

Advanced Linear Algebra

MT2123

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Lecture
1

Determinants : (2×2 & 3×3 .)

- Definition of $\det(A)$, A - 2×2 or 3×3 matrix.
- Basic Properties
- Examples.

§1.1 Definition of Determinant:

(1)

- F denotes a field. Most of the time $F = \mathbb{R}$ or $F = \mathbb{C}$.
(Sometimes, $F = \mathbb{Q}$ (rationals) or \mathbb{F}_q -finite field).

- $M_{n \times n}(F)$ = all $n \times n$ -matrices with entries in F .

If $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, then we write $A = [a_{ij}]$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.

a_{ij} = entry in the i^{th} -row and j^{th} -column.

- $\det : M_{n \times n}(F) \longrightarrow F$

Determinant is a function, denoted "det", that takes as input an $n \times n$ -matrix A & gives us a scalar output denoted $\det(A)$.

- We will cover the general theory of determinants next week. Today we remind ourselves the definition when $n=2$ and $n=3$.

- Determinant of a 2×2 -matrix

$$\boxed{\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc}$$

- ($n=3$) The definition is a little more complicated.
we can expand w.r.t. (with respect to) any row or column. Let's see this expanded w.r.t the first row.

(2)

• Determinant of a 3×3 -matrix.

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= a_{11} \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} - a_{12} \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} + a_{13} \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

Think of this formula as:

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^3 a_{1j} C_{1j}(A)$$

$$C_{ij}(A) = (i, j)^{\text{th}}\text{-cofactor} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij}(A))$$

$M_{ij}(A) = (i, j)^{\text{th}}$ -minor = matrix obtained by deleting the i^{th} -row & j^{th} column from A

Example: Compute the determinant of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} &= 1 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} - 2 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 1 \cdot (5 \cdot 9 - 8 \cdot 6) - 2 \cdot (4 \cdot 9 - 7 \cdot 6) + 3 \cdot (4 \cdot 8 - 7 \cdot 5) \\ &= 45 - 48 - 2(36 - 42) + 3(32 - 35) \\ &= -3 - 2(-6) + 3(-3) \\ &= -3 + 12 - 9 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

1.2 Basic Properties of determinant function:

(3)

Proposition:

Let $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

(i) $\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B)$.

(ii) If A' is obtained from A by interchanging two rows then

$$\det(A') = -\det(A)$$

(iii) If A' is obtained from A by adding a constant times a row to another row then:

$$\det(A') = \det(A)$$

(iv) If A' is obtained from A by replacing the i^{th} -row by a nonzero constant c times the i^{th} row then:

$$\det(A') = c \cdot \det(A).$$

(v) If ${}^T A$ = transpose of A then

$$\det({}^T A) = \det(A).$$

(vi) $\det(I_n) = 1.$ $I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $n \times n$ - identity matrix

(vii) If A is invertible then $\det(A) \neq 0$ and furthermore: $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.

• (i), (iii), (iv) also hold for elementary column operations.

• We will prove this proposition after discussing the general theory of determinants.

(4)

1.3 Examples / Exercises:

① $\det(I_n) = 1$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1, \quad \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1.$$

② Determinant of a diagonal matrix is the product of the diagonal entries

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} = ab \quad \det \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = a \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = abc.$$

③ Determinant of an upper-triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ & c \end{bmatrix} = ac$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ & & f \end{bmatrix} &= a \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} d & e \\ 0 & f \end{bmatrix} - b \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e \\ 0 & f \end{bmatrix} + c \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= a(df) - b(0) + c(0) = adf. \end{aligned}$$

(It's simpler to expand via the 1st column.)

④ Exercise: Prove the proposition for 2×2 -matrices.

For e.g. if $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \quad {}^T A = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$

$$\det({}^T A) = \det \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - cb = \det(A).$$

⑤ Exercise: (True / False?)

(i) Determinant of a lower triangular matrix is the product of diagonal entries.

(ii) If P is an invertible matrix then

$$\det(PAP^{-1}) = \det(A).$$

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Lecture 2 | Theory of Determinants - I.

- Multilinear functions.
- Alternating functions
- Determinant function on $M_{n \times n}(F)$.
- Theorem: Determinant function exists.

(1)

§2.1 Multilinear functions

Let V be a vector space over a field F . (Just take $F = \mathbb{R}$)

Let $n \geq 1$ be a positive integer.

- A multilinear function on V is a function:

$$T: \underbrace{V \times \cdots \times V}_n \longrightarrow F$$

(domain = n -fold product of V , range = F - base field)

such that: for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, T is a linear function

w.r.t. the i^{th} variable keeping the other $(n-1)$ -variables fixed.

- For a given n , we also call this function n -linear.

- $n=1$: just a linear fn.

$n=2$: bilinear function

(we will study this in great detail later in the course.)

- Linearity in the i^{th} variable means:

$$T(v_1, \dots, a v_i + b v'_i, \dots, v_n) = a T(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_n)$$

$$+ b \cdot T(v_1, \dots, v'_i, \dots, v_n)$$

$\left(\begin{array}{l} v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}, v_i, \dots, v_n \text{ are fixed.} \\ a, b \text{ any scalars, } v_i, v'_i \text{ any vectors.} \end{array} \right)$

- Example: $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ $v \in \mathbb{R}^3$ we write as $v = (x, y, z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i) Bilinear fn. on } \mathbb{R}^3 : T(v, v') &= T((x, y, z), (x', y', z')) \\ &= xy' - yx' + zz' \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(ii) } A((x, y, z), (x', y', z')) = (xx')^2 + (yy')^2 + (zz')^2 \text{ is } \underline{\text{not bilinear}}$$

2.2 Alternating functions:

(2)

Let V - vector space/ F , $n \geq 1$.

- an alternating n -linear function is an n -linear function

$A : \underbrace{V \times \dots \times V}_n \rightarrow F$ such that

$A(v_1, \dots, v_n) = 0$ whenever any two of the variables v_i, v_j are equal.

- Lemma:

If A is alternating n -linear fn. on V then

$A(v'_1, \dots, v'_n) = -A(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ if (v'_1, \dots, v'_n) is obtained from (v_1, \dots, v_n) by interchanging two of the variables.

Pf.: Only two variables matter and so it is best to see the proof for bilinear alternating fn. $A : V \times V \rightarrow F$. Let $v, w \in V$.

$$0 = A(v+w, v+w) = \underbrace{A(v, v)}_0 + A(v, w) + A(w, v) + \underbrace{A(w, w)}_0$$

$$\Rightarrow A(v, w) + A(w, v) = 0 \Rightarrow A(v, w) = -A(w, v). \quad \blacksquare$$

Examples: $V = \mathbb{R}^3$

(i) $A((x, y, z), (x', y', z')) = xz' - x'y$ is alternating.

(ii) $A((x, y, z), (x', y', z')) = xx' + yy' + zz'$ is bilinear but not alternating. (It is "symmetric": $A(v, w) = A(w, v)$.)

§2.3 Determinant function on $M_{n \times n}(F)$:

(3)

- Now we take $V = n$ -dimensional vector space/ F .

Fix a basis; using which we identify $V = F^n$.

Any $v \in V$ is of the form $v = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \quad a_i \in F$.

For n -linear functions on F^n we look at functions on $\underbrace{F^n \times \dots \times F^n}_n$. But this is the same as $M_{n \times n}(F)$, by thinking of a matrix $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ as an n -tuple (R_1, \dots, R_n) of its rows, with each $R_i \in F^n$.

$$M_{n \times n}(F) \xrightarrow{\sim} F^n \times \dots \times F^n$$

$$R_i = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{in})$$

$$A \longleftrightarrow (R_1, \dots, R_n)$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} R_1 \\ \vdots \\ R_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Definitions:

A determinant function on $M_{n \times n}(F)$

$$D : M_{n \times n}(F) \longrightarrow F$$

alternating n -linear function of the rows, normalised

by $D(I_n) = 1$. ; $I_n = n \times n$ - identity matrix.

