

* Associativity:

if AB, BC are defined:

$(AB)C, A(BC)$ also defined & equal

* $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

$AB \rightarrow$ compatible for multiplication $\Rightarrow B^T A^T$ also comp.
but not $A^T B^T$

* Dot product: (Inner product/Scalar product)

- defined for two column vectors of same size n
 \hookrightarrow represent pts. in R^n

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \quad w = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v \cdot w = \sum_j v_j w_j$$

note: $v \cdot w = v^T w$ as a 1×1 matrix
 $w \cdot v = w^T v$

* to map from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, use a $m \times n$ matrix A
and the transformation is:

$$x \mapsto Ax$$

$$x : n \times 1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \quad (\text{domain})$$

$$A : m \times n$$

$$Ax : m \times 1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \quad (\text{range})$$

* Anticlockwise rotation matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

* Scaling matrix:

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

* Linear systems & matrices:

m linear eqns in n variables:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \quad (1)$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \quad (2)$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \quad \dots (m)$$

can be written as:

$$A \underset{\substack{\text{coefficient} \\ \text{matrix} \\ (m \times n) \\ (\text{square})}}{\underbrace{x}} = \underset{(n \times 1)}{\underbrace{b}} \quad \underset{(m \times 1)}{\underbrace{}} \quad \text{(ii)}$$

* $A^+ = [A \mid b] = \text{augmented matrix } (m \times n+1)$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} & \begin{array}{c} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{array} \end{array} \right]$$

* Gauss elimination via ERM's:

(i) P_{jk} : interchange j^{th} & k^{th} row

$$A' = P_{jk} A \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{= the matrix obtained by} \\ \text{interchanging } j^{\text{th}} \text{ & } k^{\text{th}} \text{ rows of } I \end{array}$$

$\downarrow \quad \downarrow$

modified ERM original matrix

$$P_{13} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(i) $E_{jk}(c)$: Row $j = \text{Row}_j + (c \times \text{Row}_k)$

$E_{jk}(c) = I + c E_{jk}$; the matrix obtained by:

→ taking I

→ adding $(c \times \text{Row}_k)$ to Row j

(ii) $M_j(\lambda)$: Row $j = \text{Row}_j * \lambda$

$M_j(\lambda) = \text{Take } I, \text{ multiply } j^{\text{th}} \text{ row by } \lambda.$

Row Echelon Form:

- Each row (except maybe the first) should start w/ a string of 0's.
- Each row has strictly more zeroes than the prev. row.
- ★ The first non zero entry in the j^{th} row is the j^{th} pivot.

1
below &
strictly to the right
of $(j-1)^{\text{th}}$ pivot.

- Below a pivot, all entries must be 0.
- To get the REF, do clever ERO's.
- REF is not unique, reduced REF is.
- value of pivot isn't unique but position is unalterable.
- reduced REF: all pivots = 1.

* The columns in which we find the pivots indicate the "non-free variables". The remaining columns are the free variables which can take any value in \mathbb{R}^x ($x = \text{no. of f.v's}$) and the non f.v's are expressed in terms of the f.v's.

* Theorem:

Let A be a sq. matrix of order n . There exists ERM's such that

$E_N \dots E_2 E_1 A = \text{identity matrix OR its last row} = 0$'s.

(Basically, every matrix is either invertible or not invertible)

* if there exists a matrix B such that:

$$AB = BA = I$$

$B \rightarrow$ inverse of A

inverse of a matrix is unique

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$\text{Every ERM is invertible : } E_{jk}(c)^{-1} = E_{jk}(-c)$$

$$P_{jk}^{-1} = P_{jk}$$

$$M_j(\lambda)^{-1} = M_j(1/\lambda)$$

* Theorem: A square matrix is invertible if & only if it is a product of ERM's.

