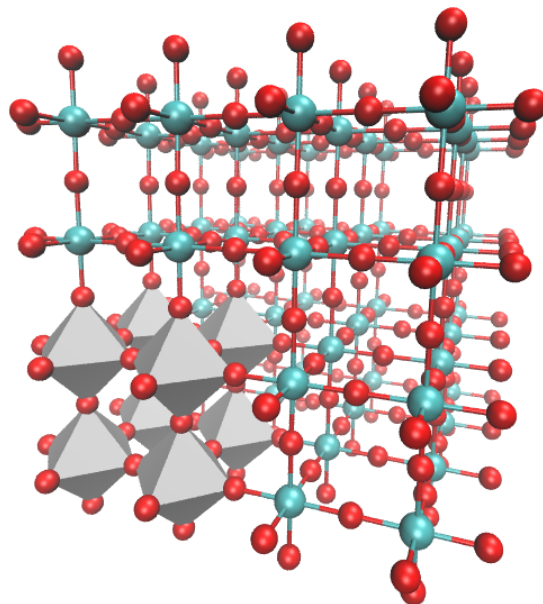


Linear Algebra



Prof. Lee M. Thompson

Operators

Operators

An operator \hat{O} transforms a function into another

E.g. \hat{x} multiplies by x

$$\hat{x}f(x) = xf(x)$$

$$\hat{x} \sin(x) = x \sin(x)$$

\hat{D}_x takes the derivative with respect to x

$$\hat{D}_x f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

$$\hat{D}_x \sin(x) = \cos(x)$$

$\hat{B}\hat{A}$ applies the operation \hat{A} followed by \hat{B}

$$\hat{x}\hat{D}_x f(x) = x \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

$$\hat{D}_x \hat{x} f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} (xf(x)) = f(x) + x \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

$$\hat{x}\hat{D}_x \sin(x) = x \cos(x)$$

$$\hat{D}_x \hat{x} \sin(x) = \sin(x) + x \cos(x)$$

Generally $\hat{B}\hat{A} \neq \hat{A}\hat{B}$

Operators

Operators

\hat{A}^n applies the operator \hat{A} n times

$$\hat{D}_x^2 f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x)$$

$$\hat{D}_x^2 \sin(x) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \sin(x) = -\sin(x)$$

If a function $f(x)$ obeys the following equation:

$$\hat{A}f(x) = af(x)$$

where \hat{A} is an operator and a is a scalar, then:

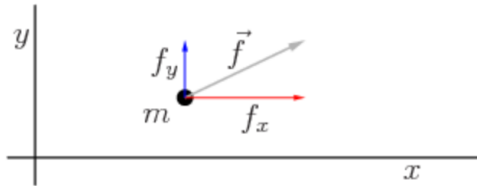
a is an eigenvalue of the operator \hat{A}

$f(x)$ is an eigenfunction of the operator \hat{A}

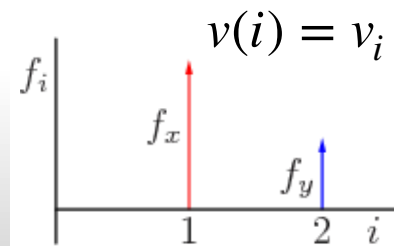
Linear Algebra

Discretization

- Functions \Leftrightarrow vectors
- Vector (e.g. $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$) can be visualized as an arrow with components in vector space



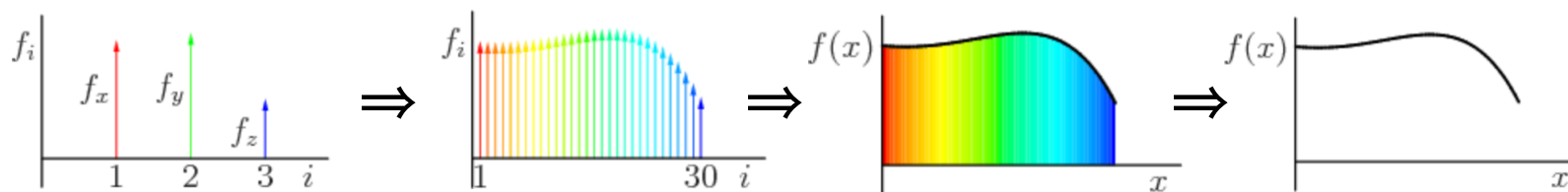
- Alternatively, can plot vector as discretized plot of component against component value