- Why ask for $D(I_n) = 1$?

- Example: ($n=2$) : $D : M_{2 \times 2}(F) \rightarrow F$. $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} R_1 = (a_{11}, a_{12}) &= a_{11} \varepsilon_1 + a_{12} \varepsilon_2 \\ R_2 = (a_{21}, a_{22}) &= a_{21} \varepsilon_1 + a_{22} \varepsilon_2 \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \varepsilon_1 = (1, 0), \quad \varepsilon_2 = (0, 1) \\ \text{Standard basis for } F^2. \end{array} \right.$$

$$D(A) = D(R_1, R_2) = D(a_{11} \varepsilon_1 + a_{12} \varepsilon_2, a_{21} \varepsilon_1 + a_{22} \varepsilon_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= a_{11} a_{21} D(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_1) + a_{11} a_{22} D(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) + a_{12} a_{21} D(\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1) + a_{12} a_{22} D(\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_2) \\ &= (a_{11} a_{22} - a_{12} a_{21}) D(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2) \\ &= \underline{\det(A) \cdot D(I_2)} = \underline{\det(A)} \end{aligned}$$

$$I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(4)

§2.4 Existence of Determinant Function.

Theorem:

(i) Let D be an $(n-1)$ -linear alternating function $M_{(n-1) \times (n-1)}(F)$.

Fix any $1 \leq j \leq n$. Define $\Delta_j: M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ by :

$$\Delta_j(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \cdot D(M_{ij}(A))$$

Then Δ_j is an n -linear alternating fn. on $M_{n \times n}(F)$.

(ii) If D is a determinant fn. on $M_{(n-1) \times (n-1)}(F)$, then Δ_j is a determinant fn. on $M_{n \times n}(F)$.

Remarks:

- $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$
- $M_{ij}(A) = (i,j)^{\text{th}}$ -minor of $A = (n-1) \times (n-1)$ -matrix obtained by deleting the i^{th} -row & j^{th} -column.
- The formula for Δ_j is "expanding along the j^{th} column."
- The theorem is constructive!
- It's an existence theorem : each of the $\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_n$ can possibly be different functions. (we will see later that they are all equal! There is a unique determinant function.)
- The proof: Read it up from the book. (Theorem 1, pp. 146-147)
There are no surprises in the proof. You need to carefully check that Δ_j is n -linear & alternating.
 - n -linearity is "easy".
 - for the proof of alternating you will see the necessity of the alternating signs: $(-1)^{i+j}$.

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Lecture 3

Theory of Determinants - II

- $S_n = \text{Permutations of } \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- Sign of a permutation.
- Formula for $\det(A)$, $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$
- Theorem: There is a unique determinant function
on $M_{n \times n}(F)$.
- 3×3 - example.

§3.1 Permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

- A permutation of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is a bijection

$$\sigma : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \longrightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

- $S_n = \text{Bij}(\{1, 2, \dots, n\})$ = set of all permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

~~fact~~ $|S_n| = n!$ (n - factorial)

The total number of permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ = size of $S_n = n!$

Let $\sigma \in S_n$. There are n possibilities for $\sigma(1)$. Once $\sigma(1)$ is fixed, there are $(n-1)$ possibilities for $\sigma(2)$... etc.

Total # of possibilities for σ = $n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = n!$

- A transposition is a permutation that switches only two elements in $\{1, \dots, n\}$ and keeps others fixed.

We denote by (i, j) the permutation that interchanges i and j , and fixes k for all $k \neq i, k \neq j$.

- Examples / Notations:

(i) (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) denotes the cyclic permutation.

$k_1 \rightarrow k_2, k_2 \rightarrow k_3, \dots, k_{n-1} \rightarrow k_n, k_n \rightarrow k_1$; all other i 's are fixed

(ii) $(1 \ 2 \ 3) = (1 \ 3)(1 \ 2)$ Verify this!

Note: $(1 \ 3)(1 \ 2)$ is the composition of the permutations;

it means first apply $(1 \ 2)$, then apply $(1 \ 3)$.

Just like $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$

$$(iii) (1, 2, 3, 4) = (1 \ 4)(1 \ 3)(1 \ 2)$$

$$(iv) (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) = (k_1 \ k_n)(k_1 \ k_{n-1}) \cdots (k_1 \ k_2)$$

$$(v) (1 \ 3) = (1 \ 2)(2 \ 3)(1 \ 2)$$

§ 3.2 Sign of a permutation:

(2)

The basic facts we will need about permutations are:

Proposition:

1. Every permutation is a product of transpositions.
2. If $\sigma \in S_n$ is expressed as a product of transpositions

$\sigma = s_1 \dots s_m$, then m need not be unique, but

the parity of m is uniquely determined by σ .

(See Theorem on next page.)

Remarks:

- Proof of 1. is in two steps: $\sigma \in S_n$. Then σ can be written as a product of cyclic permutations. Now use Example (iv) of § 3.1: A cyclic perm. is a product of transpositions.
- Example (v): $(1\ 3) = (1\ 2)(2\ 3)(1\ 2)$ already illustrates the statement in 2.

Definition

(i) Let $\sigma \in S_n$. Suppose $\sigma = s_1 \dots s_m$ is a product of transpositions

Then the sign of σ , also called signature of σ , is

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) = (-1)^m.$$

(ii) σ is an even permutation: $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) = 1$

odd " : $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) = -1$

Examples:

(i) $(1\ 2\ 3) = (1\ 3)(1\ 2) \Rightarrow (1\ 2\ 3)$ is an even permutation.

(ii) $(1\ 3) = (1\ 2)(2\ 3)(1\ 2)$ is an odd permutation.

(iii) $(1\ 4\ 7)(2\ 5)$ - even or odd?

(3)

Theorem

The function $\text{sgn} : S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ is a "homomorphism"

$$\text{i.e. : } \text{sgn}(\sigma z) = \text{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot \text{sgn}(z)$$

- This is a deep theorem! Why?
- We denote $\text{sgn}(\sigma)$ also as $\varepsilon(\sigma)$. ; $\varepsilon(\sigma z) = \varepsilon(\sigma) \varepsilon(z)$.

S 3.3.3 Formula for $\det(A)$:

$$\text{Let } A \in M_{n \times n}(F); \quad A = [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} R_1 \\ \vdots \\ R_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_i = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{in}) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \varepsilon_j; \quad \{\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n\} = \text{standard basis for } F^n$$

- The example in §2.3, p.3, Lecture-2 generalizes to $n \times n$ -matrices.

- i) If $D : M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ is an n -linear function of R_1, \dots, R_n

then
$$D(A) = \sum_{1 \leq k_1, \dots, k_n \leq n} a_{1k_1} \cdots a_{nk_n} \cdot D(\varepsilon_{k_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{k_n}) \quad (\text{n}^n \text{- terms})$$

- ii) If $D : M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ is alternating then,

$$[\text{if } k_i = k_j \text{ then } D(\varepsilon_{k_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{k_n}) = 0]. \quad \text{For nonzero terms : } (k_1, \dots, k_n) = (\sigma(1), \dots, \sigma(n))$$

for a permutation σ . Also:
$$D(\varepsilon_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, \varepsilon_{\sigma(n)}) = \text{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot D(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n).$$

- iii) If $D : M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ is a determinant function, then

$$D(I_n) = D(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n) = 1.$$

(i), (ii) & (iii) together proves the following fundamental theorem:

Theorem:

If $D : M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ is a determinant function, then

for any $A = [a_{ij}]$, $D(A)$ is "the" determinant function:

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot a_{1\sigma(1)} \cdot a_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)}$$

§ 3.4 Existence & Uniqueness:

- Existence: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{We constructed determinant function(s) on } M_{n \times n}(F) \\ \text{using determinant function on } M_{(n-1) \times (n-1)}(F). \end{array} \right.$
- Uniqueness: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Any determinant function on } M_{n \times n}(F) \text{ is forced} \\ \text{to be } \det(A). \end{array} \right.$

Let's put both together in the following theorem:

Theorem

The determinant function on $M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$ is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot a_{1\sigma(1)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} \cdot a_{ij} \cdot \det(M_{ij}(A))\end{aligned}$$

Remark:

- $\det(A)$ is a homogeneous polynomial in $\{a_{ij}\}$ of degree n .
- The coefficients of this polynomial are $\{\pm 1\}$.
- $a_{1\sigma(1)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)}$: is a product of n entries; exactly one from every row and every column.
- In the constructive proof, the expansions for determinant along two different columns give us the same answer.
(See next page.)

~~§2.5~~ Example: ($n=3$). $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$. (5)

- Permutations of S_3 ; and their signatures:

$$|S_3| = 3! = 6$$

$\sigma \in S_3$	1	(12)	(13)	(23)	(123)	(132)
$\text{sgn}(\sigma)$	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1

- $\det(A) = \sum_{\sigma} \text{sgn}(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} a_{3\sigma(3)}$

$$= a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} - a_{12} a_{21} a_{33} - a_{13} a_{22} a_{31} - a_{11} a_{23} a_{23}$$

$$+ a_{12} a_{23} a_{31} + a_{13} a_{21} a_{32}$$

- Expansion along 1st column: $\sum_{i=1}^3 (-1)^{i+1} \cdot a_{1i} \cdot \det(M_{ii}(A))$

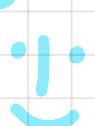
$$= a_{11} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} - a_{21} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} + a_{31} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= a_{11} (a_{22} a_{33} - a_{32} a_{23}) - a_{21} (a_{12} a_{33} - a_{32} a_{13}) + a_{31} (a_{12} a_{23} - a_{22} a_{13})$$

$$= \det(A). \quad (\text{check}).$$

- Verify for yourselves that expanding via 2nd column / 3rd column also gives you $\det(A)$.

- (The determinant function feels like magic!!!)



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Lecture 4 Properties of Determinants - I

- $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$
- $\det(^t A) = \det(A)$
- $\det(\text{Row-Op}(A)) = \det(E)\det(A); E = \text{Same-Row-Op}(I_n).$
- A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0.$

Ex. 1

Homomorphism Property of Determinants:

①

Theorem :

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B), \quad \forall A, B \in M_{n \times n}(F).$$

Pf Fix B , and consider the function $D_B: M_{n \times n}(F) \rightarrow F$

$$D_B(A) = \det(AB)$$

Then, we have to become aware of the fact that

D_B is a n -linear alternating function of the rows of A . By the exact same calculation as in Lecture 3, § 3.3, we see that :

$$\begin{aligned} D_B(A) &= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)} \cdot D_B(e_1, \dots, e_n) \\ &= \det(A) \cdot D_B(I_n) = \det(A) \cdot \det(I_n B) \\ &= \det(A) \det(B). \end{aligned}$$

Recall: $(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj} \quad (A = [a_{ij}], B = [b_{ij}])$

i^{th} row of $AB = R_i(AB) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{k1}, \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{k2}, \dots, \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kn} \right)$

$R_i(A) = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{in}) \xrightarrow{\quad} R_i(AB) = R_i(A) \cdot B$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore D_B(A) &= D_B(R_1(A), \dots, R_n(A)) \\ &= \det(R_1(A)B, \dots, R_n(A)B) \end{aligned}$$

$$R_i = R_i \cdot B$$

since $\det(R_1, \dots, R_n)$ is an alternating fn. of R_1, \dots, R_n , we can see that $\det(R_1 B, \dots, R_n B)$ is an alternating fn. of R_1, \dots, R_n .

■

§4.2

Invariance of determinant under transpose:

(2)

$A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, then ${}^t A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, called the transpose of A ,
is defined as: ${}^t A(i,j) = A(j,i)$.

Theorem:

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

Pf:

$$\begin{aligned}\det({}^t A) &= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot {}^t A(1, \sigma(1)) \dots {}^t A(n, \sigma(n)) \\ &= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot A(\sigma(1), 1) \dots A(\sigma(n), n)\end{aligned}$$

Think!!

$(A(\sigma(i), i) : \text{put } \sigma(i) = k \Leftrightarrow i = \sigma^{-1}(k))$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot A(1, \sigma^{-1}(1)) \dots A(n, \sigma^{-1}(n))$$

(put $\sigma^{-1} = z$)

$$= \sum_{z \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(z) \cdot A(1, z(1)) \dots A(n, z(n))$$

$\sigma = s_1 \dots s_m$, s_j - transposition, then $\sigma^{-1} = s_m \dots s_1$

Check: $\sigma \cdot \sigma^{-1} = s_1 \dots s_m \cdot s_m \dots s_1 = 1$ (cancels out from the inside; $s_j^2 = 1$.))

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{sgn}(z^{-1}) = \operatorname{sgn}(z)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \det({}^t A) &= \dots = \sum_{z \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(z) \cdot A(1, z(1)) \dots A(n, z(n)) \\ &= \det(A).\end{aligned}$$



(3)

Skt. 3 Behaviour of determinants under row operations:

- The elementary row operations are:

(i) $R_i \rightarrow R_i + cR_j$; add c times the j^{th} row to the i^{th} row

(ii) $R_i \rightarrow cR_i$; multiply the i^{th} row by c ($c \neq 0$).

(iii) $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$; interchange the i^{th} & j^{th} rows.

- An elementary matrix is a matrix that you get by doing one elementary row operation to I_n .

(i) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & c \\ & 1 & \dots & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, c in the $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$ -position
1's on the diagonal
0 everywhere else.

(ii) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & c \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$; the $(i,i)^{\text{th}}$ diagonal entry is c , etc

(iii) $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 0 & & 1 \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$; $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$ & $(j,i)^{\text{th}}$ entries are 1,
 $(k,k)^{\text{th}}$ entry = 1 $k \neq i, j$
 $(i,i)^{\text{th}}$ & $(j,j)^{\text{th}}$ entry = 0.

Theorem:

$A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. Let e be an elementary row operation.

Suppose $E = e(I_n)$ is the corresponding elementary matrix.

$$\text{Then } e(A) = E \cdot A$$

Pf: See Theorem 9, Section 1.5, of the textbook.

- Elementary row operations are realized by left multiplying by elementary matrices.

• **Theorem:**

(i) $e: R_i \rightarrow R_i + cR_j$ then $\det(e(A)) = \det(A)$

(ii) $e: R_i \rightarrow cR_i$ then $\det(e(A)) = c \cdot \det(A)$

(iii) $e: R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$ then $\det(e(A)) = -\det(A)$

Pf: in each case, $\det(e(A)) = \det(EA) = \det(E) \cdot \det(A)$,

where $E = e(I_n)$. Now the proof follows by computing $\det(E)$:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & c \\ & 1 & \dots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1, \quad \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & c \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = c$$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & 0 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = -1 \quad (\text{since } (i,j) \text{ is an odd permutation.})$$

■

- The above theorem is computationally important!
- This theorem is the basis of generalizations of determinant ; for example: "DI EUDONNE DETERMINANT" for matrices over division rings = non-commutative fields.

- Example: Row operations & determinant:-

$$\begin{array}{c} \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(R_2 - 4R_1) \rightarrow R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{(R_3 - 7R_1) \rightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 0 & -6 & -12 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_3 - 2R_2 \rightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \\ A \qquad \qquad \qquad B \qquad \qquad \qquad C \qquad \qquad \qquad D \end{array}$$

$$\det(A) = \det(B) = \det(C) = \det(D) = 0,$$

↑
(since D has a zero row).

