

Linear Algebra

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0	Symbols and notations used
	$A_{m \times n} \rightarrow m \times n$ matrix. $A_n \rightarrow n \times n$ matrix. $\sim \rightarrow$ the relation below $A \sim B \implies A = P^{-1}AP$. iff $\rightarrow \iff$

1	Basic Linear equations theory
2	Every $A_{m \times n} = PR_{m \times n}$ for Row reduced Echelon form R and an invertible matrix P let this relation be denoted by $A \text{ rrec } R$
3	
5	if $m < n$ then the homogeneous system $A_{m \times n}X = 0$ has a non trivial solution
5	i.e. if the number of equations is less than the number of variables then the Homogeneous System has a non trivial solution
6	
7	Inverse Properties
8	■ A_n has inverse A^{-1} iff $AX = 0$ has only trivial solutions.
8	■ A is invertible iff $A \text{ rrec } I$ (identity)
8	■ if Elementary matrices are the corresponding matrices of elementary transforms (change of rows, addition of one row to another, multiplication of a row with an non zero constant) then A is invertible iff A is product of elementary matrices.
8	
8	Echelon Form
	every $A_{m \times n} = P_m R Q_n$ for P, Q invertible and R is such that it has an identity in upper corner and all other entries zero i.e. $R = \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for some identity I_k .

Consistency

System of linear equations :

$\mathbf{A}_{m \times n} \mathbf{X}_{n \times 1} = \mathbf{b}_{1 \times m}$ for $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$ is consistent (has a solution) iff the row reduced Echelon form of augmented matrix $[\mathbf{A} : \mathbf{b}]$ has same number of non zero rows as in row reduced echelon form of \mathbf{A} .

2 Vector Spaces

Definition

$(\mathbf{V}, \mathbb{F}, +)$ denoted by $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$: \mathbf{V} is vector space over Field \mathbb{F} if

■ $(\mathbf{V}, +)$ is a commutative group,

for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ and every $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{V}$

■ $1\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$ where $1 \in \mathbb{F}$ is multiplicative identity of \mathbb{F} .

■ $(\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{a} = \alpha\mathbf{a} + \beta\mathbf{a}$

■ $\alpha(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \alpha\mathbf{a} + \alpha\mathbf{b}$

■ $(\alpha\beta)\mathbf{a} = \alpha(\beta\mathbf{a})$

The elements of \mathbf{V} are called **vectors** and elements of \mathbb{F} are called **scalars**

Span

if $\mathbf{K} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subseteq \mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ then span of \mathbf{K} is the set $\{\sum \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i | \mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbf{K}, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}\}$ i.e. is all the formal sums from set \mathbf{K} with \mathbb{F} . This is denoted by $\text{span}(\mathbf{K})$.

Subspace

A subset \mathbf{S} of vector space $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ is a subspace if $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{F})$ is a vector space by same operations as in \mathbf{V}

■ given any $\mathbf{K} \subseteq \mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ $\text{span}(\mathbf{K})$ is a subspace of $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$.

■ \mathbf{S} is a subspace of \mathbf{V} iff $\alpha\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{S} \forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{S}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ the underlying field of both spaces

■ Intersection of subspaces (arbitrary) is again a subspace i.e. if $\mathbf{W}_1, \mathbf{W}_2$ are subspaces of \mathbf{V} then $\mathbf{W}_1 \cap \mathbf{W}_2$ is also a subspace of \mathbf{V} .

■ Union of subspaces may not be a sub-

space

■ Union of two subspaces is a subspace iff one of them is contained in another i.e. for $\mathbf{W}_1, \mathbf{W}_2$ subspaces of \mathbf{V} , $\mathbf{W}_1 \cup \mathbf{W}_2$ is a subspace iff $\mathbf{W}_1 \subseteq \mathbf{W}_2$ or $\mathbf{W}_2 \subseteq \mathbf{W}_1$.

(note: this is not the same in case of 3 subspaces : consider $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ vector space here $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 = \text{span}((0,1)) \cup \text{span}((1,0)) \cup \text{span}((1,1))$.)