Linear Algebra

Discretization

- Increasing number of dimensions in the vector space increases components
- A vector in an infinite dimension vector space defines a function



- Operators can act on vectors, **linear** operators are separable

$$\hat{O}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} \qquad \hat{O}(x\mathbf{v} + y\mathbf{w}) = x\hat{O}\mathbf{v} + y\hat{O}\mathbf{w}$$

- Operator can be **represented** as a matrix

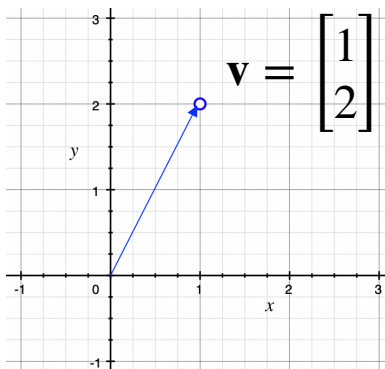
$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} & \dots & m_{1n} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} & \dots & m_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & \dots & m_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors

Vectors

- Vectors have both magnitude and direction. Can be expressed with respect to basis vectors

$$\mathbf{v} = v_i \mathbf{e}_i + v_j \mathbf{e}_j + v_k \mathbf{e}_k + \dots = \sum_i v_i \mathbf{e}_i$$



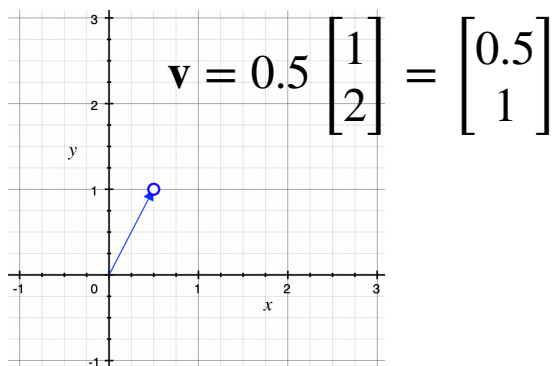
- Basis is not unique - we can choose a different set of basis vectors

$$\mathbf{v} = v'_i \mathbf{f}_i + v'_j \mathbf{f}_j + v'_k \mathbf{f}_k + \dots = \sum_i v'_i \mathbf{f}_i$$

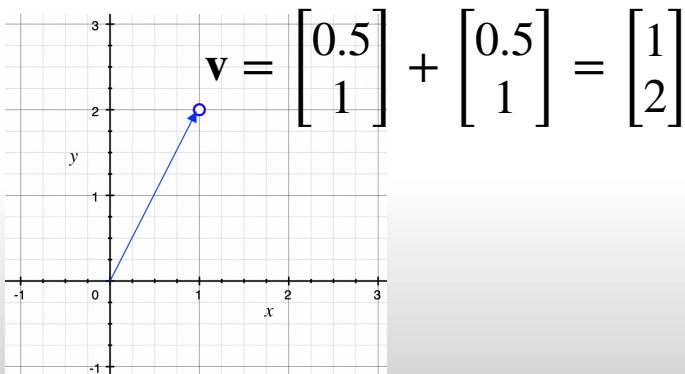
Vectors

Vector operations

- Operations of vectors
 - Vector scalar multiplication

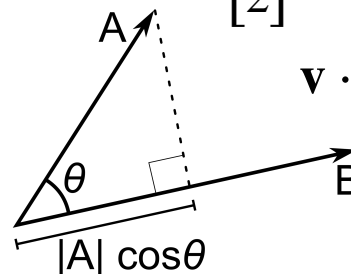


- Vector addition



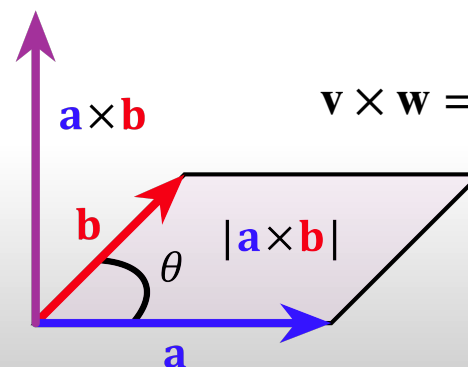
- Vector dot product

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 0.5 \times 1 + 1 \times 2 = 2.5$$



