: \text{IPS}), |u \cdot v| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$

• $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq V (:: \text{IPS})$ is orthogonal iff $\forall u, v \in \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, u \perp v$ (equivalently: $u \cdot v = 0$)

• $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is orthonormal iff $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is orthogonal and $\forall v \in \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \|v\| = 1$ (ie v is a unit vector)

• Thm: S is orthogonal $\Rightarrow S$ is lin. indep.

→ Gram-Schmidt process

• $\forall V (:: \text{Euc. spc}), \exists S (:: \text{orthogonal basis for } V)$, and (let $\dim V = n$ and $S = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$):

$\forall v \in V, v = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i u_i, \quad c_i = (v \cdot u_i)$ (i.e. every v in V can be written uniquely as lin. comb. of vectors in S where coeffs are the $v \cdot u_i$)

• Gram-Schmidt process provides a constructive proof for:

$\forall W (:: \text{subspace of } V (:: \text{IPS})), W \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow \exists T (:: \text{orthonormal basis for } W)$

→ let $S (:: \text{basis for } W) = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$. Let $v_1 = u_1$.

→ Call $W_1 = \text{span}(v_1, u_2)$. Let $v_2 \in W_1$ such that $v_1 \cdot v_2 = 0$

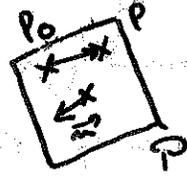
→ Then $(c_1 v_1 + c_2 u_2) \cdot v_1 = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 = -\frac{u_2 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1}$ $v_2 = c_1 v_1 + c_2 u_2$ (good)

→ compute v_2 and deduce $W_1 = \text{span}(v_1, v_2)$.

→ repeat the previous steps by defining everytime: $v_3 = u_3 - \text{proj}_{v_1} u_3 - \text{proj}_{v_2} u_3$ (here: constructing v_i by removing from u_i its projection on the other vectors).

→ normalize the resulting basis.

→ Planes in \mathbb{R}^3



$P \in \mathcal{P} \Leftrightarrow \vec{n} \cdot \vec{p} - p = 0$

$\Leftrightarrow [m_1, m_2, m_3] \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \\ z - z_0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$

$\Leftrightarrow m_1(x - x_0) + \dots = 0$

$\Leftrightarrow m_1 x + m_2 y + m_3 z + d = 0$

(with $d = -m_1 x_0 - m_2 y_0 - m_3 z_0$)

\Rightarrow from parametric equation

$ax + by + cz + d = 0$, we can deduce: $\vec{n} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$

Note: unit vector in direc' of \vec{u} is $\frac{\vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|}$

Note: $\|\vec{u}\|^2 = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}$

Orthogonal Complement

- Def: For any subspace W of an IPS V , the ortho. comp.: $W^\perp = \{v \in V \mid \forall w \in W, v \perp w\}$
- Thm: $\forall W$ (:: subspace of IPS), W^\perp is a subspace of same IPS and $W \cap W^\perp = \{0\}$
- $\forall W$ (:: subspace of V (:: IPS)), $\begin{cases} (W^\perp)^\perp = W \\ W \oplus W^\perp = V \end{cases}$
 - \oplus : direct sum. That is $\forall v \in V, \exists! (w_1, w_2) \in W \times W^\perp, v = w_1 + w_2$

Fundamental subspaces of a matrix.

- $\forall A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ($A_{m \times n}$), A induces 4 fundamental subspaces: $\text{Null } A$, $\text{row spc } A$, $\text{col spc } A$, $\text{Null } A^T$.
- The fundamental theorem of Linear Algebra states that:
 - $\text{row spc } A \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \text{null } A \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \text{row spc } A = (\text{null } A)^\perp \Rightarrow \text{row spc } A \oplus \text{null } A = \mathbb{R}^n$
 - $\text{col spc } A \subset \mathbb{R}^m, \text{null } A^T \subset \mathbb{R}^m, \text{col spc } A = (\text{null } A^T)^\perp \Rightarrow \text{col spc } A \oplus \text{null } A^T = \mathbb{R}^m$

LECO8 - Linear Transformations

Linear transformations

- Def: $L: V$ (:: vec spc) $\rightarrow W$ (:: vec spc) such that:
 - $L(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = L(\vec{u}) + L(\vec{v}) \quad (\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V)$
 - $L(c\vec{u}) = cL(\vec{u}) \quad (\forall \vec{u} \in V, \forall c \in \mathbb{R})$
- Direct consequences:
 - $L(u - v) = L(u) - L(v) \quad (\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V)$
 - $L(0_V) = 0_W$

$\begin{cases} L \text{ is a linear map from } V \text{ to } W. \\ L \text{ is a lin. tr. of } V \text{ into } W. \\ L \text{ is a lin. operator on } V. \end{cases}$

- Thm: Every matrix transformation ($[u \mapsto Au]$) is a lin. trans.
- Thm: $L: V \rightarrow W \wedge L': V \rightarrow W, L, L'$ (:: lin. trans.). $S = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ (:: basis for V)

$$[\forall w \in S, L(w) = L'(w)] \Rightarrow \forall v \in V, L(v) = L'(v)$$

- Thm: If V, W are finite dimensional, every lin. trans can be repr. by a matrix trans.
- (special case) $L: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, L$ (:: lin. trans). $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is the natural basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, L(x) = Ax \quad (\text{where } A = [L(e_1) \dots L(e_n)])$$

note: A is unique, it is the standard matrix representing L .

- (general case) $L: V \rightarrow W, L$ (:: lin. trans). $\dim V = n, \dim W = m (n, m \geq 0)$.

$$\forall (T, S) \in V \times W, T$$

(:: ordered basis for V), S (:: or. b. for W), $\exists! A, \forall v \in V, [L(v)]_T = A[v]_S$

note: basis where order of vectors is fixed.

note: $[v]_S = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$ (where $v = a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_n w_n$ where $S = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ is an ordered basis.)

sorry for mess!

→ Kernel

- Def: For any lin. trans. L , the kernel of L : $\ker L = \{v \in V \mid L(v) = 0_W\}$
 note: $\forall L (:: \text{lin trans}), \ker L \supseteq \{0_V\}$
- Thm: $\ker L (:: \text{subspace of } V)$
 - L is one-to-one iff $\ker L = \{0_V\}$
 - $\forall x, y \in V, L(x) = L(y) \Rightarrow x - y \in \ker L$

→ Range

- Def: For any lin. trans. L , the range of L (or image of L): $\text{im } L = \text{range } L = \{w \in W \mid \exists v \in V, L(v) = w\}$
- Thm: $\text{im } L (:: \text{subspace of } W)$
 - L is onto iff $\text{im } L = W$
- Thm: $\dim \ker L + \dim \text{im } L = \dim V$
 - $[\dim V = \dim W] \Rightarrow [L \text{ is one-to-one} \Leftrightarrow L \text{ is onto}]$

→ Invertibility

- Def: L is invertible iff $\exists! L^{-1}: W \rightarrow V, L \circ L^{-1} = I_W \wedge L^{-1} \circ L = I_V$
- Thm: L is invertible iff L is one-to-one \wedge L is onto
- Thm: L is one-to-one iff $\forall S \subset V, S (:: \text{lin. indep.}) \Rightarrow L(S) (:: \text{lin. indep.})$

LECO9 - Determinants

- Def: for any $n \times n$ matrix A : $\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n A_{i, \sigma_i}$
 (permutating group of n signature of permut: (#switches) e.g. $S_2 = \{11, 21\} \Rightarrow \det(A_2) = +A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21}$)
- Thm: $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$
- Note: \det is an alternating multilinear map, thus:
 - $\det(r_1, \dots, r_n) = \det(kr_1, \dots, r_n)$
 - $\det(r_1, \dots, r_i + r_j, \dots, r_n) = \det(r_1, \dots, r_i, \dots, r_j, \dots, r_n) + \det(r_1, \dots, r_j, \dots, r_i, \dots, r_n)$
 - $\det(r_1, \dots, r_i, \dots, r_i, \dots, r_n) = 0$
 - $r_i \leftrightarrow kr_i \Rightarrow \det \rightarrow k \det$
 - $r_i \leftrightarrow r_i + kr_j \Rightarrow \det \rightarrow \det$
 - $r_i \leftrightarrow r_j \Rightarrow \det \rightarrow -\det$
- Thm: $A_{n \times n} \wedge B_{n \times n} \Rightarrow \det(AB) = \det(BA) = \det(A) \det(B)$
- Thm: $A_{n \times n}$ invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$ (det A to)
- $A_{n \times n}$ singular $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) = 0$

→ Cofactor Expansion

- Def: The minor M_{ij} of $A_{n \times n}$ for entry a_{ij} is obtained from A by removing its i th row and j th col. and taking the resulting determinant.
- Thm: $\det(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij}$ for any column j .
 $= \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij}$ for any row i .

CALC II → Jacobian

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \end{vmatrix} = +k \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \right) k$$

Note: To manually compute determinants: reduce (keep track of det \rightarrow $x \det$) then expand.

Note: For a matrix in REF, the determinant will be the product along the diagonal! It follows that $\det A = 0$ iff A has a row of 0s iff A is singular.

Adjugate Matrix

- Def: • the cofactor matrix of $A_{n \times n}$ is $C_A = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & \dots & c_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & \dots & c_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$ (matrix of its cofactors)
- the adjugate (= adjunct) matrix of $A_{n \times n}$ is $Adj A = C_A^T$ (transpose of)
- Thm: $A \times Adj A = Adj A \times A = \det(A) I_n$
- (Cor: a.k.a \Rightarrow) $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} Adj A = \det(A^{-1}) Adj(A)$

Cramer's Rule

- Def: procedure for solving systems with invertible ^{square} coef matrix $A_{n \times n}$.
- \rightarrow For $Ax=b$, since $x = A^{-1}b \wedge A^{-1} = \frac{Adj(A)}{\det(A)} \Rightarrow x = \det(A)^{-1} Adj(A)b$
- $\rightarrow \Rightarrow \forall i \in \{0..n\}$, $x_i = \det(A)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ji} b_j$ (along col. i)
- \rightarrow And $\sum_{j=1}^n c_{ji} b_j$ is the cofactor expansion of $A_i = A$ where col. i is replaced by col. vec. b
- $\rightarrow \Rightarrow \forall i \in \{0..n\}$, $x_i = \frac{\det(A_i)}{\det(A)}$

LEC 10 - Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

- Def: λ (=: eigenval $A_{n \times n}$) iff $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0_n\}$, $Ax = \lambda x \neq x$ (=: eigvec A)
- Note: notation from linear maps: eigenvectors of $T: V \rightarrow W$, $x \mapsto Ax$ are vectors in V that their image by T does not change direction (only stretched by resp. eigenvalues)

Characteristic Polynomial

- Note: To find eigenvals λ of A : $Ax = \lambda x \Leftrightarrow Ax - \lambda I_n x = 0 \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I_n)x = 0$
- For $x \neq 0_n$, $(A - \lambda I_n)x = 0_n$ has (nontrivial) solutions iff $A - \lambda I_n$ is noninvertible iff $\det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$
- Def: For $A_{n \times n}$, $\det(A - \lambda I_n)$ is the characteristic polynomial of A (its degree is n)
- $\det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$ is the characteristic equation of A

Thm: The eigenvalues of $A_{n \times n}$ are the roots of its char poly (sols of char eq.)

- Def: The eigenspaces of $A_{n \times n}$ are the subspaces $E_\lambda = \text{null}(A - \lambda I_n)$
- Note: For each eigenval λ , the corresponding E_λ will contain all respective eigvecs and the 0_n vec.

$\Delta \rightarrow$ Eigenvalues characterise matrices, so, in general, A and $RREF(A)$ do not hold the same \rightarrow of similarity

$\Delta \dim E_\lambda \leq \text{multiplicity } \lambda \Delta$

Diagonalization

- Def: A_n is diagonalizable iff $\exists P_{n \times n}, D_{n \times n}$, P (=: nonsingular), D (=: diagonal), $P^{-1}AP = D$
- Note: $P^{-1}AP = D \Leftrightarrow AP = PD$. $\begin{cases} P = (c_1 \dots c_n) \\ D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \end{cases} \Rightarrow [Ac_1 \dots Ac_n] = [Dc_1 \dots Dc_n] \Leftrightarrow \forall i \in \{1..n\}, Ac_i = \lambda_i c_i$
- from this eqn: cols in P are eigvecs of A . Since P is invertible: cols in P are lin. indep. and basis for \mathbb{R}^n
- Thm: A is diagonalizable iff A has n lin indep eigvecs that form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n
- Note: D is a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues of A along the diag. (there are n possible D)
- Δ When $\dim E_\lambda = \text{multiplicity } \lambda \forall \lambda$ (eigenvals of A), A can be diagonalized. Δ

LECO1 - Algebraic Structures

- Group: set and op (G, \cdot) respects 4 axioms: assoc, closure, invertability, ^{identity}
- ↳ Abelian grp: respects commu
- ↳ Ring: $(G, +, *)$ & $*$ respects distrib over $+$, assoc, identity
- ↳ Commutative ring: $*$ respects commu (e.g. \mathbb{Z})
- ↳ Field: $*$ respects invertability (for nonzero)

Thus a field has 0, 1 distinguished. By closure we know that:
 [nota: $\mathbb{F} = (F, +, *)$]
 $\rightarrow 1 \in F$
 $\rightarrow 1+1 \in F$
 \dots
 GARY+COOK: terms $(1, 1+1, 1+1+1, \dots)$ are (i.e. from axioms) axiomatically syntactically constructed. Depending on cardinality of F , there will be "repeats" \rightarrow terms having the same meaning.

Characteristic of a field: min # of times needed to add 1 to 0 to get a term with the same semantic as 0 OR 0 if it never reaches 0 (i.e. in finite field, e.g. \mathbb{Q} is the smallest)
 $\hookrightarrow \mathbb{N}$: + not invertible, \mathbb{Z} : * not invertible
 \hookrightarrow commutative monoid \rightarrow com. ring

Galois fields (aka. finite fields) $\hookrightarrow (G, \cdot)$ & \cdot is assoc, * identity

Def: field w/ nonzero characteristic $\Leftrightarrow |F| < \aleph_0$

underlying set contains term semantics (GARY: terms are endowed with meaning given by platonic world of the abstract) e.g. quantities 1, 2, 3...

Prop: # of elements in a field is p^k , p prime, for some k

\Leftrightarrow For every prime p and natural k , \mathbb{F}_{p^k} exists -
 Two fields with same # of elements are isomorphic -

Prime fields (i.e. \mathbb{F}_{p^1})

\mathbb{F}_2 is the smallest field (by def of field: $0 \neq 1 \Rightarrow \min |F| = 2$), it is ^{also} a binary field (i.e. $p=2$ for some k)

Every prime field \mathbb{F}_p is isomorphic to the ring of integers modulo p : \mathbb{Z}/p .

Modular arithmetic redux

$$\begin{aligned} a \equiv b \pmod{m} &\Leftrightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow (a-b) \text{ div } m = q \wedge (a-b) \text{ mod } m = 0 \text{ where } q \in \mathbb{Z} \\ a = b + qm &\Leftrightarrow \end{aligned}$$

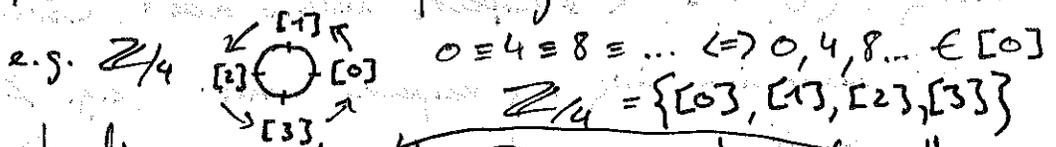
where: $\text{div: } m, n \mapsto q$, q is the quotient of n and m
 $\text{mod: } m, n \mapsto R$, R is the remainder of n/m

Consider the func of: $a \mapsto [a]$ (i.e. $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, f(a) = a \text{ mod } m$) also written $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ and \mathbb{Z}_m

$\mathbb{Z}/m = f_m(\mathbb{Z})$, i.e. $\mathbb{Z} (\dots)$ is mapped to \mathbb{Z}_m (: : : m dots)

Congruence relation is an equivalence relation \Rightarrow The resulting equivalence class (aka: congruence class, residue class) is denoted: $[a] = \{a + km \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Thus \mathbb{Z}/m is a set of integers modulo m :



And by extending + and * to \mathbb{Z}/m we get: (from the com. ring \mathbb{Z})

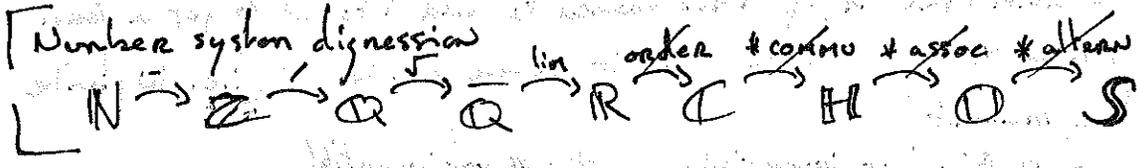
$[a] + [b] = [a+b]$ & $[a][b] = [ab] \Rightarrow [a]^{-1}$ exists iff $\exists [b] \neq [0]$, $[a][b] = [1]$

Thus \mathbb{Z}/m is also a com. ring.

\mathbb{Z}/m respects the field axioms iff m is prime (or a prime power p^n)

Hence $\mathbb{F}_m = \mathbb{Z}/m$ for all m prime

GARY: Possible to have inf. field w/ finite char. e.g. real polys with coeffs from finite set.



Vector space

Def. mathematical structure that ~~contains objects called vectors that are subject to elements of a field through scalar multiplication~~ ^{adjunct to a field} ~~consisting of a set of elements called vectors, an addition operation respecting commu, assoc, ident, invert operating on the vectors, and a multiplication operation defined over the set of vectors and the field called scalar multiplication resp. ident, dist over field, dist over vector, compatibility of scalar * with field *.~~ ^(mod are a ring)

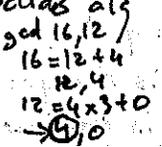
Morphism digression

- homomorph - structure-preserving map
- isomorph - bijective homomorph
- homeomorph - topological isomorph
- automorph - self isomorph
- endomorph - self homomorph
- diffeomorph - isomorphism for smooth manifolds

Euclid's alg and its rela. to invertibility in Galois fields

GARY: By reversing Euclid's alg can find inverses!

Euclid e.g. $\text{gcd}(a,b) \Rightarrow$



\rightarrow Factor $(p+1)$ for every p multiple of $(p+1)$:
 $p+1 = q \times r \Rightarrow [q]^{-1} = [r]$ (and use symmetry)

e.g. \mathbb{F}_7 $(2) \times (4) = 8 \equiv 1 \pmod 7$
 $2+1 = 2 \times 4$
 $4+1 = 3 \times 5$

- The solⁿ space is either a point, line, plane etc -
- solⁿ space to homogeneous has those going through the origin
- A subspace of a vector space has those same properties -
- i.e both have this closure property under linear combinaⁿ systems -

Vector spaces will be a powerful tool to study linear systems -

A vector space is only characterised by a dimension - ~~the same~~ any set of coordinates/basis will produce isomorphic parametrizations

concretely: vector spaces (& subspaces) have the intrinsic properties of the solⁿ space to homogeneous lin sys -

Rowe: there is no 'ambient' space around it, it's seen from the 'inside'

Prop ($Ax=0$):

$x_1, x_2 \in \text{Sol}$
 $\Rightarrow x_1 + x_2 \in \text{Sol}$

Axioms of Vec spc

Vector addition is binary (ie $V \times V \rightarrow V$)
 binary ops are closed.
 $\Rightarrow v_1, v_2 \in V \Rightarrow v_1 + v_2 \in V$

There is always a trivial solⁿ
 (\Rightarrow the 0 vector $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$)

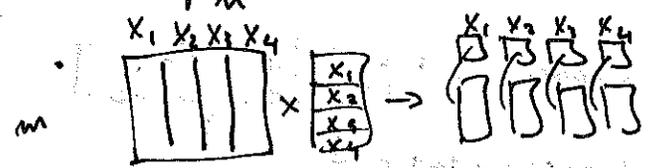
$0 \in V$

$x_1 \in \text{Sol}$
 $\Rightarrow \alpha x_1 \in \text{Sol}$
 ($\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$)

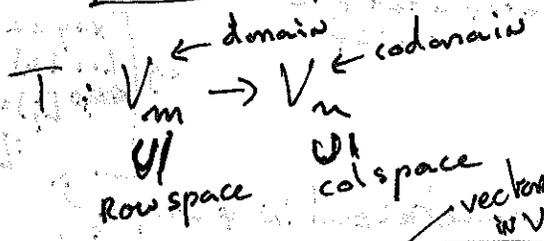
Scalar mult is binary (\Rightarrow closed)

more generally: every sol spaces and vector spc/subspc share the same closure props ~~for~~ under linear combinations -

Vector spaces & matrices



cols lie in colspc of matrix
 \Leftrightarrow if $[T]$ is LT, then cols lie in the range



codomain = range $\Rightarrow T$ is 1-1
 GARY: think of cols already in the range (\subseteq codomain)

* bounded by height of cols (# rows) and number of cols
 restricts basis

→ computing the range is finding constructing a subspace in the codomain whose dimension is *

LECO3 - Change of bases & coordinates

• Possible subspaces of V_n

e.g. $V_2 = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{F} \} = \{ x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \} = \text{span} \{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \}$

induce subspaces through equa^s

Matrix equa^s:
 • none $[0 \ 0 \ 0] \Rightarrow$ the whole plane V_2
 • 1 equ^s $\begin{cases} [1 \ 0 \ 3] \\ [0 \ 1 \ 3] \end{cases} \Rightarrow$ a line in V_2
 • 2 equ^s $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow$ a point in V_2

ROWE they are the same subspace (i.e. V_1) but \neq subspaces of V_2 .
 differ by RREF

- Two perspectives on subspace
 - As span of a basis
 - As space of sol to lin sys

e.g. Let $W \subseteq V_3$ s.t. $W = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \mid \begin{matrix} x - y - z = 0 \\ 2y + z = 0 \end{matrix} \}$

Right now \sim is RREF
 where \sim is similarity
 Lin sys \rightarrow vecspc basis

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow W = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : \begin{matrix} x - \frac{1}{2}z = 0 \\ y + \frac{1}{2}z = 0 \end{matrix} \}$

$\Rightarrow W = \{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 z \\ -1/2 z \\ z \end{bmatrix} : z \in \mathbb{F} \} = \text{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$W = \text{span} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \text{span} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Let $W \subseteq V_3$ s.t. $W = \text{span} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

We need a sys w/ 2 equa^s s.t. 1 free variable (parameter of sol spc)
 ← e.g. z

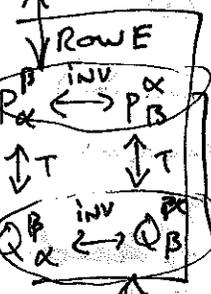
$W = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : \begin{matrix} x + az = 0 \\ y + bz = 0 \end{matrix} \}$, and $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \in W$ thus: $\begin{cases} -1 + 2a = 0 \\ 1 + 2b = 0 \end{cases}$

$W = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : \begin{matrix} x - \frac{1}{2}z = 0 \\ y + \frac{1}{2}z = 0 \end{matrix} \}$
 $\Rightarrow a = -1/2$
 $\Rightarrow b = 1/2$

vecspc basis \rightarrow Lin sys
 change of basis

$W = \text{Sol} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1/2 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

Changing coordinates (will be revisited as it is a mess!)



Let $\alpha = \{v_1, v_2\}$ be a basis for V_2 . An element of V_2 is written under that basis
 $[v]_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ ← coordinates for the basis

Let $\beta = \{w_1, w_2\}$ s.t. $\begin{cases} w_1 = a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 \\ w_2 = b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 \end{cases}$
 $\Rightarrow [v]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow v = x w_1 + y w_2 = x(a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2) + y(b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2) = (x a_1 + y b_1) v_1 + (x a_2 + y b_2) v_2$

Let $[v]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$. Thus $v = x a_1 v_1 + x a_2 v_2 + y b_1 v_1 + y b_2 v_2$
 $[v]_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} x a_1 + y b_1 \\ x a_2 + y b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$
 $v = (x a_1 + y b_1) v_1 + (x a_2 + y b_2) v_2$

LECO 4 - The Fundamental Theorem of Linear Algebra

• Intuition

-> A real vector space is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Consider V_3 over \mathbb{R} (aka \mathbb{R}^3) does not need to have the 'Euclidian' orthonormal basis

Consider the lin map $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

4 cases for kernel shape:

1) $T = I_n \Rightarrow$ all cols are lin. indep. \Rightarrow Range = codomain

2) $T = O_n \Rightarrow$ range = 0

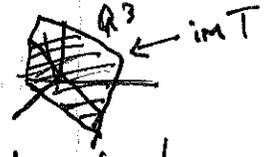
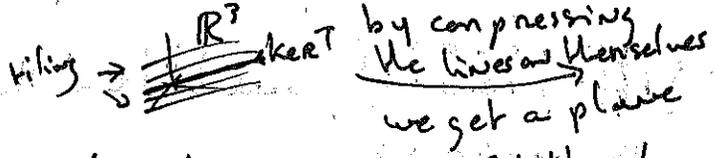
for 2) & 3) we have the fact that T brings at least 2 things in domain to 1 thing in range which is not 0.

Thus, this point in the range, call it b , is the image of a shape in the domain which is the kernel translated -

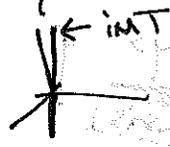
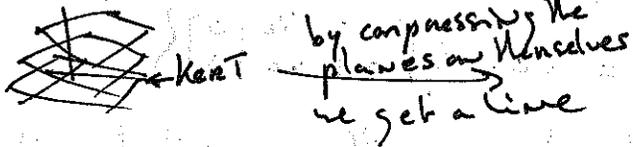
! Recall that everything in the domain that points to a single point in the range has the same shape as the kernel of T

What goes to 0 under $T \Leftrightarrow$ nullspc of $[T]$

2) Hence if the kernel is a line, everything that points to a single point is a line \rightarrow the domain can be tiled with line



3) if kernel is plane, we can fill the domain by stacking planes

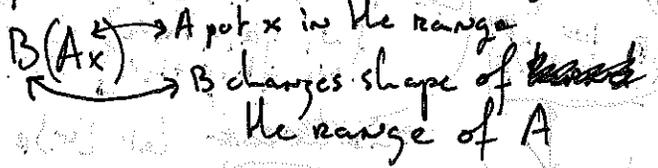


-> i.e. the way the kernel is stacked is the range - !

-> Another look at row ops: they preserve the kernel (in domain)

they perform a LT on the range:

And this only works for homogeneous sys bc 0 is the fixed point



-> All other sols to non-hom can be derived from hom

→ Direct sum notation:

- V is the direct sum of subspaces $(W_i)_m$ iff $W_1 \cap W_2 \dots \cap W_m = \{0\}$ & $\forall v \in V, v$ can be written as a linear comb of vecs in $(W_i)_m$.
- Equivalently: $V = W_1 \oplus W_2 \dots \oplus W_m \Leftrightarrow$ Bases for $(W_i)_m$ can be combined to form a basis for V .

Preserves vecspace actions.

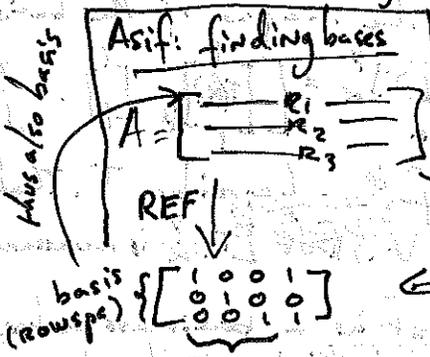
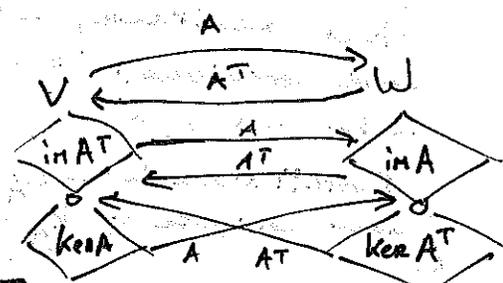
e.g. $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R}$
 $(a, b) \leftarrow a, b$ such that: $(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2)$
 $\forall (a, b), (c, d) \in \mathbb{R}^2, (a, b) + (c, d) = (a+c, b+d)$
(in this case cartesian prod & direct sum are same)

→ Dimensional Theorem

$T: V^m \rightarrow W^m, A = [T]$

$\text{Rank } A = \dim \text{Im } T, \text{ nullity } A = \dim \text{Ker } T$
 $\text{Rank } A + \text{nullity } A = \dim V \leftarrow (m, \# \text{ of cols})$
 (# of lin. indep. cols. = # lin indep. rows)

Recall from Lin Alg 1: Row spc $A \oplus \text{null } A = V$
 $\Rightarrow \text{rank } A + \text{nullity } A = m$
 Col spc $A \oplus \text{null } A^T = W$
 $\Rightarrow \text{rank } A + \text{nullity } A^T = m$



$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$ CEF would give basis straight away & equivalently: $\text{REF}(A^T) = \text{CEF}(A)$
 (preserves col space) and range!
 REF (preserves row space) and kernel!

Since row rank = col rank, we know those first 3 cols came from lin. indep. cols. But since REF 'scrambles'...

the range (performs a LT) we can't use them as a basis for the original matrix, but we can identify which cols were originally responsible for lin. indep. thus *basis* is a basis for col spc

\Rightarrow REF \rightarrow ~~pre null~~ \rightarrow LT on range, CEF \rightarrow ~~post null~~ \rightarrow LT on range of transpose
 Rowe: all that's left is the Dimensional Theorem

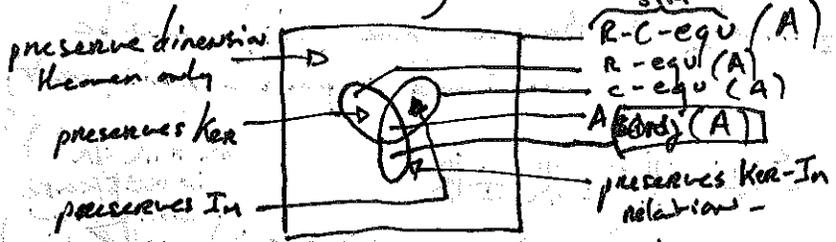
LECOS - Similarity

GARY + ROWE: pre/post are confusing! talk about left null on right null.

- We saw that we only need to study homogeneous systems as we need only to translate (w/pun) the sol^o spc (aka null spc)
- In the matrix representation of the system, we noticed that the linear system (rows) can be viewed as a vector space, but more importantly that the col vecs lie in another vec spc, that 'relies' on the first
- And thus a matrix, viewed as a LT, is a link between the domain (rows) and the codomain (cols)



Conjugacy is not R, C, RC equiv. It's equiv. to chg of coord.
 ROWE: Similarity for LTs is RC-equiv.
 • Change of coordinates is a bijection



Note from ROWE: in undergrad I also conflated LTs and COs thus viewing conjugacy (for LO) as a special case of similarity for square matrices -
 But I realised there is a clear distinction between ~~both~~ and ~~they~~ ~~should be viewed as~~ their behaviours & and thus should be distinguished accordingly.

Another note from ROWE: Rational Canonical Form theory & spectral theorem are ~~but~~ capture behaviours w/ ≠ relevance.
 'the most fundamental results'

→ Similarity.

Given arbitrary matrix A $m \times n$, and underlying $T: V \rightarrow W$ ~~are~~
~~such that~~ $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} = A$ for some bases α ~~and~~ β
 resp. for V, W .