Proof:

the reduced REF

$$E_N \cdots E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I \quad \rightarrow \text{invertible}$$

OR

last row is zero \rightarrow not invertible

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} \cdots E_N^{-1} \quad (\text{product of ERM's})$$

* A subset V of \mathbb{R}^n is called a vector subspace if :

(i) V is non empty

(ii) $x \in V$ and $a \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow ax \in V$

(closed under scalar multiplication)

(iii) $x, y \in V \Rightarrow x+y \in V$

(closed under addition)

* vector subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 :

(i) zero dimensional : singleton $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ii) one dimensional : line through origin (basis: one vector)

(iii) two dimensional : plane through origin (basis: two vectors)

IV (iv) three dimensional : \mathbb{R}^3 itself (basis: three vectors)

Suppose: $v_1, v_2 \dots v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$

& $a_1, a_2 \dots a_k \in \mathbb{R}$

$a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_k v_k$ is called a linear combination of the vectors w/ their coeffs.

$$V = \{ a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_k v_k / a_1, a_2 \dots \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

↳ linear span of those vectors

* V is generated by $v_1, v_2 \dots v_k$

* To generate a 3 dimensional span (or n dimensional)

→ choosing more than n basis vectors will cause redundancy

* optimal is n .

* if the null vector is part of a set $\{v_1, v_2 \dots v_k\}$

we can directly say, it's linearly dependent bc coeff of null vector ~~as~~ can be made non zero.

* Linearly dependent: A set of vectors is lin. dep. if

$$a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_k v_k = 0$$

such that at least one among $\{a_1, a_2 \dots a_k\}$ is non zero.

- if the set isn't lin dep. \Rightarrow its obv. linearly independent.

i.e. $a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_k v_k = 0$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_k = 0$$

(no other possible way of getting 0 using them)

- * convention: Empty set is linearly indep.

subset of L.I set is also L.I.

- * linear span of \emptyset is $\{0\}$ (\emptyset - empty set)

- * First Fundamental Lemma:

suppose V is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , generated by

k vectors then, any set of $(k+1)$ or more vectors in V are linearly dependent.

- Basis and dimension:

V is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then a subset S of V is called a

basis of V if:

(i) S is linearly independent

(ii) linear span of $S = V$

Theorem:

If V is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^n then

- (i) V has a basis
- (ii) Any two bases have same no. of elements

* A vector subspace in \mathbb{R}^n will have a basis of at-most n elements

($n+1$ = lin. independent condition fails due to 1st lemma)

Dimension of V is the no. of elements in its basis. (cardinality)

Rank of a matrix:

- let A be a $m \times n$ matrix
- columns of A are like elements of \mathbb{R}^m & linear span is called rows of A " \mathbb{R}^n the Column Space of A

" Row Space of A .

- Row Rank of A = dimension of row space of A

Column "

" column "

* If the linear span of a set of vectors = V , the set can be reduced down to the basis of V by deleting those vectors which are linear comb. of the rest (causing linear dependence)

Lemma: Performing ERO's, does not alter Row rank or Column Rank

Theorem: Row rank $A =$ Column rank $A =$ Rank of A

Suppose $\dim V = k$

. if S is a linearly ind. subset of V

and it contains k vectors

$\rightarrow S$ is a basis

. if S is a set of k vectors

and linear span of $S = V$

$\rightarrow S$ is lin. indep.

& S is a basis

Theorem:

Let A be a square matrix :

the following are equivalent :

. Rows of A are linearly indep.

. Columns of A are linearly indep.

. A is invertible

. $\det A \neq 0$

Kronecker - Capelli Theorem:

A system of linear eqns $Ax = b$ has a soln. iff

Rank $A =$ Rank $[A|b]$

Null space and Nullity of a matrix

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix.

$$\text{Null space } (A) = \left\{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Av = 0 \right\}$$

- It is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
- Nullity (A) = dim (Null space (A))

* Rank-Nullity theorem:

$$\text{Rank } A + \text{Nullity } A = n = \text{no. of columns of } A$$

- Structure of space of solns. of $Ax = b$:

assume the system has a soln. x_0 ($\Rightarrow \text{Rank } A = \text{Rank } A^+$)

the set of all solns. is given by:

$$\left\{ x_0 + n \mid n \in \text{Null space } (A) \right\}$$

$$A(x_0 + n) = Ax_0 + An = Ax_0 = b \quad \checkmark$$

\therefore we see, if nullity $> 0 \rightarrow$ infinite solns. of form $x_0 + n$

if nullity $= 0 \rightarrow$ unique soln.