$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \sum_{ij} (v_i w_j) \mathbf{e}_i \cdot \mathbf{e}_j$$

- Vector cross and triple product



$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 & \mathbf{e}_2 & \mathbf{e}_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Triple product gives volume:
 $\mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w})$



Vectors

Linear vector space

- A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}, \dots\}$ forms a **linear vector space** if:

1. Closed under commutative and associative addition

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v}$$

$$(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})$$

2. Closed under scalar multiplication

$$\lambda(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \lambda\mathbf{v} + \lambda\mathbf{w}$$

$$(\lambda + \mu)\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} + \mu\mathbf{v}$$

$$\lambda(\mu\mathbf{v}) = (\lambda\mu)\mathbf{v}$$

3. A null vector $\mathbf{0}$ is defined

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v} \quad \forall \mathbf{v}$$

4. Multiplication by unity leaves the vector unchanged

$$1 \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \quad \forall \mathbf{v}$$

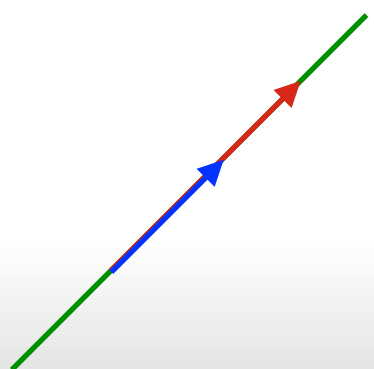
5. All vectors have corresponding negative vector $-\mathbf{v}$

$$\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$

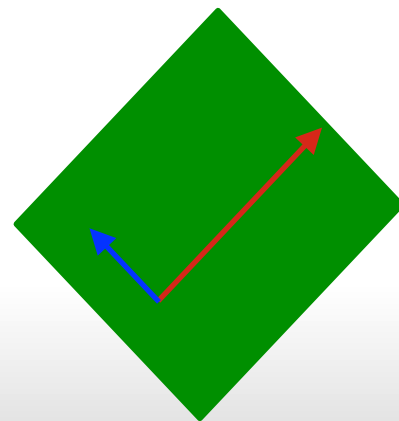
Vectors

Linear independence of vectors

- Vectors can be combined in a linear combination
 - We already defined arbitrary vectors as linear combinations of basis vectors
- Operators required are vector addition and vector-scalar multiplication
- N linear independent vectors required in N-dimensional space
- The **span** is the set of new vectors that can be constructed



$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{v} &= c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 2c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= (c_1 + 2c_2) \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

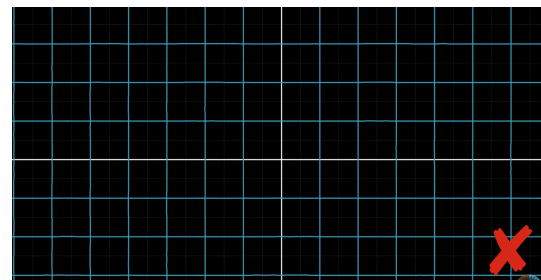
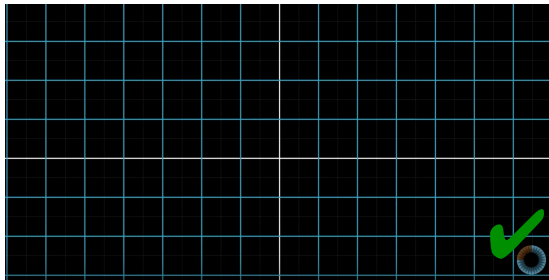


- Linearly dependence if $\nu \mathbf{v} + \omega \mathbf{w} + \chi \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ where $\{\lambda\}$ not all zero