*GARY: notation is L_A
 do not confuse w/ R_A

This matrix fully describes T . Its columns are the $[T(\alpha)]_{\beta}$ that is the images of the basis vectors in terms of β . $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} = \left[\begin{matrix} [T(\alpha_1)]_{\beta} & [T(\alpha_2)]_{\beta} & \dots \end{matrix} \right]$
 (coordinate-matrix of T in terms w/ respect to α and β)

GARY: in the platonic sense, $[T]_{\alpha}$ is enough to fully describe T . That is, how it changes a single fixed basis of V . But $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ is necessary to instantiate it (represent it) as a matrix $(A)_{\alpha\beta}$, and T as its own is even more platonic. Just as a basisless vector space, it exists in the platonic world of Abstraction. Mathematics is about formalising these rational concepts, Metamathematics (≤ 3) is understanding how this formalisation works

So keep in mind that $\text{Ker } T = \{v \in V \mid T(v) = 0\}$
 and as soon as we instantiate it for some bases α, β , we get:

$$\text{Ker } T = \text{null } [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$$

$$\text{Thus } \forall v \in V, \underbrace{[T(v)]_{\beta}}_{m \times 1} = \underbrace{[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}}_{m \times n} \underbrace{[v]_{\alpha}}_{n \times 1}$$

If ~~we~~ ~~are~~ ~~interested~~ about the solutions ~~to~~ the homogeneous underlying system, then $\text{Ker } T$ can be represented as any element in the class of matrices R-eg to $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$, i.e.:

$$\text{Ker } T = \text{null } [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} = \text{null } [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta'} = \dots$$

Call this class $REQ_{[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}} = \{M \mid M \text{ is R-eg to } [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}\}$

Then any element of $REQ_{[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}}$ can be written as: $M = Q [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ where Q is invertible.

also see page 10

Geometrically, this corresponds to ~~finding~~ changing the way we 'measure' the codomain, i.e. its basis. Thus if we ~~like~~ express a new basis β' in terms of β (i.e. $\beta'_1 = a_{11}\beta_1 + a_{12}\beta_2 + \dots$, $\beta'_2 = a_{21}\beta_1 + a_{22}\beta_2 + \dots$), and take the corresponding change of basis matrix $P_{\beta}^{\beta'} = [a_{ij}]$, we can obtain the change of coordinate matrix $Q_{\beta}^{\beta'} = (P_{\beta}^{\beta'})^T$ (see "proof" on page 9)

Putting it all together we get $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta'} = Q_{\beta}^{\beta'} [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ non-platonic

Similarly, if we care about ~~the range~~ preserving our 'view' of the range (that is our basis), we get the countable set $\{M \mid M \text{ c-eg } [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}\}$ and for any new basis for our domain, the rela. $[T]_{\alpha'}^{\beta} = [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} Q_{\alpha}^{\alpha'}$ (notice in this case, as it is right multiplication, that we need the inverse of $Q_{\alpha}^{\alpha'} = (P_{\alpha}^{\alpha'})^T$, i.e. $Q_{\alpha}^{\alpha'} = (Q_{\alpha}^{\alpha'})^{-1}$)

Another view on these 'change of bases matrices' (or their transposes for coordinates) is presented here:

→ we mentioned that we can view left multiplication as performing an LT on the range of a LT. (same for R-right Mult. and kernel)

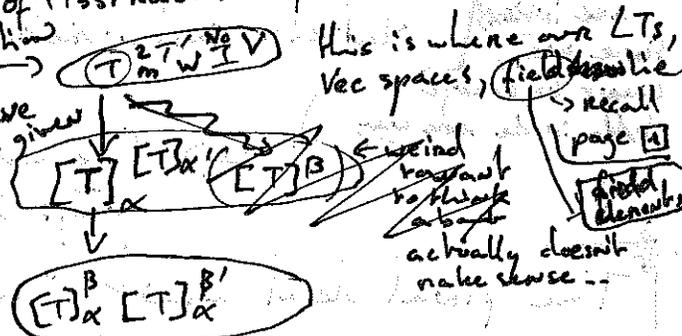
→ we want our 'change of coordinate matrices' to be invertible ~~if they~~ we can view them as instantiations of the identity transform! That is, we can view our equivalence class

$REQ_{[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}}$ (same for $REQ_{[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}}$) ~~is~~ as the set $\{Q [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \mid Q = [I]_{\beta}^{\beta'} \text{ for some } \beta', \text{ a basis for } W\}$

Long awaited digression: the platonic world of Abstraction for LTs -

Meta digressions: in math, we grab stuff from upstairs and use it. in meta math, we study the ways to grab and implement those things

at this level, we have our full description of a given T , capitalised in a basis →

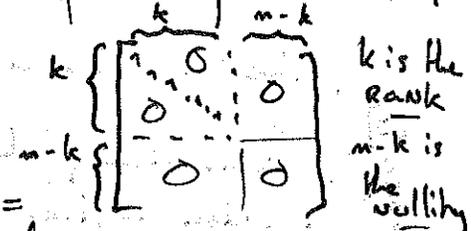


Finally, at this level $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ can be represented 'physically' as a matrix.
 instantiated

→ in other words, when we left multiply by an invertible matrix (size, for right), we perform an isomorphism on the range -

Def 2 matrices A, B of the same size are similar iff $\exists P, Q$ invertible, such that $A = P B Q$.

Property Any matrix in an equivalence class defined by similarity shares the same RRCEF.
 proof: dimension theorem



$A \in RREQ_B \Rightarrow RRCEF(A) = RRCEF(B) =$
 -> ROWE: all that remains is the dimension formula -

-> Conjugacy

Can be seen as a special case of similarity, but better seen as the counterpart of similarity for LOs.

$LT : V \rightarrow W$ (linear) mapping between vec spaces
 $LO : V \rightarrow V$ endomorphism (twisting a vec space)

Def Two matrices A, B are conjugate iff $A = Q^{-1}BQ$

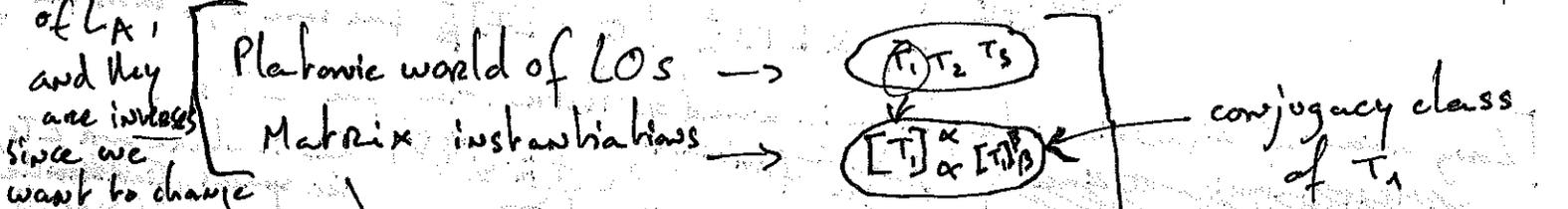
-> hence iff $L_A = L_B$ (the plabonic underlying LOs are the same)

proof: Let α, β be bases for V.

(Alex) Think of QAQ^{-1} as Q changing the basis of the of L_A while Q^{-1} is acting on the basis of the domain of L_A , and they are inverses since we want to change both in the same way

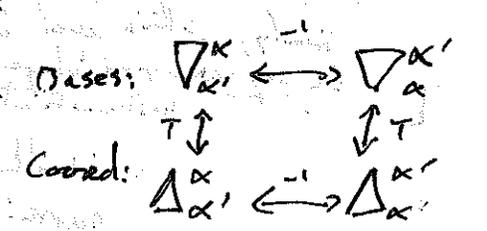
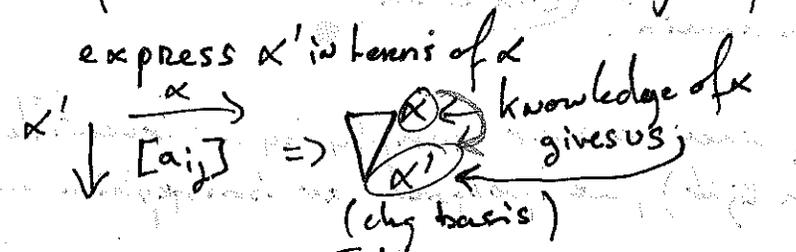
$L_A(v) = [L_A]_{\alpha} [v]_{\alpha} = A [v]_{\alpha}$ (LO are basisless)
 $= QB(Q^{-1} [v]_{\alpha}) = QB [v]_{\beta}$ ($Q^{-1} = Q_{\alpha}^{\beta}$)
 $= Q [L_B(v)]_{\beta} = [L_B(v)]_{\alpha} = L_B(v)$ ($Q = Q_{\beta}^{\alpha}$)

obtain this was not a proof as it's using what we are trying to prove, but gives intuition maybe



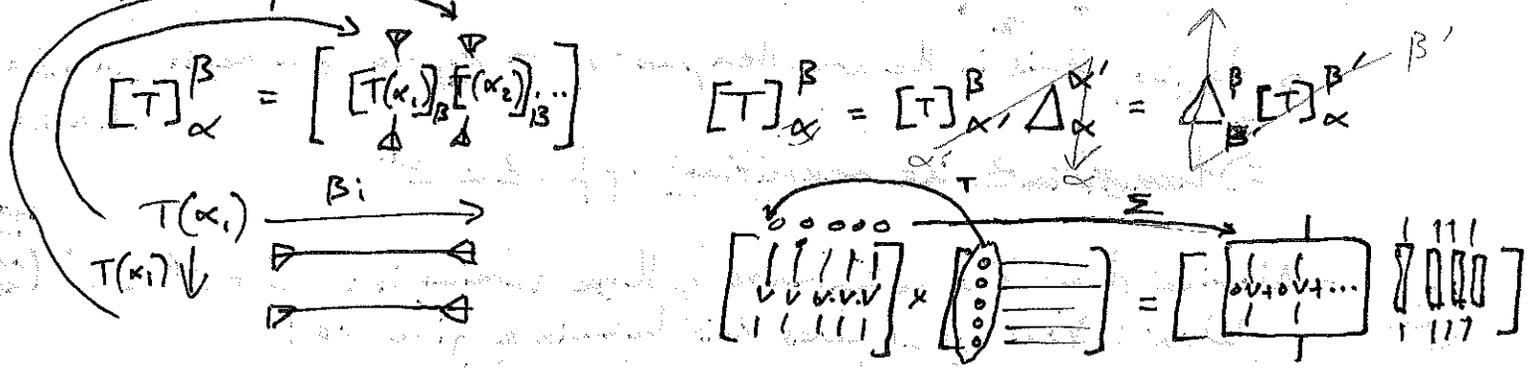
=> The conjugacy class of an LO captures all possible ways to view this LO (in a single basis).

The final deal about "change of bla matrix"



$(\Delta_{\alpha'}^{\alpha})^T = \Delta_{\alpha}^{\alpha'}$ (chng coord) - we can get nothing in α' -> If we know nothing in α'
 $[T]_{\alpha}^{\beta} = [T]_{\alpha'}^{\beta} \Delta_{\alpha}^{\alpha'}$ -> i.e. $[v]_{\alpha} = \Delta_{\alpha'}^{\alpha} [v]_{\alpha'}$

Conceptually ~~is~~ Useful visualization:



Sorry, but another digression...

- can have a variance e.g. $f(x+a) \rightarrow$ adding a $\Rightarrow \ominus$ shift
 - covariance e.g. $f(x) + a \rightarrow$ adding a $\Rightarrow \oplus$ shift
- CALC I LINALG
 coords - basis (double basis vec, diff resp. coord by 2 -)

LECO6 - The Spectral Theorem

\rightarrow The complex field

Let $\mathbb{C} = V_2$ over \mathbb{R} , with complex mult. defined as bla -

Def The space of 2×2 matrices over \mathbb{R} : $\{M_{2 \times 2} \mid M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} \text{ for } a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$

\hookrightarrow corresponds to rotation and scaling (vectors are not 'rotated')

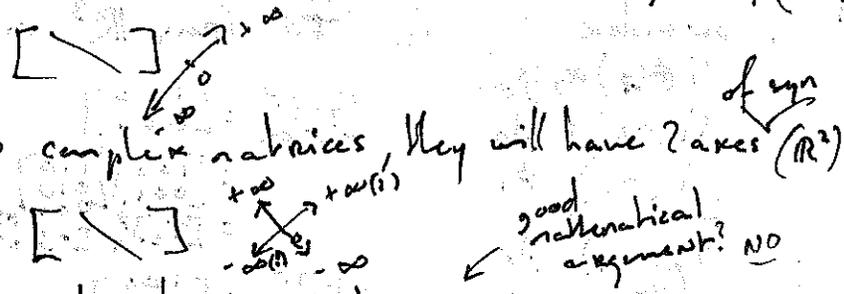
e.g. $i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow$ (i.e. $(a+ib) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$) $\begin{matrix} (-x, y) \\ \downarrow -1 \end{matrix}$ $\begin{matrix} (x, y) \\ \downarrow -1 \end{matrix}$

diagonal (i.e. scales vec(s)) $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -x + iy$

notice that $A + A^T = D$
 (1) \hookrightarrow this behaviour of 2×2 matrices encapsulated in $A + A^T = D$, leads to the fundamental theorem of Algebra (i.e. \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed)

\rightarrow The conjugate transpose

Consider symmetry for real matrices i.e. A sym. iff $A = A^T$
 \rightarrow symmetric matrices over \mathbb{R} have 1 axis of symmetry (\mathbb{R}^d)



Extend the concept to complex matrices, they will have 2 axes (\mathbb{R}^2) of sym

\rightarrow intuitively, it makes perfect sense to generalise sym. to get hermiticity (sym. becomes sp. case for reals)

Def the conjugate transpose of a matrix $Z \in \mathbb{C}$ is $Z^* = (\bar{Z})^T$

-> Again, this is the counterpart of transpose for reals (dim $\mathbb{R} = 1$)
(dim $\mathbb{C} = 2$)

=> A matrix Z is hermitian iff $Z = Z^*$

② -> Notice that the behaviour of those matrices is: $Z + Z^* = S$ (symmetric and real)
Wow! Now what does this behaviour give us?
(-> the spectral theorem)

① + ② -> ~~the~~ proof by intuition: apply ① (the fund. theorem of Algebra) to characteristic poly of hermitian matrices ②.

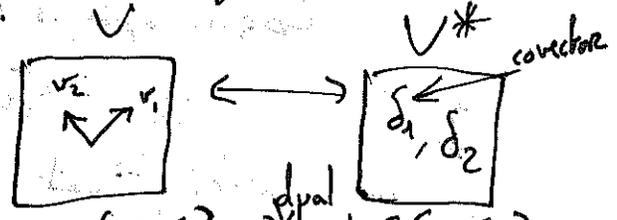
=> The Spectral Theorem

M is hermitian iff all of M 's eivals are real / M is \checkmark

Def. M is positive definite iff all of M 's eivals are \mathbb{R}^+ / M is diagonalizable
 M is positive semi-definite iff $\mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$

Digression: where do the rows of a matrix live?
(Alex) they must be in some space kinda constraining the vecs in V ?
GARY + ROWE: they live in the dual space:

$V^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{LTs \text{ from } V \text{ to } \mathbb{F}\}$
depends on a choice
 $V \cong V^{**}$ but definitely isomorphic



there is a bijec. from V to V^*
 $B: V \rightarrow V^*$
 $v \mapsto f_v: V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$

basis: $\{v_1, v_2\}$ \leftrightarrow dual basis $\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$
where: $\delta_1: V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ | $\delta_2: V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$
 $\delta_1(v_1) = 1$ | $\delta_2(v_1) = 0$
 $\delta_1(v_2) = 0$ | $\delta_2(v_2) = 1$
=> $\dim V = \dim V^*$ (amount of v_2 in direc. of v_2)

(Alex) And it goes without saying that $f_v(\text{span } v) = \mathbb{F}$.

GARY's example for appreciating platonic LTs

Consider T_1, T_2 LTS from \mathbb{R}^3 to \mathbb{R}^2 w/ bases α for \mathbb{R}^3 , β for \mathbb{R}^2

- $T_1(\alpha_1) = \beta_0$
- $T_1(\alpha_2) = \beta_0$
- $T_1(\alpha_3) = \beta_1$
- $T_2(\alpha_1) = \beta_0$
- $T_2(\alpha_2) = 0$
- $T_2(\alpha_3) = \beta_1$

=> $[T_1]_{\alpha}^{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $= [T_2]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 change basis of T_2 's domain

T_1 projects $\text{span}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$ on 1 dimension ($\text{span } \beta_0$), whereas T_2 collapse an entire $\text{span } \alpha_2$ to the 0 vector -
However T_1 & T_2 are the same platonically, this can be seen by changing the α_2 direc. to $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ (i.e. the invertible col. op.)

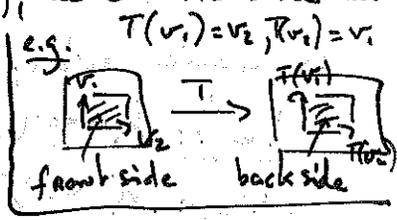
LEC07 - Generalised Eigenspaces

→ The determinant

(As seen in the previous example LTs exist regardless of their bases) - For LOs that are studied with a single basis (domain = codomain), we can measure how much the LO distorts "the oriented area of a basis tile" ^{volume} _{invariant given a}

But they behave differently → LTs up to similarity
→ LOs up to conjugacy

Det captures sth platonic, it is conjugacy class invariant.
i.e. $\det(QAQ^{-1}) = (\det Q^{-1})(\det A)(\det Q) = \det(A) \det(Q^{-1}Q) = \det(A)$



→ The trace

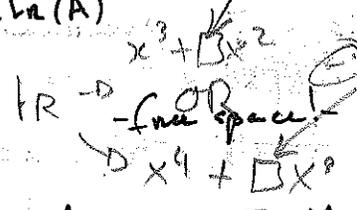
Defined for sq matrices (underlying LO) just as det; also conjugacy class invariant (thus also captures sth 'platonic' about LOs)

Def: $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i A_{ii}$ (i.e. sum of elements of main diagonal)

⇒ tr is a linear map: $\begin{cases} \text{tr}(A+B) = \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B) \\ \text{tr}(cA) = c \text{tr}(A) \end{cases}$

Note: A & A^T have the same diagonal elements: $\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr}(A^T)$

Thm: $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$
Thus: $\text{tr}(Q^{-1}AQ) = \text{tr}(A)$



Note: Unlike det, $\text{tr}(ABC) \neq \text{tr}(ACB)$ in gen. But tr is invariant for cyclic permuts, e.g. $\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(CBA)$

→ The Characteristic Polynomial

Def: $C_T(x) = \det(T - xI)$ ⇒ polynomial over \mathbb{F} , with leading coef $(-1)^n$
Rowe: it's a poly, you can plug in matrices or LOs up (i.e. $C_T(T) = \det(T - TI) = 0$)

Thm: $\forall T :: \text{LO}, C_T(T) = O_V$ (sin for matrices), i.e. T is annihilated by its char poly.

Def: $m_T(x)$ is the smallest degree poly over \mathbb{F} that has leading coef 1 and annihilates T (aka monic)
⇒ $m_T(x)$ has same roots as $C_T(x)$
⇒ $m_T(x)$ divides $C_T(x)$

Thm: If $C_T(x)$ has a root λ in \mathbb{F} , $\exists \lambda$ -eigenspace of T

proof: $C_T(\lambda) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(T - \lambda I) = 0 \Leftrightarrow T - \lambda I$ is not invertible (i.e. not an isomorphism)
 $\Leftrightarrow \dim \ker(T - \lambda I) \geq 1$ (not an isomorphism ⇒ \exists v s.t. $(T - \lambda I)v = 0$)
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists v$ nonzero s.t. $(T - \lambda I)v = 0$ (i.e. v is a λ -eigenspace)

Def: The previous proof showed us where the λ -eigenspaces live, i.e. $E_\lambda = \ker(T - \lambda I)$ is the λ -eigenspace of T iff $E_\lambda \neq O_V$ (iff λ is a root)

→ Irreducibility

Def: a polynomial is irreducible over a field \mathbb{F} if it cannot be factored.
⇒ Over \mathbb{C} , only linear polys are irreducible (Fund. Theorem of Algebra)
⇒ Over \mathbb{R} , linear polys and quadratic polys w/ no real root are irreducible

→ Multiplicities of eigenvalues

algebraic: exponent of eigenval λ in corresponding factor of char poly, i.e. $(x - \lambda)^{a_\lambda}$
geometric: $\dim E_\lambda$

→ Generalised Eigspc

Def: Given λ , an eigen of T , the generalised λ eigspc is $K_\lambda = \{v \in V \mid (T - \lambda I)^k v = 0\}$

Thn: For a given λ , eigen of T , $\dim K_\lambda = a_\lambda$ (algebraic multiplicity) subspace n.b.t.a.

\Rightarrow For an eigen λ : $\text{geom}(\lambda) \geq \text{algb}(\lambda) \geq 1 \Rightarrow E_\lambda \subseteq K_\lambda$

→ Cyclic subspaces

Def: $K \subseteq V$ is T -invariant iff $T(K) \subseteq K$

Def: $K \subseteq V$ is T -cyclic iff K is T -invariant & $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}, \exists v \in V, K = \text{span}_{\mathbb{F}} \{v, \dots, T^k v\}$ cycle

Thn: For λ , eigen of T , K_λ is T -invariant (also $(T - \lambda I)$ -invariant) by definition

Def: The cyclic subspace generated by v (for $\mathcal{L}(T)$) is $C(v) = \text{span}_{\mathbb{F}} \{v, \dots, T^k v\}$ such that $\{v, \dots, T^k v\}$ is lin indep and $\{v, \dots, T^k v\} \cup \{T^{k+1} v\}$ are not - \Rightarrow it is a T -invariant subspace

→ Annihilator subspaces

Def: $K_p(x) = \{v \in V \mid p(T)v = 0\}$ ← the most general we can get: $E_\lambda \rightarrow K_\lambda \rightarrow K_p(\lambda)$

Thn: $C(v)$ is an annihilator subspace ^{of v} for $p(x)$.

proof: by def, $T^{k+1}(v) = \sum_{i=0}^k (a_i T^i v)$

$\Rightarrow T^{k+1}(v) - \sum a_i T^i v = 0 \Rightarrow (T^{k+1} - \sum a_i T^i)(v) = 0$

Let $p(x) =$ substitute x for T in α (\Leftrightarrow substitute T by x)

Then $C(v) = K_p(x)$

LECOS - Rational Canonical Form Theory

→ Diagonalisation

T is diagonalizable iff $C_T(x)$ factors completely over \mathbb{F} and for every

eigenval λ , $\text{algb}(\lambda) = \text{geom}(\lambda)$

\Rightarrow if $C_T(x)$ factors into distinct linear factors over \mathbb{F} , then T is diagonalizable

T is diagonalizable iff $\forall \lambda$: eigen of T , $E_\lambda = K_\lambda$

→ Jordan Canonical Form & Rational Canonical form

Def: $N : \mathcal{L}(V)$ is nilpotent iff $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}^*, N^k = 0$

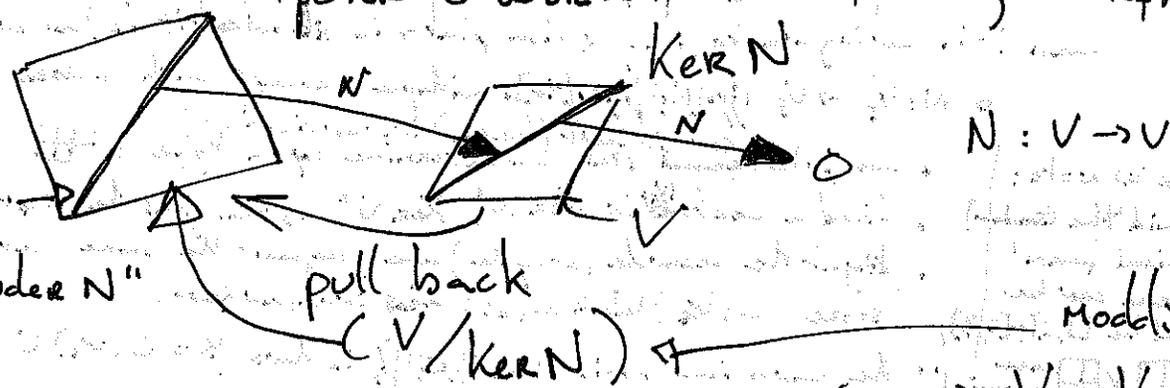
Thus N is nilpotent iff $m_N(x) = x^k$ for some k

iff $C_N(x) = (-1)^n x^n = (0 - x)^n$

iff 0 is N 's only eigenval

iff $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}^*, \text{tr}(N^k) = 0$

How nilpotents work: (read from right to left)



"what goes to Ker N under N"

pull back $(V/Ker N)$

Modding out:

$(V_1 \subset V_2), V_1 \oplus V_2/V_1 \cong V_2$
 $V_2 \text{ Mod } V_1$

N is 1-1 on $V/Ker N$ although gross abuse of terminology

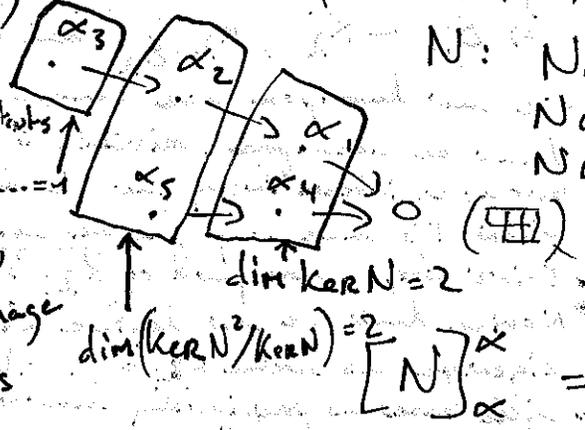
So a nilpotent 'decomposes' its domain in such a way...

e.g. $V = V_5$ with basis $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5)$

Row: depends on a choice
 Col: not 'canonically' isomorph

$N: N\alpha_3 = \alpha_2, N\alpha_5 = \alpha_4$
 $N\alpha_2 = \alpha_1, N\alpha_4 = 0$
 $N\alpha_1 = 0$

This was a simple example, in general, to get 1s on the superdiagonal, need to find the 'pulled back' basis of the 'cycle basis'!

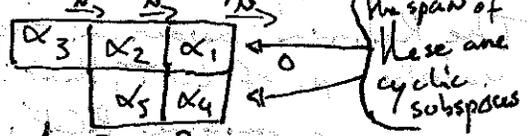


$N(\alpha_1) N(\alpha_2) \dots$

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

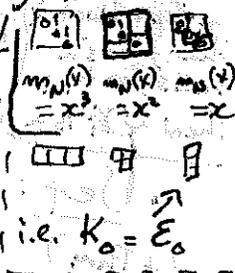
There are thus a 'small' number of nilpotents, this number captures how much applications of N it takes to annihilate the vecspc (this is the exponent of the minimal polynomial) and how big are its 'pulled back' kernels. This number is hence simply the # of partitions of n . As mentioned informally, to get the canonical form of a nilpotent we want a 'cycle basis': from previous example:

Rowe: define 'kernel stat' as follows: $(\dim Ker N^m, \dim Ker N^{m-1}, \dots, \dim Ker N^0)$



"the jumps in kerstat can be used to determine the operator's cycle type (i.e. which partition of n it corresponds to)"

kerstat: $(5, 5, 5, 4, 2, 0)$



in general (Jordan) they are harder to find

So nilpotents are a great way to partition a vecspc, and using cycle bases gives a nice canonical repr. of it.

\Rightarrow cycle type: $[3, 2]$ (or $[2, 3]$)

Note: the greatest # in the cycle type corresp to the exponent of the min poly, it is the size of the biggest cycle basis.

→ Given a nilpotent $[N]_V^V$, we can determine to which canonical form it is conjugate (i.e. which platonic nilpotent it is) as such:

→ $N: V_3 \rightarrow V_3$ (just like previous example, except with a more arbitrary (invariant) basis V_2)

free spc ⇒ note: we said 'the Jordan canonical form' but there can be several bc $[3,2]$ & $[2,3]$, i.e. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ are canonical

- compute kernel stat → determine cycle type: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} [3,2]$
- find a vector in $\text{Ker } N^3 / \text{Ker } N^2$ → this gives the first cycle basis $\langle v_1 \rangle$
- together the second (2-cycle) one, repeat the same method, but make sure $C(v_2) \cup C(v_1)$ is independent.

• the canonical basis for N of V_3 is thus $\beta = C(v_1) \cup C(v_2)$

⇒ $[N]_V^V = \Delta_\beta^V [N]_\beta^\beta \Delta_\beta^V$, where $[N]_\beta^\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Def: The Jordan canonical form (of a $LO T$) is a special matrix representation of T that is possible when $C_T(x)$ factors completely over \mathbb{F} .

- ▶ algebraic mult need not equal geometric mult. ⇒ $E_\lambda \subset K_\lambda$, K_λ / E_λ need not equal 0.
- ▶ we can decompose a vecspc into T -invariant subspaces. Every V can be decomposed trivially into improper T -inv subsp: $V \times 0$, but more interestingly can be decomposed into proper T -inv subspc. (eg. when T 's char poly factors completely over \mathbb{F} (in which case, those T -inv subspc correspond to K_{λ_i} 's))

We are jumping steps but hopefully there is enough material to build a good intuition. Thus:

Let T be LO s.t. $C_T(x)$ factors completely. Then:

- $V = \bigoplus_i K_{\lambda_i}$
- K_{λ_i} is T -inv.
- For each i , let γ_i be a union of cycles of generalised eigenvectors corresponding to λ_i that forms a basis for K_{λ_i} .
- Then $\cup \gamma_i$ is a Jordan Canonical Basis for T .

▶ Notice that we can define nilpotents for each generalised eigenspc as such $N_{\lambda_i} = (T - \lambda_i I)$. This will allow us to construct cycle bases as previously shown. ⇒ those bases β_i can be unified to get a Jordan basis of T .

▶ This nilpotent analysis of T 's generalised eigspc will construct the Jordan blocks of the Jordan CF; however this time each Jordan block will have a distinct λ_i on the diagonal (instead of 0s which might not be an eigenval of T). The Jordan block of λ_i is formed as:

$[T_{K_{\lambda_i}}]_{\beta_i}^{\beta_i} = [N_{\lambda_i}]_{\beta_i}^{\beta_i} + [\lambda_i I]_{\beta_i}^{\beta_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_i & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$ ← from previous example

⇒ $[T]_\beta^\beta = \bigoplus_{i: \text{eigenval}} [T_{K_{\lambda_i}}]_{\beta_i}^{\beta_i}$ with $\beta = \cup \beta_i$ & extension of \bigoplus to matrices

Def: The Rational Canonical Form (a.k.a. Frobenius Normal form) is a special matrix rep. of $LO T$, that is unique (upto permute). Thus every platonic LO has a unique RCF.

Diag: $V = \bigoplus E_{\lambda_i}$
 JCF: $V = \bigoplus K_{\lambda_i}$
 RCF: $V = \bigoplus K_{p(x)}$

Def: suppose $p(x)$ is T -cyclic. Let $V = K_{p(x)} \oplus \dots$ then \exists a basis β such that: $[T]_\beta^\beta = \begin{bmatrix} A_{p(x)} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & A_{p(x)} \end{bmatrix}$ where $\beta = \beta_{p(x)}$

⇒ Rational Canonical Form Theorem → Two matrices A, B are similar iff RCF(A) = RCF(B)