OR

\rightarrow no soln.

Determinantal Rank

Lemma: if A is an $m \times n$ matrix and a $k \times k$ submatrix of it has non zero det., then rank $> k$

• converse also true.

• reason: nonzero det. \Rightarrow linear independence of those columns

↓

rank has to be that, or more

Theorem: Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix

we say A has determinantal rank $\leq k$ if:

- (i) \exists some $(k \times k)$ submatrix of A w/ non zero det.
- (ii) all $(k+1) \times (k+1)$ matrices have zero determinant.

• Row rank = column rank = determinantal rank

• Performing ERO's on A does not change its null space / nullity.

It does not change row/column rank either.

$$\text{Rank } A = \text{Rank } \tilde{A}$$

$$\text{Let } \tilde{A} = \text{REF of } A$$

* Rank $\tilde{A} = \text{no. of pivots} = k \rightarrow \text{no. of non free variables}$

$l = \text{no. of free variables}$

$$k + l = n$$

$\hookrightarrow \text{no. of columns}$

- set diff values to the /v's
'i' such vectors
 - now solve $Ax = 0$
sols
 - the solns. obtained are obviously lying in the null space
 - the 'i' different solns. obtained now are also linearly independent & forms the basis for the null space of A.
- (ii)

- * the columns w/ the pivots are linearly independent
that's why we cannot write other variables using those.
this makes them 'pivoted'.
 - * Rank \leq no. of columns
 \leq no. of rows
- (iii)

Determinants:

- det A is a fn. that assigns to each matrix, a specific real number

$$f: \underbrace{R^n \times R^n \times \dots \times R^n}_{n \text{ times}} \longrightarrow R$$

that satisfies the following properties:

$$(i) f(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \dots, \hat{e}_n) = 1$$

$$\hat{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{e}_n = n^{\text{th}} \text{ numbered column vector w/ } n^{\text{th}} \text{ value} = 1$$

* The inputs to this fn. are the columns of matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{\quad} & \boxed{\quad} & \boxed{\quad} \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f(c_1, c_2, c_3) = \det A$$

$$(ii) f(c_1 \dots c_i, \dots c_j \dots c_n) = -f(c_1 \dots c_j \dots c_i \dots c_n)$$

↑
skew-symmetry
interchange of two columns changes sign

(iii) multilinearity:

$$\alpha f(c_1) + \beta f(c_2)$$

$$f(\alpha c_1' + \beta c_1'', c_2 \dots c_n)$$

$$= \alpha f(c_1', c_2 \dots c_n) + \beta f(c_1'', c_2 \dots c_n)$$

* This is a func. which maps a square matrix to a unique num!

domain is: n tuples of column vectors in \mathbb{R}^n only!

* notation thing:

$$f(\hat{e}_i, \hat{e}_j, \hat{e}_k) = \epsilon_{ijk} f(\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2, \hat{e}_3)$$

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = \begin{array}{l} \text{parity} \\ \text{no. of exchanges} \\ \text{required to order } i, j, k \end{array}$$

parity = 1 ; even swaps

= -1 ; odd swaps

eg. $\overline{2, 3, 1} \rightarrow \underline{1, 3, 2} \rightarrow \overline{1, 2, 3}$

2 swaps \Rightarrow parity = 1

* $\epsilon_{ijk} = 0$ if two of i, j, k are same.

\therefore the det fn. is:

$$f \left(\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= \sum a_{i1} a_{j2} a_{k3} \epsilon_{ijk} \quad (\text{summed over distinct } ijk)$$

fancy way of writing

our usual det. expansion

* general det. formula:

$$\sum \epsilon_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_n} \times a_{i_1 1} \times a_{i_2 2} \dots a_{i_n n}$$

* on writing out the expression, there are $n!$ terms

number of terms

computing det : use smart col. ops.