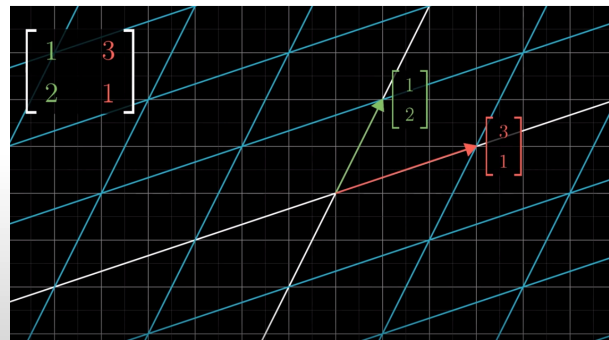
Basis Transformation

Linear transformations

- Linear transformations
 - Transform old basis vectors to new basis vector where:
 1. Origin is invariant
 2. Space does not become “curved”



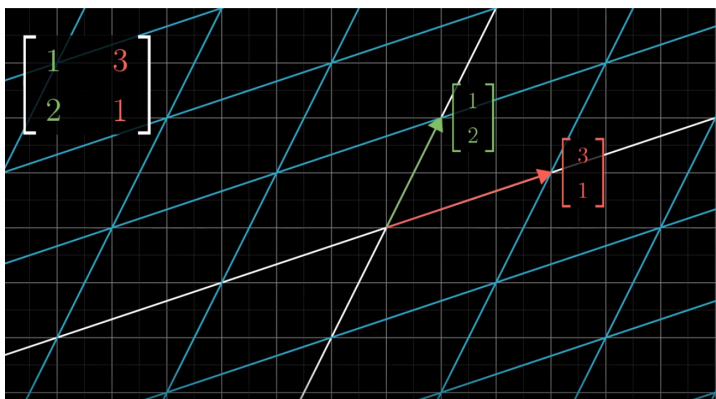
- Matrices describe the transformation
 - Columns tell us where each basis vector lands after transformation



Basis Transformation

Linear transformation

- What happens to a given vector under a basis transformation?
- Alias vs. alibi



$$\mathbf{v}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v}' = 0.5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix-vector multiplication encodes the transformation

$$\mathbf{v}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 0.5 + 3 \times 1 \\ 2 \times 0.5 + 1 \times 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Matrix Algebra

Matrix Multiplication

- Linear maps have linear maps
- I.e. how can we describe the total transformation of two consecutive transformations

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n_{11} & n_{12} \\ n_{21} & n_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11}n_{11} + m_{12}n_{21} & m_{11}n_{12} + m_{12}n_{22} \\ m_{21}n_{11} + m_{22}n_{21} & m_{21}n_{12} + m_{22}n_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



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Matrix Algebra

Matrix Multiplication

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- I.e. how can we describe the total transformation of two consecutive transformations

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n_{11} & n_{12} \\ n_{21} & n_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11}n_{11} + m_{12}n_{21} & m_{11}n_{12} + m_{12}n_{22} \\ m_{21}n_{11} + m_{22}n_{21} & m_{21}n_{12} + m_{22}n_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix multiplication may not commute

Matrix Addition

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} n_{11} & n_{12} \\ n_{21} & n_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} + n_{11} & m_{12} + n_{12} \\ m_{21} + n_{21} & m_{22} + n_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Scalar Multiplication

$$\lambda \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda m_{11} & \lambda m_{12} \\ \lambda m_{21} & \lambda m_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



Matrix Algebra

Unary Matrix Operations

- Transpose

$$\{\mathbf{M}^T : m_{ij} = m_{ji}\}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{21} \\ m_{12} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{M}^T)^T = \mathbf{M}$$

$$(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N})^T = \mathbf{M}^T + \mathbf{N}^T$$

$$(\mathbf{MN})^T = \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{M}^T$$

$$(\lambda \mathbf{M})^T = \lambda (\mathbf{M}^T)$$

- Adjoint

$$\{\mathbf{M}^\dagger : m_{ij} = m_{ji}^*\}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11}^* & m_{21}^* \\ m_{12}^* & m_{22}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

- Trace

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}) = \sum_i m_{ii}$$
$$\text{tr}\left(\begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}\right) = m_{11} + m_{22}$$

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{MN}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{NM})$$

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{M}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{N})$$

Matrix Algebra

Determinants

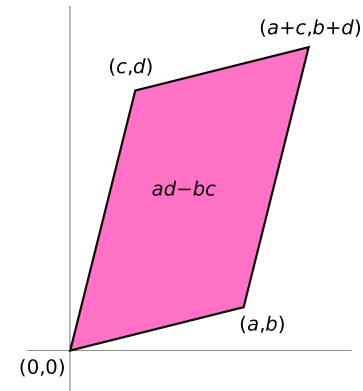
- c.f. triple product and volume elements
- Gives signed scale factor by which area/volume is transformed

$$\det(\mathbf{M}) = |\mathbf{M}| = \begin{vmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} & \dots & m_{1n} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} & \dots & m_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ m_{n1} & m_{n2} & \dots & m_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{p_i} \mathcal{P}_i m_{11} m_{22} \dots m_{nn}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -12$$

• Properties

- Any two rows or columns equal, $\det(\mathbf{M})=0$
- Determinant changes sign on exchange of rows and columns
- $|\mathbf{M}| = |\mathbf{M}^\dagger|^*$
- $|\mathbf{MN}| = |\mathbf{M}| |\mathbf{N}|$





Matrix Algebra

Inverse

- The inverse of a matrix is defined such that

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{I}$$

where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

One way to compute the inverse is using

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{M})} \mathbf{C}_M^T$$

\mathbf{C}_M^T is the cofactor matrix of \mathbf{M}

- Properties
 - \mathbf{M}^{-1} is unique if it exists
 - $(\mathbf{M}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{M}$
 - $(\mathbf{MN})^{-1} = \mathbf{N}^{-1}\mathbf{M}^{-1}$



Matrix Algebra

Types of matrices

- Diagonal matrix

$$\{\epsilon : m_{ij}\delta_{ij}\}$$

- Unit matrix

$$\{\mathbf{1} : \delta_{ij}\}$$

- Null matrix

$$\{\mathbf{0} : 0\}$$

- Orthogonal matrix

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^T$$

- Unitary matrix

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^\dagger$$

- Symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{M}^T = \mathbf{M}$$

- Hermitian matrix

$$\mathbf{M}^\dagger = \mathbf{M}$$

- Antisymmetric matrix

$$-\mathbf{M}^T = \mathbf{M}$$

- Antihermitian matrix

$$-\mathbf{M}^\dagger = \mathbf{M}$$

- Normal matrix

$$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^\dagger = \mathbf{M}^\dagger\mathbf{M}$$



Matrix Algebra

- Changing basis - Set of basis vectors transformed to new set by transformation matrix (which is necessarily unitary - preserves length and orthogonality of basis vectors)

$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{W}$$

- Representation of operator (matrix) changes depending on basis. Always possible to find a representation which is diagonal

$$\mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{V} \mathbf{U} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

- Eigenvalue equations - find the vectors (eigenvectors) that are unchanged under linear transformation except for a scaling factor (eigenvalues)

$$\mathbf{V}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

Simultaneous Equations

- Consider the following set of simultaneous equations

$$(1) \quad 2x + 3y = 1$$

$$(2) \quad x + y = 1$$

- We can rewrite using matrix notation and solve for the unknowns

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Generally we have $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ which transforms vector \mathbf{x} in vector space \mathbf{V} into vector \mathbf{b} in vector space \mathbf{W}
- If the inverse of \mathbf{A} does not exist (the matrix is singular) then some subspace of \mathbf{V} is mapped to $\mathbf{0}$ in \mathbf{W} - **null space**
- N equations with N unknowns arises when the **nullity** of \mathbf{A} is zero
- Inversion can be computationally demanding so can use alternative decomposition methods instead (LU, Cholesky)

Eigensystems

Determining eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- General eigenvalue equation

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

- Can rewrite as homogeneous set of simultaneous equations

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{I}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

- For such a system, either $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}$ (trivial solution) or $\det(\mathbf{A}-\lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$
- N roots of the characteristic determinant gives the set of eigenvalues of \mathbf{A}

- Example: $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 3 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$ $(1-\lambda)^2 - 6 = 0$
 $\lambda = 1 \pm \sqrt{6}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = (1 + \sqrt{6}) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1 + \sqrt{6})x_1 \\ (1 + \sqrt{6})x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}x_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}x_2 \quad x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}k\right)^2 + k^2 = 1 \Rightarrow k = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}} \\ \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} \end{bmatrix}$$



Group Theory

Group theory and representations

A group G is a set of elements $\{g\}$ with an operation \odot that satisfies the axioms:

1. closure: $g \odot h = i$ where g , h and i are elements of G
2. associativity: $(g \odot h) \odot i = g \odot (h \odot i)$ where g and e are elements of G
3. identity: $g \odot e = g$ where g and e are elements of G
4. inverse: $g \odot h = e$ where g , h and e are elements of G

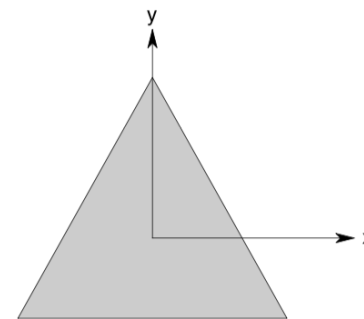
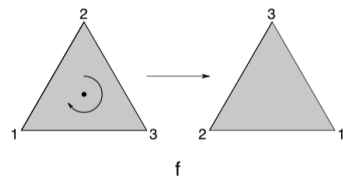
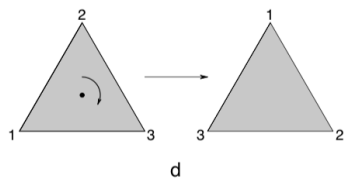
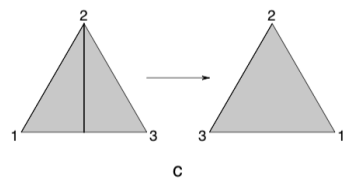
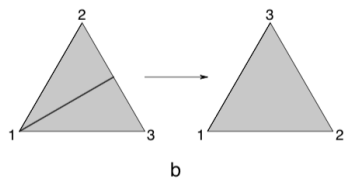
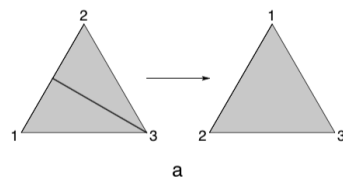
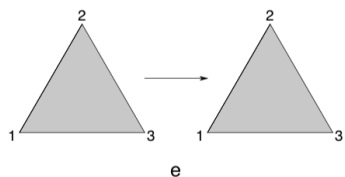
Group elements can be commutative (Abelian) but may not

Examples of groups:

- \mathbb{Z} , set of integers under addition
- \mathbb{Z}_n , set of integers mod n under addition
- \mathbb{Q} , set of rational numbers under addition
- \mathbb{R}^* , set of non-zero real numbers under multiplication
- $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$, set of all 2×2 invertible matrices under matrix multiplication

Group Theory

Group theory and representations



$$D_e = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D_a = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\sqrt{3} \\ -\sqrt{3} & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D_b = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$D_c = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D_d = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D_f = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \sqrt{3} \\ -\sqrt{3} & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Group Theory

Group theory and representations

Groups are not the only areas of abstract algebra (collections of objects with operations) that are useful:

- Rings
 - set with two operations - commutative \odot and associative \otimes
 - \mathbb{Z} , with addition and multiplication
- Fields
 - set with two commutative operators
 - \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C}
- Vector spaces
 - set of vectors V and a set of scalars F
 - V is a commutative group under vector addition
 - F is a field under multiplication
- Algebras
 - Vector space with a bilinear product
 - e.g. matrix multiplication $M(m,n) \times M(n,p) \rightarrow M(m,p)$

Summary

- Operators
- Functions
- Vectors
- Basis transformations
- Matrix Algebra
- Simultaneous equations
- Eigensystems
- Group theory