§4.4 Invertibility = Nonvanishing of determinants.

(5)

- Let's recall a theorem about elementary row operations/matrices and invertibility of a matrix. (Recall: A is invertible if $\exists B$ s.t. $AB = BA = I_n$; we call B the inverse of A & write $B = A^{-1}$.)

Theorem:

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$; F - field.

A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow A = E_1 \dots E_k$ a product of elementary matrices.

See Theorem 12, Section 1.6 of the Textbook

(The point is: you start row-reducing A by row operations, and A is invertible if and only if you can reduce it all the way I_n , i.e., A - invertible \Leftrightarrow the row-reduced echelon matrix of $A = I_n$)

- Theorem. A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$.

Pf: " \Rightarrow "

A - invertible $\Leftrightarrow A = E_1 \dots E_k \Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(E_1) \dots \det(E_k) \neq 0$,

as we have seen in §4.3 that $\det(E) \neq 0$ for an elementary matrix.

" \Leftarrow " we can prove this by proving:

" A is not-invertible $\Rightarrow \det(A) = 0$ ".

Suppose A is not-invertible then its row-reduced echelon matrix R has to have a row full of 0's. Hence \exists elementary matrices E_1, \dots, E_k s.t. $E_k \dots E_1 \cdot A = R$ & furthermore,

$$\det(R) = 0 \Rightarrow \det(E_k) \dots \det(E_1) \cdot \det(A) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(A) = 0. \quad \blacksquare$$

- ⑥
- The above proof needs the theory of row-operations on matrices. If you do not understand these, then go back to Chapter 1 of the textbook, and review Section 1.3, 1.4, 1.5 and 1.6.
 - We will see another proof in the next lecture.

— X —

Lecture 5 | Properties of Determinants - II

- $\text{adj}(A)$ = The classical adjoint of A
- $A \cdot \text{adj}(A) = \text{adj}(A) \cdot A = \det(A) \cdot I_n$
- A - invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$; Formula for A^{-1}
- Cramer's Rule to solve the system $AX = Y$.
- Determinant of a linear operator $T: V \rightarrow V$.

①

5.1 The classical adjoint of a matrix:

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$; F - field.

- $M_{ij}(A) =$ the (i,j) -th minor of A $= (n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained by deleting the i^{th} row & j^{th} column.
- $C_{ij}(A) = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij}(A))$
 $=$ (i,j) -th cofactor of A .
- $\text{adj}(A) =$ $n \times n$ -matrix called the classical adjoint of A
 $= [C_{ji}(A)]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ (note the interchange of i if j)
 $=$ transpose of the matrix of cofactors of A
- $\boxed{\text{adj}(A) \cdot C_{ij}} = C_{ji}(A) = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ji}(A)).$

5.2 The main theorem about adjoint of a matrix:

Theorem:

$$A \cdot \text{adj}(A) = \text{adj}(A) \cdot A = \det(A) I_n = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

Pf: We have already seen the expansion of $\det(A)$ along the j^{th} column of A as:

$$\det(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \cdot \det(M_{ij}(A))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} C_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \text{adj}(A)_{ji} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} = (A \cdot \text{adj}(A))_{ii} \\ = (\text{adj}(A) \cdot A)_{jj} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \cdot \text{adj}(A))_{ii} = \det(A) \quad \& \quad (\text{adj}(A) \cdot A)_{jj} = \det(A)$$

(2)

This proves the theorem by checking equality for diagonal entries.

For non-diagonal entries we need to prove: if $i \neq j$ that:

$$(A \cdot \text{adj}(A))_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \text{adj}(A)_{kj} = 0$$

$$\text{or} \quad \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{j+k} a_{ik} \det(M_{jk}(A))}_{(*)} = 0$$

We note that the expression $(*)$ is nothing but the expansion for determinant along the j^{th} row of the matrix \tilde{A} obtained by replacing the j^{th} row of A by the i^{th} row; in particular \tilde{A} has two equal rows, and hence $\det(\tilde{A}) = 0$.

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{adj}(A) \cdot A)_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^n \text{adj}(A)_{ik} \cdot a_{kj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} a_{kj} \underbrace{\det(M_{ki}(A))}_{(**)} = 0, \end{aligned}$$

since $(**)$ is the determinant expansion along the i^{th} column of the matrix \tilde{A} obtained by replacing the i^{th} column by the j^{th} column.; in particular \tilde{A} has two equal columns & so $\det(\tilde{A}) = 0$. ◻

- This proof might seem tricky or slick. The magic is really in various expansions of \det along any row or any column.
- The importance of the theorem is that it gives an explicit formula for inverse of a matrix.

§ 5.3

Invertibility & formula for inverse:

(3)

Theorem.

(i) A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$

(ii) If A is invertible then $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \cdot \text{adj}(A)$

Pf: (i) " \Rightarrow " If A is invertible then $\exists B$ s.t. $AB = BA = I_n$

Then $\det(AB) = \det(I_n) \Rightarrow \det(A) \cdot \det(B) = 1 \Rightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$

(i) " \Leftarrow " If $\det(A) \neq 0$. Then we have seen:

$$A \cdot \text{adj}(A) = \text{adj}(A) \cdot A = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) \\ & \ddots \\ & & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow A \cdot (\det(A)^{-1} \text{adj}(A)) &= (\det(A)^{-1} \text{adj}(A)) \cdot A = \det(A)^{-1} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) \\ & \ddots \\ & & \det(A) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_n \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Follows from "(i), \Leftarrow "., since the inverse of a matrix if it exists is unique: if B & C are such that $AB = BA = I_n = AC = CA$ then $B = B(I_n) = B(AC) = (BA)C = I_n \cdot C = C$.

Therefore, if A is invertible then: its inverse has to be:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \cdot \text{adj}(A).$$



• Let's note:

$$(A^{-1})_{ij} = \frac{(-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{j|i}(A))}{\det(A)}.$$

The entries of A^{-1} are rational functions of the entries of A

§ 5.4

Cramer's Rule:

Consider a system of n linear equations in n -variables:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_{11} x_1 + a_{12} x_2 + \dots + a_{1n} x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21} x_1 + a_{22} x_2 + \dots + a_{2n} x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} x_1 + a_{nn} x_2 + \dots + a_{nn} x_n = b_n \end{array} \right\}$$

$$AX = \mathbf{b}$$

$A = [a_{ij}]$ - matrix of coefficients

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The system $AX = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution when A is invertible, because:

$$AX = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\underbrace{A^{-1}(AX)}_{(A^{-1}A) \cdot X}}_{= A^{-1}\mathbf{b}} \Rightarrow X = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Now we use the formula for A^{-1} as in § 5.3, to get:

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= X_{ii} = (A^{-1}\mathbf{b})_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^n (A^{-1})_{ik} b_{ki} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} \frac{\det[M_{ki}(A)]}{\det(A)} \cdot b_k \\ x_i &= \underbrace{\left(\sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{i+k} \det(M_{ki}(A)) \cdot b_k \right)}_{\det(A)} \end{aligned}$$

← Cramer's Rule.

Theorem (Cramer's Rule)

If A is invertible, the unique solution of $AX = \mathbf{b}$ is given by the rule:

$$x_i = \frac{\det(\text{Replace } i^{\text{th}} \text{ column of } A \text{ by } \mathbf{b})}{\det(A)}$$

§ 5.5

Determinant of an operator:

(5)

- Let $T: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator

(Linear Operator = linear transformation from a vector space to itself.)

Suppose $\dim(V) = n$.

Fix a basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$. Let $A = [T]_B$ be the

matrix of T relative to B :

Memorize this formula!

$$Tv_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} v_i$$

Now, let $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be another basis of V , and

let $B = [T]_{B'}$. Then $Tw_j = \sum_{i=1}^n b_{ij} w_i$.

Consider the change of basis matrix:

$$P : B \rightsquigarrow B' \quad \text{or} \quad P : \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \rightsquigarrow \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$$

which we may write as: $w_j = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} v_i$

Memorize this formula!

Let $Q : B' \rightsquigarrow B$ be the change of basis in the other direction; $Q = P^{-1}$; $v_j = \sum_{i=1}^n Q_{ij} w_i$.

Then:

$$T(w_j) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} v_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} T(v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ki} v_k$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n P_{ij} a_{ki} v_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n P_{ij} a_{ki} \sum_{l=1}^n Q_{lk} w_l$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i,k,l} P_{ij} a_{ki} Q_{lk} \right) w_l = \sum_{l=1}^n \left(\sum_i \sum_k Q_{lk} a_{ki} P_{ij} \right) w_l$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^n (Q A P)_{lj} w_l \Rightarrow B = Q A P \quad \text{or}$$

$$B = P^{-1} A P.$$

(6)

- Defn: If $T : V \rightarrow V$ is a linear operator; $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ a basis for V ; $A = [T]_B$ matrix of T relative to B ; then we define the determinant of the operator T as:

$$\det(T) = \det([T]_B) = \det(A).$$

This definition is independent of choice of B , because if B' is another basis, and $P : B \rightarrow B'$ the change of basis matrix, then $B = P^{-1}AP$ and

$$\det(B) = \det(P^{-1}AP) = \det(P)^{-1}\det(A)\det(P) = \det(A).$$

- To compute the determinant of an operator, it is convenient to have a basis relative to which the matrix of this operator is particularly convenient. This idea leads us to the next main topic: Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors.

— X —

Lecture 6

Chapter - 1 of Textbook

Review - 1

- Fields
- Linear Systems of Equations
- Row operations on matrices
- RREF : Row-reduced echelon form.
- Matrix Multiplication ; elementary matrices
- Invertible matrices
- characterizing invertibility.

§1

A list of concepts whose definitions you need to know:

①

- Field. Some Examples:

\mathbb{Q} = rational numbers

\mathbb{R} = real numbers

\mathbb{C} = complex numbers

$\mathbb{Q}(i)$ = Gaussian numbers

\mathbb{F}_p = finite field with p elements (p -prime)

- The characteristic of a field. ($\text{char}(\mathbb{Q})=0$, $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}_p)=p$.)
- Linear system of m -equations in n -unknowns. ($AX=b$)
- Homogeneous system of equations. ($AX=0$)
 - Trivial solution of a homogeneous system.
 - Nontrivial " " " " .
- Equivalent systems of equations: $(AX=b) \sim (BX=c)$
- Coefficient matrix of a linear system of equations.
- Augmented matrix of a " " " "
- Solving a linear system } = { Doing row operations on the coefficient / augmented matrix by eliminating variables }
- Elementary row operations:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} R_i + cR_j \rightarrow R_i \\ cR_i \rightarrow R_i \quad (c \neq 0) \\ R_i \leftrightarrow R_j \end{array} \right.$$
- $A, B \in M_{m \times n}(F)$, A is row-equivalent to B if —

- RREF = row-reduced echelon form. (2)
 (a matrix is in RREF if _____)
- The leading 1's of a matrix in RREF.
- When can we multiply matrices $A B$
 $(m \times n) (n \times p) \rightsquigarrow (m \times p)$
- $(AB)_{ij} = \sum a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}$
- $A - n \times n$ matrix; A is invertible if _____
 A^{-1} = inverse of A (if it exists).
- $M_{n \times m}(F)$ = all $n \times m$ -matrices over a field F
- $M_{n \times n}(F) = M_n(F) = "n \times n"$ or square matrices of size n
- $I_n = n \times n$ -identity matrix = $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Scalar matrix : $c I_n = \begin{bmatrix} c & & & \\ & c & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & c \end{bmatrix}$
- Diagonal matrix : $\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & d_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & d_n \end{bmatrix}$
- Kronecker delta: $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}; \quad \delta_{ij} = \delta(i,j)$

§2 A compendium of theorems / results:

(3)

Theorem 1

Equivalent systems of linear equations have same solutions, i.e., if $AX = \mathbf{f}$ & $BX = \mathbf{c}$ are equivalent then any solution of $AX = \mathbf{f}$ is a solⁿ of $BX = \mathbf{c}$, and conversely, any solⁿ of $BX = \mathbf{c}$ is a solⁿ of $AX = \mathbf{f}$.

Theorem 2

An elementary row operation e has an inverse row operation e' which is also of the same kind ; $e'(e(A)) = A$.

$$e \quad R_i \rightarrow R_i + cR_j$$

$$R_i \rightarrow cR_i$$

$$R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$$

$$e' \quad R_i \rightarrow R_i - cR_j$$

$$R_i \rightarrow \frac{1}{c}R_i$$

$$R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$$

Theorem 3.

$A, B \in M_{m \times n}(F)$ are row-equivalent $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} AX = \mathbf{0} \text{ & } BX = \mathbf{0} \text{ have} \\ \text{the same set of solutions} \end{cases}$

Basically Theorem 1 restated for matrices & for homogeneous systems.

Theorem 4

Every $m \times n$ -matrix A is row-equivalent to a unique matrix in RREF.

- work out an example.
- Uniqueness is not so obvious!

(4)

Theorem 5

If $m < n$ then a homogeneous system of m -equations in n -unknowns has a nontrivial solution.

This is a very important theorem. Given $AX = 0$, $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$,

let R be in RREF & $A \sim R$. Suffices to prove $RX = 0$ has nontrivial solutions.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Leading 1's of } R \iff \text{Leading Variables} \iff \text{Dependent variables.} \\ \text{All other variables are independent variables.} \end{array} \right.$

Theorem 6

- $A \in M_{m \times n}(F) \Rightarrow I_m \cdot A = A, A \cdot I_n = A.$
- $A \in M_{m \times n}(F), B \in M_{n \times p}(F), C \in M_{p \times q}(F)$ then
 $(AB)C = A(BC)$ (associative law)

Proof is an exercise! Do it!

Theorem 8

- A - invertible $\Rightarrow A^{-1}$ is invertible & $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.
- A, B invertible $\Rightarrow AB$ is invertible & $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- A - invertible $\Rightarrow {}^t A$ is invertible & $({}^t A)^{-1} = {}^t(A^{-1})$
- an elementary matrix is invertible; its inverse is also an elementary matrix (of the same kind).

Since $({}^t A)^{-1} = {}^t(A^{-1})$, we are justified in writing: ${}^t A^{-1}$.

(5)

Theorem 9

The following are equivalent for $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$.

- (i) A is invertible.
- (ii) A is row-equivalent to I_n .
- (iii) A is a product of elementary matrices.
- (iv) $AX=0$ has only the trivial solution.
- (v) $AX=b$ has a unique solution for any $b \in M_{n \times 1}(F)$.

If you can find a proof for theorem 9, then you have mastered the concepts of this chapter. As a mental exercise try to prove each of the $\binom{5}{2} = 10$ implications.

Theorem 10

- (i) If A has a left-inverse then A is invertible.
($\exists B$ s.t. $BA = I_n$)
- (ii) If A has a right-inverse then A is invertible.
($\exists C$ s.t. $AC = I_n$)
- (iii) $A = A_1 \cdots A_k$ is invertible \Leftrightarrow each A_i is invertible.
$$(A_1 \cdots A_k)^{-1} = A_k^{-1} A_{k-1}^{-1} \cdots A_1^{-1}$$

$$\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \quad X \quad \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$$

Lecture 7

Chapter 2 (2.1-2.4) of Textbook

Review-2

- Vector space : Definition & Examples
- Linear combination ; Subspace ; Span ; linear independence ; Basis ; Dimension ;
- Ordered basis ; coordinates of a vector ; change of basis .

§1 a list of concepts / definitions :

(1)

- Vector space V over a field F

- Scalars (elements of F)
- vectors (elements of V)
- vector addition + $(V, +, 0)$ - abelian group
- scalar multiplication ·

- Examples of vector spaces:

- \mathbb{R}^n : "euclidean space" / \mathbb{R}
- \mathbb{C}^n : "unitary space" / \mathbb{C}
- \mathbb{Q}^n is a vector space / \mathbb{Q} .
- F^n is a vector space / F . (Ex: $F^n \cong M_{n \times 1}(F) \cong M_{1 \times n}(F)$)
- $M_{m \times n}(F)$: space of $m \times n$ - matrices / F
- $\text{Funct}(S, F) = \{f: S \rightarrow F\}$ set of all functions from S to F .
- $F[x]$: all polynomials in one variable x over F
(Ex: $F[x] = \text{Funct}(\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, F)$; $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \dots\}$).
- $C(\mathbb{R}) = \{f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$
- $C([0, 1]) = \{f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$
- $C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) = \{f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is infinitely differentiable}\}$

(2)

- Linear combination of vectors v_1, \dots, v_n in V .
- Subspace W of a vector space V .
e.g. - $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$, $N_A = \{x \in F^{n \times 1} \mid Ax=0\}$ is a subspace of F^n .
- Subspace of V spanned by a set $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of vectors.
- $S \subset V$ is linearly independent. (L.I.)
- $B \subset V$ is a basis $\begin{cases} B \text{ spans } V \\ B \text{ is L.I.} \end{cases}$
- Standard basis for F^n
 $B = \{\varepsilon_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0), \varepsilon_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, \varepsilon_n = (0, 0, \dots, 1)\}$
- Standard basis for $M_{m \times n}(F)$, $\{E_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}$.
- Dimension of a vector space V/F ; $\dim_F(V)$.
- Sum of subspaces: $W_1 + W_2 = \{w_1 + w_2 \mid w_1 \in W_1, w_2 \in W_2\}$
- Ordered basis B of a vector space V/F .
- The coordinates of a vector $v \in V$ w.r.t. an ordered basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$
 $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i \Rightarrow [v]_B = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$
- $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ ordered bases for V .
 Change of basis matrix $P: B \rightsquigarrow B'$ $P = [P_{ij}]$
 $w_j = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} v_i$

§ A Compendium of Theorems :

Theorem 1

Let S be a subset of a vector space V/F .

The subspace spanned by S is the set of all linear combination of vectors in S :

$$\langle S \rangle = \{ c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_k v_k : c_1, \dots, c_k \in F; v_1, \dots, v_k \in S \}$$

Theorem 2

Let V be a vector space over a field F .

Suppose a finite set $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ spans V . Then

any linearly independent set in S has at most m vectors.

- an important technical theorem towards "dimension of a vector sp."
- Uses the fact that a homogeneous system of equations, with $\#(\text{equations}) < \#(\text{variables})$, has a nontrivial solution.

Theorem 3 (Dimension of a vector space)

Let V be a vector space/ F .

Any two bases have the same number of elements.

- This common number is called dimension of the vector space
- You should know a proof for finite-dimensional spaces.
(It is also true for infinite-dimensional spaces.)

Theorem 4

Suppose $\dim_{\mathbb{F}}(V) = n$.

Let S be a subset of V , and $|S| = \#$ of vectors in S .

(i) $|S| > n \Rightarrow S$ is linearly dependent.

(ii) $|S| < n \Rightarrow S$ cannot span V .

Note: $|S|=n$ does not mean S is a basis.

Lemmas 5 (Building a basis of V)

Let S be a linearly independent set in V .

Suppose $v \in V$ is not in the $\text{Span}(S) =$ subspace spanned by S .

$v \notin \text{Span}(S) \Rightarrow S \cup \{v\}$ is also linearly independent.

Corollaries to Theorem 4 & Lemma 5

- W is a subspace of $V \Rightarrow \dim(W) \leq \dim(V)$.
- W is a proper subspace of $V \Rightarrow \dim(W) < \dim(V)$
- Any nonzero vector of V is part of a basis for V .
- Any linearly independent set in V is part of a basis for V

Theorem 6

Let W_1, W_2 be finite-dimensional subspaces of a vector space V .

Then $W_1 + W_2$ and $W_1 \cap W_2$ are finite-dimensional.

$$\dim(W_1 + W_2) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$$

- Vector space analogue of the counting principle of inclusion-exclusion

(5)

Theorem 7 (Coordinates & change of basis)

Let V be an n -dimensional vector space.

Let $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ & $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be ordered bases of V .

Let $P : B \rightsquigarrow B'$ be the change of basis matrix: $w_j = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} v_i$

(i) P is invertible

(ii) For $v \in V$, $v = \sum a_i v_i$, $[v]_B = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$, $v = \sum c_i w_i$, $[v]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\text{Then } [v]_B = P \cdot [v]_{B'} \quad (n \times 1) = (n \times n)(n \times 1)$$

- Memorize the recipe for the change of basis matrix.

- To remember $[v]_B = P \cdot [v]_{B'}$,

put $v = w_j$, $[w_j]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ - jth m. = ε_j , then

$$P[w_j]_{B'} = P \cdot \varepsilon_j = \text{j}^{\text{th}} \text{ column of } P \quad) \text{ Definition of } P.$$

$$[w_j]_B = \sum P_{ij} v_i$$

- If $Q : B' \rightsquigarrow B$ is the change of basis matrix in the other direction, then $PQ = QP = I_n$.

— X —

Lecture 8]Linear TransformationsReview 3

- Linear Transf.; Kernel (T), Image (T), nullity (T), rank (T).
- $\text{Hom}_F(V, W) \cong M_{m \times n}(F)$
- $\text{End}_F(V) \cong M_n(F)$
- Invertible linear transformation / Non-singular
- $V^* = \text{Hom}_F(V, F) = \text{dual of } V$; $V^{**} = \text{double-dual of } V$
- $\dim(V^*) = \dim(V)$, Dual basis.

§1 A list of concepts / definitions:

(1)

- **Linear Transformation** $T: V \rightarrow W$; V, W vect. spaces over \mathbb{F} .
- **Kernel of T** = Null space of T = $\{v \in V \mid T(v) = 0\} = \text{Ker}(T)$
- **Image of T** = $\{T(v) \mid v \in V\} = \text{Im}(T)$
- **Nullity (T)** = dimension (Kernel (T)).
- **rank (T)** = dimension (Image (T)).

$$T: V \rightarrow W$$

$$\begin{matrix} V & \xrightarrow{T} & W \\ U & & U \\ \text{Ker}(T) & & \text{Im}(T) \end{matrix}$$

- **$\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{F}}(V, W)$** = set of all \mathbb{F} -linear transformations from V to W .
Linear Transformation = "homomorphism" or "morphism" of vector spaces.
- **Linear Operator** = $T: V \rightarrow V$, also called "endomorphism".
 $\text{End}_{\mathbb{F}}(V) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{F}}(V, V)$
- **Invertible linear transformation:** $T: V \rightarrow W$ is invertible, if
 \exists linear transformation $U: W \rightarrow V$ such that
 $TU = 1_W$, $UT = 1_V$.
 Invertible \Leftrightarrow bijection. T : isomorphism.
- **Non-singular linear transformation:**
 Non-singular $\Leftrightarrow T$ is 1:1 $\Leftrightarrow T$ is injective $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ker}(T) = 0$.

- Matrix of a linear transformation: $T: V \rightarrow W$ (2)

$\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ basis for V .

$\mathcal{B}' = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \quad " \quad W$.

$[T] = [T]_{\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'} = m \times n \text{ matrix } [a_{ij}]$

$$\boxed{T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} w_i}$$

MEMORIZE !!

- $A, B \in M_n(F)$ are similar if \exists invertible matrix P such that $B = P^{-1}AP$. (or $A = PBP^{-1}$).
- A linear functional on a vector space V : $f: V \rightarrow F$, i.e., f is a linear transf. from V to the base field F .
- $V^* = \text{Hom}_F(V, F) = \text{set of all linear functionals on } V$
 $= \text{dual vector space.}$
- $V^{**} = \text{Hom}_F(V^*, F) = \text{double-dual of } V$

§2. A Compendium of Theorems

(3)

Theorem 1

A linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ is completely determined by its values on basis vectors for V , i.e.,

if $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for V , (assuming $\dim_F(V) = n$)

$\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ any set of n vectors in W , then

there is a unique linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ such that

$$T(v_i) = w_i.$$

Theorem 2

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation. Suppose $\dim(V) < \infty$.

$$\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = \dim(V)$$

$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ - basis for $\text{Ker}(T)$

build it up to a basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ of V .

Then $\{T(v_{k+1}), \dots, T(v_n)\}$ is a basis for $\text{Im}(T)$.

Theorem 3

If V, W are vector spaces/ F then $\text{Hom}_F(V, W)$ is a vector space/ F .

If V, W are finite-dimensional, then so is $\text{Hom}_F(V, W)$,

$$\dim(\text{Hom}_F(V, W)) = \dim(V) \cdot \dim(W)$$

$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ - basis for V , $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ - basis for W .

Define T_{ij} , $1 \leq i \leq n$: $T_{ij}(v_k) = \delta_{ik} \cdot w_j$
 $1 \leq j \leq m$

Theorem 4.

Let V be a vector space/ F . Then $\text{End}_F(V)$ is an F -algebra:

- $\text{End}_F(V)$ is a vector space/ F
- \exists multiplication: $T, U \in \text{End}_F(V) \Rightarrow TU : V \rightarrow V$
is given by composition $(TU)(v) = T(U(v))$; $TU = TU$.
- \exists identity element: $I \in \text{End}_F(V)$:
 $IT = TI = T, \forall T \in \text{End}_F(V)$

(See Lemma on p. 77 of the textbook)

Theorem 5

$T: V \rightarrow W$ is non-singular if T preserves the property of linear independence, i.e., if

$$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \text{ is LI in } V \Rightarrow \{T(v_1), \dots, T(v_n)\} \text{ is LI in } W.$$

Theorem 6

Let V, W be finite-dimensional vector spaces/ F .

Suppose $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$. Then, the following are equivalent:

- (i) T is invertible. (T is a bijection)
- (ii) T is non-singular. (T is an injection.)
- (iii) T is onto. (T is a surjection)

(5)

Theorem 7

Let V be an n -dimensional vector space.

Let W be an m -dimensional vector space.

- (i) A choice of basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ for V gives an isomorphism $V \xrightarrow{\sim} F^n$. $v = \sum a_i v_i \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \in F^n$
- Similarly, $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ gives an isomorphism $W \xrightarrow{\sim} F^m$
- (ii) choice of bases B & B' as in (i) gives an isomorphism:
of vector spaces.
 $\text{Hom}_F(V, W) \xrightarrow{\sim} M_{m \times n}(F)$.
- $T \mapsto [T]$.
- (iii) choice of basis B , gives an isomorphism of F -algebras:
 $\text{End}_F(V) \xrightarrow{\sim} M_n(F)$,
in particular, $[Tu] = [T] \cdot [u]$

$$V \xrightarrow{\sim} F^n, \quad \text{Hom}(V, W) \xrightarrow{\sim} M_{m \times n}(F), \quad \text{End}_F(V) \xrightarrow{\sim} M_n(F).$$

Theorem 8

V is an n -dimensional vector space

$B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ & $B' = \{v'_1, \dots, v'_n\}$ bases for V .

$P : B \rightsquigarrow B'$ change of basis matrix: $v'_j = \sum P_{ij} v_i$

$T \in \text{End}_F(V)$. Then

$$[T]_{B'} = P^{-1} \cdot [T]_B \cdot P$$

(6)

Theorem 9 (The dual basis).

Let V be an n -dimensional vector space.

Suppose $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for V .

Define vectors in V^* : $B^* = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ as:

$$f_i(v_j) = \delta_{ij}$$

Then $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ is a basis for V^* ; in particular

$$\dim(V^*) = \dim(V)$$

Theorem 10 (The double-dual)

Let V be an n -dimensional vector space.

Consider the map $\varepsilon: V \longrightarrow V^{**}$, $v \mapsto \varepsilon_v$,

defined via evaluation: $\varepsilon_v(f) = f(v)$, $\forall f \in V^*$.

Then ε is an isomorphism.

ε is a "natural isomorphism".

— X —

Lecture 9

Matrix Operations.

Review 4

- $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$.
- Row-Space(A) $\subset F^n$
- Column-Space(A) $\subset F^m$
- Null-space(A) $\subset F^n$
- Row-Rank(A) = Column-Rank(A).
- Computational questions on vector spaces via matrix operations.

§1 Row-Rank = Column-Rank

(1)

Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$. m -rows & n -columns.

- Row-Space(A) = subspace of F^n spanned by the rows of A.
Row-Rank(A) = $\dim(\text{Row-Space}(A))$.
- Column-Space(A) = subspace of F^m spanned by the columns of A.
Column-Rank(A) = $\dim(\text{Column-Space}(A))$.
- Null-space(A) = space of solutions of the homogeneous system $AX=0$ $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ subspace of F^n .
 $T_A : F^n \longrightarrow F^m$ $T_A(x) = AX$.
if $A = [C_1, \dots, C_n]$; $C_j = j^{\text{th}}$ column $\in F^m$.
 $T_A(x) = AX = x_1 C_1 + \dots + x_n C_n$.
- Kernel of T_A = Null-space of A
Image of T_A = $\{ b \in F^m \mid AX = b \text{ has a solution} \}$
- $R =$ row-reduced echelon form of A
 $r =$ number of nonzero rows of R.
= # leading 1's.
= # dependent variables of $AX=0$

(2)

Theorem: 1

- Row Space (A) = Row Space (R).
- Row-Rank (A) = r
- Nullity (TA) = n-r (# free variables of $AX=0$).
- Image (TA) = Column-Space (A)
- Rank (TA) = Column-Rank (A).
- Column Rank (A) = Row-Rank (A).

Theorem 2 (Invertibility)

Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. The following are equivalent:

- (1) A is invertible.
- (2) Row Space (A) = F^n
- (3) Row Rank (A) = n
- (4) Column Space (A) = F^n
- (5) Column Rank (A) = n.
- (6) Row-Reduced Echelonform of A = I_n .

§ 2. Vector Space Computations Using Matrices:

(3)

($V = F^n$, n -dimensional vector space, $\{\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n\}$ - Standard basis)

① Given $w_1, \dots, w_m \in F^n$,

Determine $\dim(\text{Span}\{w_1, \dots, w_m\})$

② Given $w_1, \dots, w_m \in F^n$, given $v \in F^n$,

Determine if $v \in \text{Span}\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$.

③ Given $A \in M_n(F)$,

Determine if A is invertible, and if yes, find its inverse.

(Reading Assignment: Read Example 22 on p.63 of the textbook.)

— X —

Lecture 10] Eigenvalues & Diagonalizable Operators

- Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors
- characteristic Polynomial
- Diagonalizable Operator
- Linear Independence of "distinct" eigenspaces
- Diagonalizability.

§ 10.1 Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors & Eigenspace

- $V = n$ -dimensional vector space / F

$T : V \rightarrow V$ linear operator on V .

GOAL: If possible find a basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ for V such that

$$T(v_i) = c_i v_i, \quad c_i \in F. \quad \text{Then } [T] = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

When this is possible, it will be very easy to answer any kind of question about T .

- Defn: (i) An eigenvalue for T is a scalar $c \in F$, for which there is a nonzero vector v such that $T(v) = cv$.

(ii) If $c \in F$ is an eigenvalue then, any vector v (including 0) for which $Tv = cv$ is called an eigenvector for that eigenvalue.

- (iii) If $c \in F$ is an eigenvalue, then

$$V(c) = \{v \in V \mid Tv = cv\} = \text{set of all eigenvectors for } c$$

is called the eigenspace of c .

- Eigenvalue = characteristic value
Eigenvector = characteristic vector
Eigenspace = characteristic space
- } Terminology in the text book.

Theorem

The following are equivalent:

- (i) c is an eigenvalue of T
- (ii) $T - cI$ is singular, i.e., nontrivial kernel.
- (iii) $\det(T - cI) = 0$.

Pf :

$$Tv = cv$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (T - cI)(v) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v \in \text{Ker}(T - cI).$$

§10.2

(2)

The characteristic polynomial:

- We can transfer our attention to matrices $A \in M_n(F)$.

Defn: An eigenvalue of A is a scalar $c \in F$ such that

$$\det(cI - A) = 0.$$

Suppose B, B' are ordered bases for V , and

$A = [T]_B$ & $B = [T]_{B'}$, then $B = P^{-1}AP$, for the change of basis matrix $P: B \sim B'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\star) \quad \det(cI - B) &= \det(cI - P^{-1}AP) = \det(cP^{-1}P - P^{-1}AP) \\ &= \det(P^{-1}(cI - A)P) = \det(cI - A). \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore c$ is an eigenvalue of $T \Leftrightarrow c$ is an eigenvalue for $A = [T]_B$
 $\Leftrightarrow c \text{ " " } \therefore B = [T]_{B'}$.

- Defn: $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. The characteristic polynomial $f_A(x)$ is a monic polynomial of degree n with coefficients in F defined as:

$$f_A(x) = \det(xI - A).$$

- Defn: $T: V \rightarrow V$ linear operator & $A = [T]_B$ for some ordered basis B , then the characteristic polynomial of T is

$$f_T(x) = f_A(x).$$

The above calculation (*) shows that the definition of $f_T(x)$ is independent of the choice of B .

- Proposition:

The eigenvalues of T = roots of $f_T(x)$, i.e.,
solutions of $f_T(x) = 0$,

§10.3 Diagonalizable operator :

(3)

- Defn: A linear operator $T: V \rightarrow V$ is said to be **diagonalizable** if V has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of T , i.e., \exists basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and scalars c_1, \dots, c_n (need not be distinct) such that $T(v_i) = c_i v_i$; hence

$$[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Let's draw some consequences of T being diagonalizable. Let's collect together the scalars c_1, \dots, c_n by grouping those that are equal; relabel them; suppose

c_1 appears d_1 many times, ..., c_k appears d_k many times; then

$$[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 I_{d_1} & & & \\ & c_2 I_{d_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & c_k I_{d_k} \end{bmatrix}; \quad d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_k = n$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } f_T(x) &= \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} x & & & \\ & x & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} c_1 I_{d_1} & & & \\ & c_2 I_{d_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & c_k I_{d_k} \end{bmatrix} \right) = \det \begin{bmatrix} (x-c_1)I_{d_1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & (x-c_k)I_{d_k} & \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (x-c_1)^{d_1} (x-c_2)^{d_2} \cdots (x-c_k)^{d_k} \end{aligned}$$

- $V(c_j)$ = eigenspace for c_j . $V(c_j) = \ker(c_j I - T)$

$$\text{e.g. } V(c_1) = \text{Null space} \begin{bmatrix} 0_{d_1} & & & \\ & (c_1 - c_2)I_{d_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & (c_1 - c_k)I_{d_k} \end{bmatrix}; \dim(V(c_1)) = d_1$$

$$\therefore \dim(V(c_1)) + \dim(V(c_2)) + \dots + \dim(V(c_k)) = d_1 + \dots + d_k = n,$$

The sum of the dimensions of the distinct eigenspaces is the dimension of the ambient vector space V .

Theorem

Let $T: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator; $\dim(V) = n$.

Let c_1, \dots, c_n be distinct eigenvalues of T ;

$V(c_j) = \text{Ker}(c_j I - T) = \text{eigenspace for } c_j$. TFAE:

(i) T is diagonalizable

$$(ii) f_T(\lambda) = (\lambda - c_1)^{d_1} \cdots (\lambda - c_n)^{d_n}, \quad d_i = \dim(V(c_i))$$

$$(iii) \dim(V(c_1)) + \cdots + \dim(V(c_n)) = \dim(V).$$

Pf: We have seen (i) \Rightarrow (ii) & (iii).

(ii) \Rightarrow (i) is obvious because $\deg(f_T(\lambda)) = n = \dim(V)$.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i) needs a proof.

The key point in the proof of (iii) \Rightarrow (i) is that

Lemma

eigenvectors for distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

Say $w_1 \in V(c_1), \dots, w_k \in V(c_k)$ & $w_1 + w_2 + \cdots + w_k = 0$.

apply T : $c_1 w_1 + \cdots + c_k w_k = 0$

apply T^2 : $c_1^2 w_1 + \cdots + c_k^2 w_k = 0$ etc... take linear combinations

For any polynomial $g(\lambda) \in F[\lambda]$, we have:

$$g(c_1) w_1 + g(c_2) w_2 + \cdots + g(c_k) w_k = 0.$$

For $j=1$, take $g_1(\lambda) = \frac{(\lambda - c_2) \cdots (\lambda - c_n)}{(c_1 - c_2) \cdots (c_1 - c_n)}$. Then $g_1(c_1) = 1$
 $g_1(c_2) = \cdots = g_1(c_n) = 0$

For $g = g_1$, we get: $w_1 = 0$. Similarly $w_2 = \cdots = w_k = 0$.

Hence: If $B_1 = \text{basis for } V(c_1), \dots, B_k = \text{basis for } V(c_k)$

then $B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \cdots \cup B_k$ is a basis for V .

$\Rightarrow T$ is diagonalizable



§10.4 Computations: $A \in M_n(F)$ (A matrix of an op. T) (5)

- Eigenvalues: compute $f_A(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I_n - A)$.

$$\text{solve } f_A(\lambda) = 0.$$

Suppose distinct solutions are c_1, \dots, c_n .

- Eigenspaces: For each c_j , find

$$V(c_j) = \{x \in F^n \mid Ax = c_j x\}.$$

- If $\dim(V(c_1)) + \dots + \dim(V(c_k)) = n$ then A is diagonalizable.

If " " $\neq n$ then A is not " .

- When diagonalizable :-

$B_1 = \{x_{11}, \dots, x_{1d_1}\}$ - basis for $V(c_1)$ $x_{ij} \in F^n$.

⋮ ⋮ ⋮

$B_k = \{x_{k1}, \dots, x_{kd_k}\}$ - " " $V(c_k)$.

- Put $P = nxn$ -matrix whose columns are built out B_1, \dots, B_k .

$$P = [x_{11} \ x_{12} \ \dots \ x_{1d_1} \ x_{21} \ \dots \ x_{2d_2} \ \dots \ x_{k1} \ \dots \ x_{kd_k}]$$

$$\text{Put } D = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & & & \\ & c_1 & & \\ & & c_2 & \\ & & & c_2 \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & c_k & \\ & & & & c_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 I_{d_1} & & & \\ & c_2 I_{d_2} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & c_k I_{d_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex

Show that $A \cdot P = P \cdot D$

$$\text{Conclude } P^{-1} A P = D$$

Read EXAMPLE 3, p. 187 - 189 of the textbook.

$$\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \quad X \quad \underline{\hspace{1cm}}.$$