- * adding multiple of R_j to R_i keeps det same
- * multiplying R_i by k multiplies det by k
- * two rows same $\Rightarrow \det = 0$
- + row interchange $\Rightarrow \det = -\det$;

second fundamental lemma in Linear Algebra:

suppose $f: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a multilinear function
then the foll. are equivalent :

- (i) f is skew-symmm
- (ii) $f(c_1 \dots c_i \dots c_j \dots c_n) = 0$ whenever $c_i = c_j$
- (iii) $f(c_1 \dots c_i, c_{i+1} \dots c_n) = 0$ whenever $c_i = c_{i+1}$

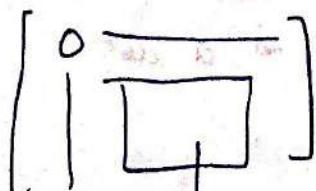
Minors & cofactors:

In an $n \times n$ matrix,

for a_{ij} : delete row & column containing it, and the value of det of $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix is the minor.

cofactor of a_{ij} is minor w/ appropriate sign (A_{ij})

$$A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$$



→ cofactor of a_{11}

* $\det A = a_{11}A_{11} + a_{21}A_{21} + a_{31}A_{31}$

$$= a_{11}A_{11} + a_{21}A_{21} + a_{31}A_{31}$$

= many other ways of writing
along any row/column, it
gives the same answer.

(surprisingly)

* $\det A = \det A^T$

* if A is an $n \times n$ square matrix:

then if $\text{Rank } A = n$

$$\Leftrightarrow \det A \neq 0$$

nullity = 0 \Rightarrow unique soln.

$\text{Rank } < n \Rightarrow \text{nullity } > 0 \Rightarrow \text{infinite solns.}$

* $Ax = 0$ has the trivial soln - null vector iff $\det A \neq 0$

if $\det A = 0$, there are ∞ non-trivial solns.

Gram determinant:

→ used to check linear dependency of n vectors

→ $n \times n$ square matrix where every element is a dot product of two vectors.

e.g. v_1, v_2, v_3 in \mathbb{R}^3

$$\text{grammican} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{v}_1 \cdot \bar{v}_1 & \bar{v}_1 \cdot \bar{v}_2 & \bar{v}_1 \cdot \bar{v}_3 \\ \bar{v}_2 \cdot \bar{v}_1 & \bar{v}_2 \cdot \bar{v}_2 & \bar{v}_2 \cdot \bar{v}_3 \\ \bar{v}_3 \cdot \bar{v}_1 & \bar{v}_3 \cdot \bar{v}_2 & \bar{v}_3 \cdot \bar{v}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

* The vectors are linearly indep. iff grammian $\det [\bar{v}_j \cdot \bar{v}_i]$

$$\text{or } [v_j^T v_i] \neq 0$$

(converse also true!)

* Gram det ≥ 0 always

Adjugate matrix & Cramer's Rule:

To form adjugate matrix:

(i) Take A

(ii) Replace every element w/ its cofactor (minor with sign)

(iii) Take transpose

We see also that:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & ; i \neq i' \\ \det A & ; i = i' \end{cases}$$

* if you multiply minor of that guy w/ that guy itself, cofactor

only then you get det.

* if you multiply it with some other guy, you get 0.

that means we can write this all packaged up in one matrix equation:

$$A \cdot \text{adj } A = \det A (I)$$

* if $\det A \neq 0$:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj } A}{\det A}$$

and:

$$Ax = B \Rightarrow x = A^{-1}B$$

$$= \frac{\text{adj } A \times B}{\det A}$$

* Product theorem:

$$\det AB = \det A \times \det B$$

$$\det A = \det A^T$$

Block multiplication of matrices:

A $2n \times 2n$ matrix can be written as 2×2 matrix where every element is $n \times n$. This is called a partitioned matrix.

$$\text{if } M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}_n \quad N = \begin{bmatrix} P & Q \\ R & S \end{bmatrix}$$

MN is

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P & Q \\ R & S \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} AP + BR & AQ + BS \\ CP + DR & CQ + DS \end{bmatrix}$$

* