Linear Algebra

TECHNICAL REPORT

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Abstract

This is a short reference material on linear algebra following $Linear\ Algebra\ Done\ Right$ by Axler.

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1 Vector Spaces

A vector space is a set V along with an addition on V and a scalar multiplication on V s.t. the following properties hold:

- commutativity: $u + v = v + u \ \forall u, v \in V$,
- associativity: (u+v)+w=u+(v+w) and $(ab)v=a(bv) \ \forall u,v,w\in V, a,b\in\mathbb{F},$
- additive identity: $\exists ! 0 \in V \text{ s.t. } v + 0 = v \ \forall v \in V,$
- additive inverse: $\forall v \in \text{Var}, \exists ! w \in V \text{ s.t. } v + w = 0,$
- multiplicative identity: $1v = v \ \forall v \in V$,
- distributive properties: a(u+v) = au + av and $(a+b)v = av + bv \ \forall a,b \in \mathbb{F}, u,v \in V$.

If S is a set, then \mathbb{F}^S denotes the set of functions from S to \mathbb{F} . Note that \mathbb{F}^S is a vector space.

A subset $U \subset V$ is called a *subspace* of V if U is also a vector space (using the same addition and multiplication as on V).

A subset $U \subset V$ is a subspace of V iff $0 \in U$, U is closed under addition, and U is closed under scalar multiplications. Suppose $U_1, \ldots, U_m \subset V$. The sum of U_1, \ldots, U_m is defined as $\sum U_i = \{\sum u_i \mid u_1 \in U_1, \ldots, u_m \in U_m\}$.

Lemma 1.1. $\sum U_i$ is the smallest subspace of V that contains U_1, \ldots, U_m .

Additionally, the sum is called a *direct sum* if each element of $\sum U_i$ can be written in only one way as a sum $\sum u_i$, where each $u_i \in U_i$. If $\sum U_i$ is a direct sum, we use the notation $\bigoplus U_i$.

Lemma 1.2. Suppose $U_1, \ldots U_m \subset V$ are subspaces. Then $\sum U_i$ is a direct sum iff the only way to write 0 as a sum $\sum u_i$, where each $u_i \in U_i$, is by letting $u_i = 0 \ \forall i$.

Lemma 1.3. Suppose $U, W \subset V$ are subspaces. Then U + W is a direct sum iff $U \cap W = \{0\}$.

2 Finite-Dimensional Vector Spaces

2.1 Span and Linear Independence

A linear combination v_1, \ldots, v_m of vectors in V is a vector of the form $\sum a_i v_i$, where $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{F}$. The set of all linear combinations of a list of vectors v_1, \ldots, v_m is called the span of v_1, \ldots, v_m , denoted span $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$.

Lemma 2.1. The span of a list of vectors in V is the smallest subspace of V containing all the vectors in the list.

A list v_1, \ldots, v_m of vectors in V is called *linearly independent* if the only choice of $a_1, \ldots a_m \in \mathbb{F}$ that makes $\sum a_i = 0$ is $a_1 = \cdots = a_m = 0$. We also define the empty list to be linearly independent. A list of vectors in V is called *linearly dependent* if it is not linearly independent.

Lemma 2.2 (Linear dependence lemma). Suppose v_1, \ldots, v_m is linearly dependent in V. Then $\exists i \in [m]$ s.t. the following hold:

- (a) $v_i \in \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}\},\$
- (b) if the ith term is removed from v_1, \ldots, v_m , the span of the remaining vectors equals span $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$.

2.2 Bases

A basis of V is a list of vectors in V that is linearly independent and spans V.

Lemma 2.3. A list v_1, \ldots, v_n of vectors in V is a basis of V iff every $v \in V$ can be uniquely written in the form $v = \sum a_i v_i$, where $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{F}$.

Lemma 2.4. Every spanning list in a vector space can be reduced to a basis of the vector space.

Corollary 2.5. Every finite-dimensional vector space has a basis.

Lemma 2.6. Every linearly independent list of vectors in a finite-dimensional vector space can be extended to a basis of the vector space.

Lemma 2.7. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and $U \subset V$ is a subspace. Then there exists a subspace $W \subset V$ s.t. $V = U \oplus W$.

2.3 Dimension

We note that any two bases of a finite-dimensional vector space have the same length. The dimension $\dim V$ of a finite-dimensional vector space V is the length of any basis of the vector space.

Lemma 2.8. If U_1, U_2 are subspaces of a finite-dimensional vector space, then

$$\dim(U_1 + U_2) = \dim U_1 + \dim U_2 - \dim(U_1 \cap U_2).$$

3 Linear Maps

3.1 The Vector Space of Linear Maps

Suppose V, W are vector spaces. A linear map (or transformation) from V to W is a function $T: V \to W$ with the following properties:

- additivity: $T(u+v) = Tu + Tv \ \forall u, v \in V$,
- homogeneity: $T(\lambda v) = \lambda(Tv) \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V.$

We define the set of all linear maps from V to W by $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Proposition 3.1. Sippose v_1, \ldots, v_n is a basis of V and $w_1, \ldots, w_n \in W$. Then $\exists! T : V \to W$ linear s.t. $Tv_i = w_i \ \forall i \in [n]$.

Theorem 3.2. $\mathcal{L}(V,W)$ is a vector space.

If $T \in \mathcal{L}(U, V), S \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, then the product $ST \in \mathcal{L}(U, W)$ is defined by $(ST)u = S(Tu) \ \forall u \in U$.

3.2 Null Spaces and Ranges

For $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, the null space of T is the subset of V consisting of those vectors that T maps to 0:

$$\ker T = \{ v \in V \mid Tv = 0 \}.$$

Proposition 3.3. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then ker T is a subspace of V.

A function $T: V \to W$ is *injective* if Tu = Tv implies u = v.

Theorem 3.4. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then T is injective iff $\ker T = \{0\}$.

The range of T is the subset of W consisting of those vectors that are of the form Tv for some $v \in V$:

$$\operatorname{ran} T = \{ Tv \mid v \in V \}.$$

If $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, then ran T is a subspace of W. A function $T: V \to W$ is surjective if its range equals W.

Theorem 3.5 (Fundamental theorem of linear maps). Suppose V is finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then ran T is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim V = \dim \ker T + \dim \operatorname{ran} T.$$

Corollary 3.6. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional vector spaces. If $\dim V > \dim W$, then no linear map $V \to W$ is injective. Conversely, if $\dim V < \dim W$, then no linear map $V \to W$ is surjective.

3.3 Matrices

Let m, n be positive integers. An m-by-n matrix A is a rectangular array of elements \mathbb{F} with m rows and n columns:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1} & \cdots & A_{1,n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{m,1} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The notation $A_{j,k}$ denotes the entry in row j, column k of A. We denote the set of all m-by-n matrices with entries in \mathbb{F} as $\mathbb{F}^{m,n}$.

3.4 Invertability and Isomorphic Vector Spaces

A linear map $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is called *invertible* if $\exists S \in \mathcal{L}(W, V)$ s.t. $ST = I_V$ and $TS = I_W$. Such S is called an *inverse* of T. If T is invertible, then its inverse is denoted by T^{-1} .

Lemma 3.7. An invertible linear map has a unique inverse.

Lemma 3.8. A linear map is invertible iff it is injetive and surjective.

An *isomorphism* is an invertible linear map. Two vector spaces are *isomorphic* if there exists an isomorphism from one vector space onto the other one.

Lemma 3.9. Two finite-dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{F} are isomorphic iff they have the same dimension.

Lemma 3.10. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional. Then $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim \mathcal{L}(V, W) = \dim V \cdot \dim W.$$

A linear map from a vector space to itself is called an *operator*. The notation $\mathcal{L}(V)$ denotes the set of all operators on V, *i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}(V) = \mathcal{L}(V, V)$.

3.5 Products and Quotients of Vector Spaces

Suppose V_1, \ldots, V_m are vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . The product $V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m$ is defined by

$$V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m = \{(v_1, \dots, v_m) \mid v_1 \in V_1, \dots, v_m \in V_m\}.$$

Example 3.11. $\mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^3$ is not equal to \mathbb{R}^5 , but the two vector spaces are isomorphic.

Lemma 3.12. Suppose V_1, \ldots, V_m are finite-dimensional. Then $V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m$ is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim(V_1 \times \cdots \times V_m) = \dim V_1 + \cdots + \dim V_m.$$

Suppose $v \in V$ and U is a subspace of V. Then v + U is the subset of V defined by

$$v + U = \{v + u \mid u \in U\}.$$

An affine subset of V is a subset of V of the form v+U for some $v \in V$ and some subspace U of V. The affine subset v+U is said to be parallel to U. Then the quotient space V/U is the set of all affine subsets of V parallel to U, i.e.,

$$V/U = \{v + U \mid v \in V\}.$$

Define addition and scalar multiplication by the following:

$$(v+U) + (w+U) = (v+w) + U$$
$$\lambda(v+U) = (\lambda v) + U$$

for $v, w \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{F}$. Then V/U is a vector space.

Suppose U is a subspace of V. The quotient map π is the linear map $\pi: V \to V/U$ defined by

$$\pi(v) = v + U$$

for $v \in V$.

Lemma 3.13. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and U is a subspace of V. Then

$$\dim V/U = \dim V - \dim U.$$

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Define $\tilde{T}: V/(\ker T) \to W$ by

$$\tilde{T}(v + \ker T) = Tv.$$

Lemma 3.14. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then

- (a) \tilde{T} is a linear map from $V/(\ker T)$ to W,
- (b) \tilde{T} is injective,
- (c) $\operatorname{ran} \tilde{T} = \operatorname{ran} T$,
- (d) $V/(\ker T)$ is isomorphic to ran T.

3.6 Duality

A linear functional on V is a linear map from V to \mathbb{F} . In other words, a linear functional is an element of $\mathcal{L}(V,\mathbb{F})$. The dual space of V, denoted V' is the vector space of all linear functionals on V. In other words, $V' = \mathcal{L}(V,\mathbb{F})$.

Lemma 3.15. Suppose V is finite-dimensional. Then V' is also finite-dimensional and $\dim V' = \dim V$.

If v_1, \ldots, v_n is a basis of V, then the *dual basis* of v_1, \ldots, v_n is the list $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n$ of elements of V', where each φ_i is the linear functional on V such that

$$\varphi_j(v_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 3.16. Suppose V is finite-dimensional. Then the dual basis of a basis of V is a basis of V'.

If $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, then the dual map of T is the linear map $T' \in \mathcal{L}(W', V')$ defined by $T'(\varphi) = \varphi \circ T$ for $\varphi \in W'$.

Lemma 3.17. Dual maps have the following properties:

- (a) $(S+T)' = S' + T' \ \forall S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V,W)$.
- (b) $(\lambda T)' = \lambda T' \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W).$
- (c) $(ST)' = T'S' \ \forall T \in \mathcal{L}(U, V), S \in \mathcal{L}(V, W).$

For $U \in V$, the annihilator of U, denoted U^0 , is defined by

$$U^0 = \{ \varphi \in V' \mid \varphi(u) = 0 \ \forall u \in U \}.$$

Lemma 3.18. Suppose $U \subset V$. Then U^0 is a subspace of V'.

Lemma 3.19. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and U is a subspace of V. Then

$$\dim U + \dim U^0 = \dim V.$$

Lemma 3.20. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional. Then

- (a) $\ker T' = (\operatorname{ran} T)^0$,
- (b) $\dim \ker T' = \dim \ker T + \dim W \dim V$.

Lemma 3.21. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then T is surjective iff T' is injective.

Lemma 3.22. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then

- 1. $\dim \operatorname{ran} T' = \dim \operatorname{ran} T$,
- 2. ran $T' = (\ker T)^0$.

Lemma 3.23. Suppose V, W are finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then T is injective iff T' is surjective.

The *transpose* of a matrix A, denoted A^{\top} , is the matrix obtained from A by interchanging the rows and columns. More specifically, $A_{k,j}^{\top} = A_{j,k}$.

Lemma 3.24. If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and C is an $n \times p$ matrix, then

$$(AC)^{\top} = C^{\top} A^{\top}.$$

Lemma 3.25. Suppose $T \in \mathbf{L}(V, W)$. Then $\mathcal{M}(T') = (\mathcal{M}(T))^{\top}$.

Suppose A is an $m \times n$ matrix with entries in \mathbb{F} . The row rank of A is the dimension of the span of the rows of A in $\mathbb{F}^{1,n}$ and the column rank of A is the dimension of the span of the columns of A in $\mathbb{F}^{m,1}$. The rank of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{F}^{m,n}$ is the column rank of A.

4 Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, and Invariant Subspaces

4.1 Invariant Subspaces

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. A subspace U of V is called invariant under T if $u \in U$ implies $Tu \in U$.

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. A number $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ is called an *eigenvalue* of T if $\exists v \in V$ s.t. $v \neq 0$ and $Tv = \lambda v$. Such v is called an *eigenvector* of T corresponding to λ .

Lemma 4.1. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ are distinct eigenvalues of T and v_1, \ldots, v_m are corresponding eigenvectors. Then v_1, \ldots, v_m is linearly independent.

Corollary 4.2. Suppose V is finite-dimensional. Then each operator on V has at most $\dim V$ distinct eigenvalues.

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and U is a subspace of V invariant under T. The restriction operator $T_{|U} \in \mathcal{L}(U)$ is defined by $T_{|U}(u) = Tu$ for $u \in U$. The quotient operator $T/U \in \mathcal{L}(V/U)$ is defined by (T/U)(v + U) = Tv + U for $v \in V$.

4.2 Eigenvectors and Upper-Triangular Matrices

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and m is a positive integer. T^m is defined by

$$T^m = \underbrace{T \cdots T}_{m \text{ times}}.$$

 T^0 is defined to be I_V . If T is invertible with inverse T^{-1} , then T^{-m} is defined by $T^{-m} = (T^{-1})^m$. Suppose $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F})$ is a polynomial given by $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \cdots + a_m z^m$ for $z \in \mathbb{F}$. Then p(T) is the operator defined by $p(T) = a_0 I + a_1 T + a_2 T^2 + \cdots + a_m T^m$.

Theorem 4.3. Every operator on a finite-dimensional, nonzero, complex vector space has an eigenvalue.

The diagonal of a square matrix consists of the entries along the line from the upper left corner to the bottom right corner. A matrix is called upper triangular if all the entries below the diagonal equal 0.

Lemma 4.4. Suppose V is a finite-dimensional complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then T has an upper triangular matrix w.r.t some basis of V.

Lemma 4.5. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ has an upper triangular matrix wr.t. some basis of V. Then T is invertible iff all the entries on the diagonal of that upper triangular matrix are nonzero.

Lemma 4.6. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ has an upper triangular matrix w.r.t. . some basis of V. Then the eigenvalues of T are precisely the entries on the diagonal of that upper triangular matrix.

4.3 Eigenspaces and Diagonal Matrices

A diagonal matrix is a square matrix that is 0 everywhere except possibly along the diagonal. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V), \lambda \in \mathbb{F}$. The eigenspace of T corresponding to λ , denoted $E(\lambda, T)$, is defined by $E(\lambda, T) = \ker(T - \lambda I)$.

Lemma 4.7. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose also that $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ are distinct eigenvalues of T. Then

$$E(\lambda_1,T) + \cdots + E(\lambda_m,T)$$

is a direct sum. Furthermore,

$$\dim E(\lambda_1, T) + \dots + \dim E(\lambda_m, T) \le \dim V.$$

An operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is called *diagonalizable* if the operator has a diagonal matrix w.r.t. some basis of V.

Theorem 4.8. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ denote the distinct eigenvalues of T. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) T is diagonalizable,
- (b) V has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of T,
- (c) there exists 1-dimensional subspaces U_1, \ldots, U_n of V, each invariant under T, s.t. $V = \bigoplus U_i$,
- (d) $V = \bigoplus E(\lambda_i, T),$
- (e) dim $V = \sum \dim E(\lambda_i, T)$.

5 Inner Product Spaces

5.1 Inner Products and Norms

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the dot product of x and y, denoted $x \cdot y$, is defined by

$$x \cdot y = x_1 y_y + \dots + x_n y_n,$$

where
$$x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$$
 and $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$.

An inner product on V is a function that takes each ordered pair (u, v) of elements of V to a number $\langle u, v \rangle \in \mathbb{F}$ and has the following properties:

- positivity: $\langle v, v \rangle \ge 0 \ \forall v \in V$,
- definiteness: $\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \iff v = 0$,
- additivity in first slot: $\langle u+v, \rangle = \langle u,w \rangle + \langle v,w \rangle \ \forall u,v,w \in V$,
- homogeneity in first slot: $\langle \lambda u, v \rangle = \lambda \langle u, v \rangle \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, u, v \in V$,
- conjugate symmetry: $\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle} \ \forall u, v \in V$.

An inner product space is a vector space V equipped with an inner product. The following are basic properties of an inner product:

- (a) $\forall u \in V$ fixed, the function $v \mapsto \langle v, u \rangle$ is a linear map from V to \mathbb{F} .
- (b) $\langle 0, u \rangle = 0 \ \forall u \in V$.
- (c) $\langle u, 0 \rangle = 0 \ \forall u \in V$.
- (d) $\langle u, v + w \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle + \langle u, w \rangle \ \forall u, v, w \in V.$
- (e) $\langle u, \lambda v \rangle = \overline{\lambda} \langle u, v \rangle \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, u, v \in V.$

For $v \in V$, the norm of v, denoted ||v|| is defined by $||v|| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$. The norm has the following basic properties:

- (a) $||v|| = 0 \iff v = 0$.
- (b) $\|\lambda v\| = |\lambda| \|v\| \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}.$

Two vectors $u, v \in V$ are called *orthogonal* if $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$, denoted $u \perp v$.

Theorem 5.1 (Pythagorean theorem). Suppose $u \perp v$ in V. Then

$$||u + v||^2 = ||u||^2 + ||v||^2.$$

Lemma 5.2. Suppose $u, v \in V$, with $v \neq 0$. Set $c = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|v\|^2}$ and $w = u - \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|v\|^2}$. Then $\langle w, v \rangle = 0$ and u = cv + w.

The above lemma is used in the proof of Cauchy-Schwartz inequality.

Theorem 5.3 (Cauchy-Schwartz inequality). Suppose $u, v \in V$. Then $|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq ||u|| ||v||$. Furthermore, the equality holds iff one of u, v is a scalar multiple of the other.

Theorem 5.4 (Triangle inequality). Suppose $u, v \in V$. Then $||u+v|| \le ||u|| + ||v||$. Furthermore, the equality holds iff one of u, v is a nonnegative multiple of the other.

Theorem 5.5 (Parallelogram equality). Suppose $u, v \in V$, then $||u + v||^2 + ||u - v||^2 = 2(||u||^2 + ||v||^2)$.

5.2 Orthonormal Bases

A list of vectors is called *orthonormal* if each vector in the list has norm 1 and is orthogonal to all the other vectors in the list.

Lemma 5.6. If e_1, \ldots, e_m is an orthonormal list of vectors in V, then

$$||a_1e_1 + \dots + a_me_m||^2 = |a_1|^2 + \dots + |a_m|^2$$

 $\forall a_1, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{F}.$

An orthonormal basis of V is an orthonormal list of vectors in V that is also a basis of V.

Lemma 5.7. Suppose e_1, \ldots, e_n is an orthonormal basis of V and $v \in V$. Then

$$v = \langle v, e_1 \rangle e_1 + \dots + \langle v, e_n \rangle e_n$$

and

$$||v||^2 = |\langle v, e_1 \rangle|^2 + \dots + |\langle v, e_n \rangle|^2.$$

The following algorithm can be used to turn a linearly independent list of vectors into a orthonormal list with the same span as the original list:

Theorem 5.8 (Gram-Schmidt procedure). Suppose v_1, \ldots, v_m is a linearly independent list of vectors in V. Let $e_1 = v_1/\|v_1\|$. For $j = 2, \ldots, m$, define e_j inductively by

$$e_j = \frac{v_j - \langle v_j, e_1 \rangle e_1 - \dots - \langle v_j, e_{j-1} \rangle e_{j-1}}{\|v_i - \langle v_i, e_1 \rangle e_1 - \dots - \langle v_i, e_{j-1} \rangle e_{j-1}\|}.$$

Then e_1, \ldots, e_m is an orthonormal list of vectors in V s.t. $\operatorname{span}\{v_1, \ldots, v_j\} = \operatorname{span}\{e_1, \ldots, e_j\}$ for $j = 1, \ldots, m$.

Theorem 5.9. Every finite-dimensional inner product space has an orthonormal basis.

Lemma 5.10. Suppose V is finite-dimensional. Then every orthonormal list of vectors in V can be extended to an orthonormal basis of V.

Theorem 5.11 (Schur's theorem). Suppose V is a finite-dimensional complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then T has an upper-triangular matrix w.r.t. some orthonormal basis of V.

A linear functional on V is a linear map from V to \mathbb{F} . In other words, a linear functional is an element of $\mathcal{L}(V,\mathbb{F})$.

Theorem 5.12 (Riesz representation theorem). Suppose V is finite-dimensional and φ is a linear functional on V. Then $\exists ! u \in V$ s.t. $\varphi(v) = \langle v, u \rangle \ \forall v \in V$.

5.3 Orthogonal Complements and Minimization Problems

If $U \subset V$, then the *orthogonal complement* of U, denoted U^{\perp} , is the set of all vectors in V that are orthogonal to every vector in U:

$$U^{\perp} = \{ v \in V \mid \langle v, u \rangle = 0 \ \forall u \in U \}.$$

The following are properties of the orthogonal complement:

- (a) If $U \subset V$, then U^{\perp} is a subspace of V.
- (b) $\{0\}^{\perp} = V$.
- (c) $V^{\perp} = \{0\}.$
- (d) If $U \subset V$, then $U \cap U^{\perp} \subset \{0\}$.
- (e) If $U, W \subset V$ and $U \subset W$, then $W^{\perp} \subset U^{\perp}$.

Theorem 5.13. Suppose U is a finite-dimensional subspace of V. Then $V = U \oplus U^{\perp}$.

Corollary 5.14. Suppose V is finite-dimensional and U is a subspace of V, then $\dim U^{\perp} = \dim V - \dim U$.

Theorem 5.15. Suppose U is a finite-dimensional subspace of V. Then $U = (U^{\perp})^{\perp}$.

Suppose U is a finite-dimensional subspace of V. The orthogonal projection of V onto U is the operator $P_U \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ defined as follows: for $v \in V$, write v = u + w, where $u \in U, w \in U^{\perp}$. Then $P_U v = u$. The projection operator has the following properties:

- (a) $P_U \in \mathcal{L}(V)$,
- (b) $P_U u = u \ \forall u \in U$,
- (c) $P_U w = 0 \ \forall w \in U^{\perp}$,
- (d) ran $P_U = U$,
- (e) $\ker P_U = U^{\perp}$,
- (f) $v P_U v \in U^{\perp}$,

- (g) $P_U^2 = P_U$,
- (h) $||P_U v|| \le ||v||$,
- (i) for every orthonormal basis e_1, \ldots, e_m of U,

$$P_U v = \langle v, e_1 \rangle e_1 + \dots + \langle v, e_m \rangle e_m.$$

Lemma 5.16. Suppose U is a finite-dimensional subspace of V, $v \in V$, and $u \in U$. Then $||v-P_Uv|| \le ||v-u||$. Furthermore, the inequality is an equality iff $u = P_Uv$.

6 Operators on Inner Product Spaces

6.1 Self-Adjoint and Normal Operators

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. The adjoint of T is the function $T^*: W \to V$ s.t. $\langle Tv, w \rangle = \langle v, T^*w \rangle \ \forall v \in V, w \in W$.

Lemma 6.1. If $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, then $T^* \in \mathcal{L}(W, V)$.

Adjoint operators have the following properties:

- (a) $(S+T)^* = S^* + T^* \ \forall S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W),$
- (b) $(\lambda T)^* = \overline{\lambda} T^* \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{F}, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W),$
- (c) $(T^*)^* = T \ \forall T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W),$
- (d) $I^* = I$,
- (e) $(ST)^* = T^*S^* \ \forall T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W), S \in \mathcal{L}(W, U).$

Theorem 6.2. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then

- (a) $\ker T^* = (\operatorname{ran} T)^{\perp}$,
- (b) ran $T^* = (\ker T)^{\perp}$,
- (c) $\ker T = (\operatorname{ran} T^*)^{\perp}$,
- (d) ran $T = (\ker T^*)^{\perp}$.

An operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is called *self-adjoint* if $T = T^*$. In otherwords, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is self-adjoint iff $\langle Tv, w \rangle = \langle v, Tw \rangle \ \forall v, w \in V$.

Lemma 6.3. Every eigenvalue of a self-adjoint operator is real.

Note that the following theorem is false for real inner product spaces.

Theorem 6.4. Suppose V is a complex inner product space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose $\langle Tv, v \rangle = 0 \forall v \in V$. Then T = 0.

Lemma 6.5. Suppose V is a complex inner product space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then T is self-adjoint iff $\langle Tv, v \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \ \forall v \in V$.

Lemma 6.6. Suppose T is self-adjoint on V s.t. $\langle Tv, v \rangle = 0 \ \forall v \in V$. Then T = 0.

An operator on an inner product space is called *normal* if it commutes with its adjoint. In other words, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is normal if $TT^* = T^*T$. Obviously every self-adjoint operator is normal.

Lemma 6.7. An operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is normal iff $||Tv|| = ||T^*v|| \ \forall v \in V$.

Lemma 6.8. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is normal and $v \in V$ is an eigenvector of T with eigenvalue λ . Then v is also an eigenvector of T^* with eigenvalue $\overline{\lambda}$.

Lemma 6.9. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is normal. Then eigenvectors of T corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

6.2 The Spectral Theorem

The spectral theorem is probably the most useful tool in the study of operators on inner product spaces.

Theorem 6.10 (Complex spectral theorem). Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) T is normal.
- (b) V has an orthonormal basis consisting of eigenvectors of T.
- (c) T has a diagonal matrix w.r.t. some orthonormal basis of V.

To prove the real spectral theorem, we need some preliminary results:

Lemma 6.11. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is self-adjoint and $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $b^2 < 4c$. Then $T^2 + bT + cI$ is invertible.

Lemma 6.12. Suppose $V \neq \{0\}$ and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is self-adjoint. Then T has an eigenvalue.

Lemma 6.13. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is self-adjoint and U is a subspace of V that is invariant under T. Then

- (a) U^{\perp} is invariant under T,
- (b) $T_{|U} \in \mathcal{L}(U)$ is self-adjoint,
- (c) $T_{|U^{\perp}} \in \mathcal{L}(U^{\perp})$ is self-adjoint.

Theorem 6.14 (Real spectral theorem). Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) T is self-adjoint.
- (b) V has an orthonormal basis consisting of eigenvectors of T.
- (c) T has a diagonal matrix w.r.t. some orthonormal basis of V.

6.3 Positive Operators and Isometries

An operator $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is called *positive* if it is self-adjoint and $\langle Tv, v \rangle \geq 0 \ \forall v \in V$. An operator R is called a square root of an operator T if $R^2 = T$.

Theorem 6.15. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) T is positive,
- (b) T is self-adjoint and all the eigenvalues of T are nonnegative,
- (c) T has a positive square root,
- (d) T has a self-adjoint square root,
- (e) $\exists R \in \mathcal{L}(V) \text{ s.t. } T = R^*R.$

Lemma 6.16. Every positive operator on V has a unique positive square root.

We use $\sqrt{\cdot}$ to denote the square root of a positive operator. An operator $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is called an *isometry* if $||Sv|| = ||v|| \ \forall v \in V$. In other words, an operator is an isometry if it preserves norms.

Theorem 6.17. Suppose $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) S is an isometry,
- (b) $\langle Su, Sv \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle \ \forall u, v \in V$,
- (c) Se_1, \ldots, Se_n is orthonormal for every orthonormal list of vectors e_1, \ldots, e_n in V,
- (d) there exists an orthonormal basis e_1, \ldots, e_n of V s.t. Se_1, \ldots, Se_n is orthonormal,
- (e) $S^*S = I$,
- (f) $SS^* = I$,
- (q) S^* is an isometry,
- (h) S is invertible and $S^{-1} = S^*$.

Theorem 6.18. Suppose V is a complex inner product space and $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) S is an isometry.
- (b) There is an orthonormal basis of V consisting of eigenvectors of S whose corresponding eigenvalues all have absolute value 1.

6.4 Polar Decomposition and Singular Value Decomposition

Theorem 6.19 (Polar decomposition theorem). Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then there exists an isometry $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ s.t. $T = S\sqrt{T^*T}$.

The polar decomposition theorem states that each operator on V is the product of an isometry and a positive operator.

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. The singular values of T are the eigenvalues of $\sqrt{T^*T}$, with each eigenvalue λ repeated $\dim E(\lambda, \sqrt{T^*T})$ times.

Theorem 6.20 (Singular value decomposition). Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ has singular values s_1, \ldots, s_n . Then there exists orthonormal bases e_1, \ldots, e_n and f_1, \ldots, f_n of V s.t.

$$Tv = s_1 \langle ev, e_1 \rangle f_1 + \dots + s_n \langle v, e_n \rangle f_n$$

 $\forall v \in V$.

Lemma 6.21. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the singular values of T are the nonnegative square roots of the eigenvalues of T^*T , with each eigenvalue λ repeated dim $E(\lambda, T^*T)$ times.

7 Operators on Complex Vector Spaces

Lemma 7.1. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

$$\{0\} = \ker T^0 \subset \ker T^1 \subset \cdots \subset \ker T^k \subset \ker T^{k+1} \subset \cdots$$

Furthermore, let $n = \dim V$. Then

$$\ker T^n = \ker T^{n+1} = \ker T^{n+2} = \cdots$$

Theorem 7.2. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $n = \dim V$. Then

$$V = \ker T^n \oplus \operatorname{ran} T^n.$$

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and λ is an eigenvalue of T. A vector $v \in V$ is called a *generalized eigenvector* of T corresponding to λ if $v \neq 0$ and $(T - \lambda I)^j v = 0$ for some $j \in \mathbb{N}$. In fact, we will see that every generalized eigenvector satisfies this equation with $j = \dim V$. The *generalized eigenspace* of T corresponding to λ , denoted $G(\lambda, T)$, is defined to be the set of all generalized eigenvectors of T corresponding to λ , along with the 0 vector. Note that $E(\lambda, T) \subset G(\lambda, T)$.

Lemma 7.3. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$. Then $G(\lambda, T) = \ker(T - \lambda I)^{\dim V}$.

Theorem 7.4. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ are distinct eigenvalues of T and v_1, \ldots, v_m are corresponding generalized eigenvectors. Then v_1, \ldots, v_m is linearly independent.

An operator is called *nilpotent* if some power of it equals 0.

Lemma 7.5. Suppose $N \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is nilpotent. Then $N^{\dim V} = 0$.

7.1 Decomposition of an Operator

In this section, we will see that every operator on a finite-dimensional complex vector space has enough generalized eigenvectors to provide a decomposition.

Lemma 7.6. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F})$. Then $\ker p(T)$ and $\operatorname{ran} p(T)$ are invariant under T.

Theorem 7.7. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be the distinct eigenvalues of T. Then

- (a) $V = G(\lambda_1, T) \oplus \cdots \oplus G(\lambda_m, T)$,
- (b) each $G(\lambda_i, T)$ is invariant under T,
- (c) each $(T \lambda_j I_{|G(\lambda_j,T)})$ is nilpotent.

Theorem 7.8. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then there is a basis of V consisting of generalized eigenvectors of T.

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. The multiplicity of an eigenvalue λ of T is defined to be the dimension of the corresponding generalized eigenspace $G(\lambda, T)$. In other words, the multiplicity of an eigenvalue λ of T equals $\dim \ker(T - \lambda I)^{\dim V}$.

Lemma 7.9. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the sum of the multiplicites of all the eigenvalues of T equals dim V.

A block diagonal matrix is a square matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & A_m \end{pmatrix},$$

where A_1, \ldots, A_m are square matrices lying along the diagonal and all the other entries of the matrix equal 0.

Theorem 7.10. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ be the distinct eigenvalues of T, with multiplicities d_1, \ldots, d_m . Then there is a basis of V w.r.t. which T has a block diagonal matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & A_m \end{pmatrix},$$

where each A_j is a $d_j \times d_j$ upper-triangular matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j & & * \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_j \end{pmatrix}.$$

Lemma 7.11. Suppose $N \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is nilpotent. Then I + N has a square root.

Lemma 7.12. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is invertible. Then T has a square root.

7.2 Characteristic and Minimal Polynomials

Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ denote the distinct eigenvalues of T, with multiplicities d_1, \ldots, d_m . The polynomial

$$(z-\lambda_1)^{d_1}\cdots(z-\lambda_m)^{d_m}$$

is called the *characteristic polynomial* of T.

Lemma 7.13. Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

- (a) the characteristic polynomial of T has degree $\dim V$,
- (b) the zeros of the characteristic polynomial of T are the eigenvalues of T.

Theorem 7.14 (Cayley-Hamilton theorem). Suppose V is a complex vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Le q denote the characteristic polynomial of T. Then q(T) = 0.

A monic polynomial is a polynomial whose highest-degree coefficient equals 1.

Lemma 7.15. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then there is a unique monic polynomial p of smallest degree s.t. p(T) = 0.

The above lemma justifies the following definition. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the minimal polynomial of T is the unique monic polynomial p of smallest degree s.t. p(T) = 0.

Lemma 7.16. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the characteristic polynomial of T is a polynomial multiple of the minimal polynomial of T.

Lemma 7.17. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the zeros of the minimal polynomial are precisely the eigenvalues of T.

7.3 Jordan Form

Theorem 7.18. Suppose $N \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is nilpotent. Then there exists vectors $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in V$ and nonnegative integers m_1, \ldots, m_n s.t.

- 1. $N^{m_1}v_1, \ldots, Nv_1, v_1, \ldots, N^{m_n}v_n, \ldots, Nv_n, v_n$ is a basis of V,
- 2. $N^{m_1+1}v_1 = \cdots = N^{m_n+1}v_n = 0.$

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. A basis of V is called a *Jordan basis* for T if w.r.t. this basis T has a block diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & A_p \end{pmatrix},$$

where each A_i is an upper-triangular matrix of the form

$$A_j = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_j & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_j \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 7.19. Suppose V is a complex vector space. If $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, then there is a basis of V that is a Jordan basis for T.

8 Operators on Real Vector Spaces

8.1 Complexification

Suppose V is a real vector space. The *complexification* of V, denoted $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ equals $V \times V$. An element of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ is an ordered pair (u, v), where $u, v \in V$, but we will write this as u + iv.

Lemma 8.1. Suppose V is a real vector space.

- (a) If v_1, \ldots, v_n is a basis of V, then v_1, \ldots, v_n is a basis of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$.
- (b) $\dim V_{\mathbb{C}} = \dim V$.

Suppose V is a real vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. The complexification of T, denoted $T_{\mathbb{C}}$, is the operator $T_{\mathbb{C}} \in \mathcal{L}(V_{\mathbb{C}})$ defined by

$$T_{\mathbb{C}}(u+iv) = Tu + iTv$$

for $u, v \in V$.

Suppose V is a real vector space with basis v_1, \ldots, v_n and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then $\mathcal{M}(T) = \mathcal{M}(T_{\mathbb{C}})$, where both matrices are w.r.t. the basis v_1, \ldots, v_n .

Theorem 8.2. Every operator on a nonzero finite-dimensional vector space has an invariant subspace of dimension 1 or 2.

Lemma 8.3. Suppose V is a real vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the minimal polynomial of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$ equals the minimal polynomial of T.

Lemma 8.4. Suppose V is a real vector space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then λ is an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$ iff λ is an eigenvalue of T.

Lemma 8.5. Suppose V is a real vector space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, and $u, v \in V$. Then $(T_{\mathbb{C}} - \lambda I)^{j}(u + iv) = 0$ iff $(T_{\mathbb{C}}) - \overline{\lambda}I)^{j}(u - iv) = 0$.

Lemma 8.6. Suppose V is a real vector space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, and $u, v \in V$. Then $(T_{\mathbb{C}} - \lambda I)^{j}(u + iv) = 0$ iff $(T_{\mathbb{C}} - \overline{\lambda}I)^{j}(u - iv) = 0$.

Corollary 8.7. Suppose V is a real vector space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Then λ is an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$ iff $\overline{\lambda}$ is an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$.

Lemma 8.8. Suppose V is a real vector space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$. Then the multiplicity of λ as an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$ equals the multiplicity of $\overline{\lambda}$ as an eigenvalue of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$.

Corollary 8.9. Every operator on an odd-dimensional real vector space has an eigenvalue.

Lemma 8.10. Suppose V is a real vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$ are all real.

Suppose V is a real vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the *characteristic polynomial* of T is defined to be the characteristic polynomial of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$.

Theorem 8.11. Suppose V is a real vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

- (a) the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of T are all real,
- (b) the characteristic polynomial of T has degree $\dim V$,
- (c) the eigenvalues of T are precisely the real zeros of the characteristic polynomial of T.

Theorem 8.12 (Cayley-Hamilton theorem). Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let q denote the characteristic polynomial of T. Then q(T) = 0.

Theorem 8.13. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

- (a) the degree of the minimal polynomial of T is at most dim V,
- (b) the characteristic polynomial of T is a polynomial multiple of the minimal polynomial of T.

8.2 Operators on Real Inner Product Spaces

Theorem 8.14. Suppose V is a real inner product space, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is normal, and U is a subspace of V that is invariant under T. Then

- (a) U^{\perp} is invariant under T,
- (b) U is invariant under T^* ,
- (c) $(T_{|U})^* = (T^*)_{|U}$,
- (d) $T_{|U} \in \mathcal{L}(U)$ and $T_{|U^{\perp}} \in \mathcal{L}(U^{\perp})$ are normal operators.

Theorem 8.15. Suppose V is a real inner product space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) T is normal.
- (b) There is an orthonormal basis of V w.r.t. which T has a block diagonal matrix s.t. each block is a 1×1 matrix or a 2×2 matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$$
,

with b > 0.

Theorem 8.16. Suppose V is a real inner product space and $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) S is an isometry.
- (b) There is an orthonormal basis of V w.r.t. which S has a block diagonal matrix s.t. each block on the diagonal is a 1×1 matrix containing 1 or -1 or is a 2×2 matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix},$$

with $\theta \in (0, \pi)$.

9 Trace and Determinant

9.1 Trace

Recall that a square matrix A is called *invertible* if there is a square matrix B of the same size s.t. AB = BA = I, which we call B the *inverse* of A and denote it by A^{-1} .

Theorem 9.1 (Change of basis formula). Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let u_1, \ldots, u_n and v_1, \ldots, v_n be bases of V. Let $A = \mathcal{M}(I, (u_1, \ldots, u_n), (v_1, \ldots, v_n))$. Then

$$\mathcal{M}(T,(u_1,\ldots,u_n))=A^{-1}\mathcal{M}(T,(v_1,\ldots,v_n))A.$$

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then the *trace* of T is the sum of the elements of T, with each eigenvalue repeated according to its multiplicity. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, then the trace of T is the same result as above but with the eigenvalues of $T_{\mathbb{C}}$. The trace of T is denoted by trace T.

Lemma 9.2. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $n = \dim V$. Then trace T equals the negative of the coefficient of z^{n-1} in the characteristic polynomial of T.

The trace of a square matrix A is defined to be the sum of the diagonal entries of A.

Lemma 9.3. If A, B are square matrices of the same size, then trace AB = trace BA.

Theorem 9.4. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose u_1, \ldots, u_n and v_1, \ldots, v_n are bases of V. Then

trace
$$\mathcal{M}(T, (u_1, \dots, u_n)) = \operatorname{trace} \mathcal{M}(T, (v_1, \dots, v_n)).$$

Corollary 9.5. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then trace $T = \operatorname{trace} \mathcal{M}(T)$.

Lemma 9.6. Suppose $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then $\operatorname{trace}(S+T) = \operatorname{trace} S + \operatorname{trace} T$.

The proof of the following theorem uses traces.

Theorem 9.7. $\not\exists S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V) \text{ s.t. } ST - TS = I.$

9.2 Determinant

Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, then the *determinant* of T is the product of the eigenvalues of T, with each eigenvalue repeated according to its multiplicity. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, then the determinant of T is the same as above but using $T_{\mathbb{C}}$. The determinant of T is denoted by $\det T$.

Lemma 9.8. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Let $n = \dim V$. Then $\det T$ equals $(-1)^n$ times the constant term of the characteristic polynomial of T.

Theorem 9.9. An operator on V is invertible iff its determinant is nonzero.

Theorem 9.10. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then the characteristic polynomial of T equals $\det(zI - T)$.

A permutation of [n] is a list that contains each of the numbers exactly once. Denote the set of all permutations of [n] as perm n. The sign of a permutation is defined to be 1 if the number of pairs of integers (j,k) with $1 \le j < k \le n$ s.t. j appears after k in the list is even and -1 if the number of such pairs is odd. Note that interchanging two entries in a permutation multiplies the sign of the permutation by -1.

Suppose A is an $n \times n$ matrix. The determinant of A, denoted det A, is defined by

$$\det A = \sum_{\sigma \in \operatorname{perm} n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot A_{m_1,1} \cdots A_{m_n,n}.$$

Lemma 9.11. Suppose A is a square matrix and B is the matrix obtained from A by interchanging two columns. Then $\det A = -\det B$.

Corollary 9.12. If A is a square matrix that has two equal columns, then $\det A = 0$.

Lemma 9.13. Suppose A, B are square matrices of the same size. Then $\det AB = \det BA = \det A \cdot \det B$.

Theorem 9.14. Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Suppose $u_1, \ldots u_n$ and v_1, \ldots, v_n are bases of V. Then

$$\det \mathcal{M}(T, (u_1, \dots, u_n)) = \det \mathcal{M}(T, (v_1, \dots, v_n)).$$

Theorem 9.15. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then $\det T = \det \mathcal{M}(T)$.

Theorem 9.16. Suppose $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

$$\det ST = \det TS = \det S \cdot \det T.$$

Theorem 9.17. Suppose V is an inner product space and $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is an isometry. Then $|\det S| = 1$.

Theorem 9.18. Suppose V is an inner product space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Then

$$|\det T| = \det \sqrt{T^*T}.$$

For T a function defined on a set Ω , define $T(\Omega)$ by $T(\Omega) = \{Tx \mid x \in \Omega\}$.

Lemma 9.19. Suppose $S \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is an isometry and $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $\operatorname{vol} S(\Omega) = \operatorname{vol} \Omega$.

Theorem 9.20. Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $\operatorname{vol} T(\Omega) = |\det T| \cdot \operatorname{vol} \Omega$.