Dependence

a set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subseteq \mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ are called Linearly independent in \mathbf{V} if $\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0} \implies$ all α_i 's are 0 and no other choice is left. Other wise the subset is called linearly dependent

Basis

a subset \mathbf{K} of \mathbf{V} is a spanning set of \mathbf{V} if $\text{span}(\mathbf{K}) = \mathbf{V}$.

A Linearly independent spanning set of $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ is called a Basis of \mathbf{V} .

Dimension

In a given vector space $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$.

■ The number of elements in Basis is constant $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

■ if a set contains more vectors than the Basis set of a vector space then it is linearly dependent.

■ if a linearly independent set contains exactly the same number of elements as a Basis then it is also a Basis.

■ These above points leads us to the Definition : Number of elements n in The Basis set of $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ is unique and is called the Dimension of $\mathbf{V}(\mathbb{F})$ denoted by $\dim(\mathbf{V}) = n$.

if $W_1, W_2 \subseteq V$ are subspaces then
 ■ $\dim(W_i) \leq V$.

■ let $W_1 + W_2 = \text{span}(W_1, W_2)$ then

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

(note: there cannot be a definite formula for $\dim(\sum_{i=1}^n W_i)$ using dimensions of W_i 's and their counterparts (union, intersections) if $n \geq 3$.)

Direct sum

Now if for two subspaces W_1, W_2 of V if $W_1 \cap W_2 = \emptyset$ we write their sum $W_1 + W_2$ as $W_1 \oplus W_2$

■ If $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$ for some non zero subspaces W_1, W_2 then for each vector $v \in V$ can be written **uniquely** as $v = w_1 + w_2$ for unique $w_1 \in W_1$ and $w_2 \in W_2$.

Matrix Representation of vectors

Fix a basis $\beta = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ for a vector space $V(\mathbb{F})$ then as B spans V every vector $x \in V$ can be written as $x = x_1 b_1 + x_2 b_2 + \dots + x_n b_n$ for $x_i \in \mathbb{F}$ and $b_i \in B$ and this representation is unique so each vector can be associated with a column matrix $x_\beta = [x_1 \ x_2 \dots x_n]^T$

Change of Basis Matrix

Given two basis $\beta = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$, $\beta' = \{b'_1, b'_2, \dots, b'_n\}$ for V Then one can change the representation of $x \in V$ from $[x]_\beta$ to $[x]_{\beta'}$ by

$$[x]_{\beta'} = P[x]_\beta$$

where P_n is a invertible matrix given by if $b_j = p_{1j} b'_1 + p_{2j} b'_2 + \dots + p_{nj} b'_n$ then $[p_{1j} \ p_{2j} \dots p_{nj}]^T$ forms the j^{th} column of P .

3 Linear Transform

Definition

a map $T : V(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow W(\mathbb{F})$ (between vector spaces with same underlying field) is called

a linear transform if for every $v, u \in V$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$

■ $T(v + u) = T(v) + T(u)$

■ $T(\alpha v) = \alpha T(v)$

Range and Null space

For a linear transform $T : V \rightarrow W$:

■ Range Space of T denoted by $R(T) \subseteq W$ is $\{w | w = T(v) \text{ for some } v \in V\}$

■ Null Space of T denoted by $N(T) \subseteq V$ is $\{v | T(v) = 0 \in W\}$

■ Both of them are subspaces of the underlying space.

■ T is one-one iff $N(T) = \{0\}$.

■ T is onto if $R(T) = W$

■ if $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ and $N(T) = \{0\}$ then T is onto thus T is bijective.

if T, U are both liner transforms from $V \rightarrow W$ and if both agree on a basis of V (i.e. $T(b_i) = U(b_i) \ \forall i$ for some basis $\beta = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ of V) then both of them are same i.e. $T \equiv U$.

Rank Nullity Theorem

for a linear transform $T : V(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow W(\mathbb{F})$ if $\text{rank}(T) = \dim(R(T))$ and $\text{nullity}(T) = \dim(N(T))$ then

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

(this is just an analogue of 1^{st} isomorphism theorems of Groups)

Matrix of Linear Transform

Given a linear transform $T : V \rightarrow W$, basis $\beta = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ of V and basis $\beta' = \{b'_1, b'_2, \dots, b'_m\}$ of W then we can write the linear transform in the corresponding matrix representation of vectors as

$$[T(x)]_{\beta'} = [T]_{\beta'}^{\beta} [x]_{\beta}$$

where $[T]_{\beta'}^{\beta}$ is a $m \times n$ matrix called Matrix of linear transform of T and is given by if $T(b_j) = t_{1j}b'_1 + t_{2j}b'_2 + \dots + t_{mj}b'_m$ then $[t_{1j} \ t_{2j} \dots t_{mj}]^T$ forms the j^{th} column of $[T]_{\beta'}^{\beta}$.

Change of Basis

if $T : V \rightarrow V$ then $[T]_{\beta}^{\beta}$ is simply written as $[T]_{\beta}$ now if P is the change of basis matrix from basis β' to basis β of V i.e. $[x]_{\beta} = P[x]_{\beta'}$, then

$$[T]_{\beta'} = P^{-1}[T]_{\beta}P$$

(This can be treated as the origin of 'similar' equivalence matrix relationship $A \sim B \iff A = P^{-1}BP$.)

Isomorphism of Vector spaces

Two spaces V, W over same vector space \mathbb{F} are said to be isomorphic to each other if there exist an invertible linear transform $T : V \rightarrow W$ (i.e. T is linear bijective map) and this is denoted by $V \cong W$.

■ if $V(\mathbb{F})$ is of dimension n then $V \cong \mathbb{F}^n = \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) | \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}\}$ i.e. set of n tuples of \mathbb{F} with component wise addition.

■ clearly $V(\mathbb{F}) \cong W(\mathbb{F})$ iff $\dim(W) = \dim(V)$.

Space of Linear Transform

Set of linear transforms

$L(V, W) = \{T | T : V \rightarrow W \text{ is linear transform}\}$ forms a commutative group under addition i.e. $(T + U)(v) = T(v) + U(v)$ (as in W) so it also forms a Vector space over \mathbb{F} (same field as in V and W .)

■ if $\dim(V) = n$ and $\dim(W) = m$ both finite then $\dim(L(V, W)) = nm$

Linear Functional

Linear transformation $f : V(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is called a Linear Functional

■ This is possible as $\mathbb{F}(\mathbb{F})$ is an one dimensional vector space.

■ $\text{rank}(f) = 1$ or 0 so $\text{Nullity}(f) = n - 1$ or n if $\dim(V) = n < \infty$.

■ **Dual space** of V denoted by $V^* = L(V, \mathbb{F})$ is the set of all linear functionals on V

■ clearly $\dim(V^*) = \dim(V)$ if $\dim(V)$ is finite

■ **Dual Basis** : for every basis $\beta = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ of V there exist a corresponding basis $\beta^* = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$ of V^* such that $f_i(b_j) = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$ this β^* is called the dual basis of β

■ if $\{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$ is the dual basis of $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ and $x \in V$ is represented as $x = x_1b_1 + x_2b_2 + \dots + x_nb_n$ then $x_i = f_i(x)$ i.e. the coordinate functions in representation is nothing but the dual functions, i.e.

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)b_i.$$

■ $V \cong V^* \cong V^{**} = L(V^*, \mathbb{F})$ (note: \cong in $V \cong V^{**}$ is nothing but functional evaluation at a point(vectors) only i.e. every element of V^{**} is of form \hat{x} for $\hat{x}(\psi) = \psi(x)$ for some $x \in V$.)

Functional representation Theorem

if V is finite dimensional vector space, $\beta = \{b_i\}$ is its basis and $[x]_{\beta} = [x_1 \ x_2 \dots x_n]$ then every functional f is of form

$$f(x) = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$$

in which $a_i = f(b_i)$, are fixed but x_i varies on input representation x .

Annihilator

if $A \subset V(\mathbb{F})$ be any subset of V then annihilators of A is the set of linear functionals $A^\circ = \{f | f(A) = 0, f \in V^*\} \subseteq V^*$

■ clearly A° is a subspace of V^* for any subset A of V

■ subspaces $W_1 = W_2$ iff $W_1^\circ = W_2^\circ$

■ $(W_1 + W_2)^\circ = W_1^\circ \cap W_2^\circ$.

■ if W is subspace of V then

$$\dim(W) + \dim(W^\circ) = \dim(V).$$

■ if W is subspace of V then $W \cong W^{\circ\circ}$.

Transpose of linear transform

if $T : V \rightarrow W$ is linear transform then its transpose $T^t : W^* \rightarrow V^*$ is a linear transform defined by the evaluation

$T^t(g(\cdot)) = g(T(\cdot))$ i.e. for $g \in W^*$, $T^t(g)$ is the functional $f = g(T(\cdot)) \in V^*$

■ $[T^t]_{\gamma^*}^{\beta^*} = ([T]_{\beta}^{\gamma})^t$ i.e. the corresponding matrix of T^t in dual basis of γ in W and β in V is just the Transpose of the matrix of T in β and γ .

■ if W is finite dimensional then for linear $T : V \rightarrow W$ we have

$$R(T^t) = (N(T))^\circ \text{ and } N(T^t) = (R(T))^\circ$$

■ T is $1-1$ iff T^t is onto and T is onto iff T^t is $1-1$.

■ $\text{Rank}(T^t) = \text{Rank}(T)$.

if linear transform $T \in L(V) = L(V, V)$ then it is called a linear operator.

4 Determinant

Motivation

for a finite dimensional space every linear transform in $L(V)$ can be represented as a unique Matrix, but we need to 'uncover' this matrix to gain the properties of corresponding linear transform one such way is to create a Function from set of matrices to the underlying field with some properties which

helps us with this 'gain'.

Some Properties needed for such a function are :

■ It must be a linear in terms of rows (or columns) of the matrix this is called n -linear.

■ It must be alternating i.e. if any 2 rows (or columns) are equal then it is zero.

■ its value on Identity should be 1 .

Say we obtain a function D with this property for $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrices then this can be extend to $n \times n$ by

$$E_j(A_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} D(A_{ij})$$

for fixed $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, where a_{ij} is the i^{th} row j^{th} column entry of A and A_{ij} is the $n-1 \times n-1$ matrix obtained from A_n by removing i^{th} row and j^{th} column.

Definition

From above points we get determinant for a $n \times n$ matrix with entries from \mathbb{F} as $D : \mathbb{F}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ that is n -linear, Alternating and $D(I) = 1$ is Defined by recursion from the above point or if (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) runs through all the possible permutations of n i.e n -tuple with elements from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with out repetition then $D(A = [a_{ij}]) = \sum_{(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n)} (-1)^{i_1+i_2+\dots+i_n} a_{1i_1} a_{2i_2} \dots a_{ni_n}$

Additional Properties

■ $\det(A) = \det(B)$ if B is obtained by interchanging rows of A

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & C \end{bmatrix} = \det(A) \det(C).$$

5 Diagonalizability

For linear operator $T \in L(V)$ a vector $\alpha \in V$ is called an eigenvector and λ called eigen-

value if $T(\alpha) = \lambda\alpha$. i.e. $\alpha \in N(T - \lambda I)$

■ if $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ (all $n \times n$ matrices with entries from \mathbb{F}) then λ is an eigenvalue of A iff $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

■ From above point we get all eigenvalues of $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ are the solutions of **Characteristic polynomial** $f(t) = \det(A - tI)$.

for a linear operator T on finite dimensional space V

■ The polynomial $p(T)$ such that $p(T) \equiv 0$ i.e. $p(T)x = 0 \forall x \in V$ then $p(T)$ is called the **annihilating polynomial** of T

■ the set of all annihilating polynomials of T forms an ideal in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ now as \mathbb{F} is a field it is also an euclidean domain so this ideal is principle thus is generated by a monic polynomial of minimum degree in it called the **minimal polynomial** of T .

Algebraic Multiplicity of an eigenvalue λ for a linear operator T is multiplicity of λ in the characteristic polynomial of T .

Geometric multiplicity of an eigenvalue λ for a linear operator T is the dimension of the nullspace of $T - \lambda I$.

A linear operator T on V is said to be Diagonalizable if there exist a basis of V containing only eigenvectors of T .

■ T is diagonalisable iff every eigenvalue of T belongs to the underlying field and Algebraic multiplicity = Geometric multiplicity for every eigenvalue of T .

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

if T is a linear operator on finite dimensional space V then characteristic polynomial of T divides minimal polynomial of T i.e. if f is characteristic polynomial of T then $f(T) \equiv 0$.

for a given eigenvalue λ of $T \in L(V)$ the set of all eigenvectors corresponding to λ form

a subspace of V this is called eigenspace of λ .

Invariant subspace

W is an invariant subspace of T over V if $T(W) \subseteq W$.

Eigenspaces are invariant subspaces.

Diagonalizability test

T is diagonalizable iff minimal polynomial of T ($m_T(x)$) splits into distinct linear factors in the underlying field \mathbb{F} i.e.

T is diagonalizable $\iff m_T(x) = (x - c_1)(x - c_2) \dots (x - c_n)$ for distinct $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$

matrix representation

T is diagonalizable iff there exist a representation of T in matrix form which is diagonal matrix i.e. if A is matrix of T in some basis then T is diagonalizable iff there exist an invertible matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = D$ where D is diagonal i.e. iff

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

$$\sim D = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_{22} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

6

Projections or Idempotent Operators

Projections

$E : V(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow V(\mathbb{F})$ (is a projection if $E^2 = E$)
 ■ if E is a projection then $a \in R(T)$ iff $E(a) = a$.

if V is a finite dimensional vector space, say $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ is a given ordered basis then we can define projection operators E_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$) as follows: for $x \in V$, $x = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j b_j$ we have $E_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^i a_j b_j$ i.e. restriction of the element to a particular subspace. Here we get $R(E_i) = \text{span}(\{b_1, \dots, b_i\})$ and $N(E_i) = \text{span}(\{b_{i+1}, \dots, b_n\})$ (note : 0 and I are also projection operator so we can extend these definitions to include 0 -space and whole space.)

By intuition of above point we get if vector space $V = W_1 \oplus W_2 \oplus \dots \oplus W_n$ then there exists linear operators E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n such that

- Range of $E_i = W_i$
- each E_i is a projection.
- $E_i E_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$.
- $I = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_n$

Conversely if above 4 points are satisfied for some set of linear operators $\{E_i\}$ on finite dimensional vector space V then for $W_i = R(E_i)$ we have $V = W_1 \oplus W_2 \oplus \dots \oplus W_n$.

if a linear operator T on V (finite dimensional) and if E the projection operator of subspace $W \subseteq V$ (defining it can be done by using basis definition of the projections) then T commutes with E iff W is invariant on T i.e.

$$\text{for } E^2 = E \text{ and } R(E) = W \\ TE = ET \iff T(W) \subseteq W$$

If vector space $V = U \oplus W$ for some non zero subspaces U, W and if P is the projection operator on V such that $R(P) = U$ then $I - P$ is also a projection operator on V such that $R(I - P) = W$.

Diagonalizability and Projections

if a linear operator T on V is diagonalizable on V then for distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ of $T \exists$ projections E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n on V such that

- range of $E_i =$ eigenspace of λ_i in V .
- $T = \lambda_1 E_1 + \lambda_2 E_2 + \dots + \lambda_n E_n$.
- $E_i E_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$.
- $I = E_1 + E_2 + \dots + E_n$

Conversely if last 3 points are satisfied for any linear operator T and some set of projections $\{E_i\}$ on finite dimensional vector space V then T is Diagonalisable.

Primary Decomposition Theorem

for a Linear operator T on finite dimensional vector space V and if minimal polynomial of $T = m_T(x) = P_1^{r_1}(x) P_2^{r_2}(x) \dots P_n^{r_n}(x)$ where P_i are distinct **primes** $\mathbb{F}[x]$ then for $W_i =$ Nullspace of $P_i^{r_i}(T)$ we have

- $V = V = W_1 \oplus W_2 \oplus \dots \oplus W_n$.
- W_i is T invariant i.e. $T(W_i) \subseteq W_i$.
- for T_i restriction of T on subspace W_i has minimal polynomial $P_i^{r_i}$.

7 Jordan Form

Generalised eigenvectors

For a linear operator T on V , if λ is an eigenvalue of T then a vector v is such that $(T - \lambda I)^k v = 0$ for some positive integer k is generalised eigenvector.

■ The Subspace $K_\lambda = \{v | (T - \lambda I)^k v = 0 \text{ for some +ve integer } k\}$ is called generalised eigenspace.

properties of generalised eigenspaces

For a given linear operator let K_λ denote generalised eigenspace of T w.r.t (with respect to) eigenvalue λ of T then

■ K_λ is T invariant.

■ for eigenvalue $\mu \neq \lambda$ of T : $T - \mu I$ is one-one on K_λ .

■ $\dim(K_\lambda) = m_\lambda$ where $m_\lambda = \text{Algebraic multiplicity of } \lambda$.

■ $K_\lambda = N((T - \lambda I)^{m_\lambda})$ where $m_\lambda = \text{Algebraic multiplicity of } \lambda$.

■ if all of the eigenvalues of T belong to the underlying field then

$V = K_{\lambda_1} \oplus K_{\lambda_2} \oplus \dots \oplus K_{\lambda_n}$ where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are distinct eigenvalues of T .

Cycle of generalised eigenvector : if $v \in K_\lambda$ then the set $\gamma = \{(T - \lambda I)^{k-1}v, (T - \lambda I)^{k-2}v, \dots, (T - \lambda I)v, v\}$, where $(T - \lambda I)^k v = 0$ and $(T - \lambda I)^{k-1}v$ called as initial vector, forms a linearly independent set in K_λ

■ if $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_l$ are cycle of generalised eigenvectors for a given eigenvalue λ such that for each γ_i initial vectors are distinct and linearly independent in K_λ then $\gamma = \cup \gamma_i$ is a linearly independent set in K_λ .

existence Jordan canonical form

for any linear operator $T \in L(V(\mathbb{F}))$

■ every K_λ (generalised eigenspace) has a ordered basis constituting of cycle of generalised eigenvectors.

■ if characteristic polynomial of T completely splits into linear factors in \mathbb{F} then there exist a basis of V containing only Cycle of generalised eigenvectors of T , this basis gives a unique characteristic to T which when viewed in matrix form of T gives raise to Jordan canonical form.

Consequences of Jordan Form

■ Two linear operators or square matrices (whose characteristics polynomial completely splits into linear factors in their under lying field) are similar iff they have the same Jordan form representation.

■ $T \sim T^t$.

■ if characteristic polynomial of T completely splits into linear factors in \mathbb{F} then

$$T \sim D + N.$$

where D is diagonal and N is nilpotent such that $TN = NT$.

matrix representation

if if characteristic polynomial of T completely splits into linear factors in \mathbb{F} then matrix of T : A is similar to J where J is represented as blocks with diagonal entries as eigenvalues and super diagonal entries 1 and rest entries 0 i.e.

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

$$\sim D = \begin{bmatrix} [J_1] & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & [J_2] & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & [J_k] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{where } [J_i] = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_i & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \lambda_i & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}, \lambda_i \text{ an}$$

eigenvalue of T .

8	Rational Form
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9	Inner Product Spaces
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10	Forms
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11	Bilinear Forms
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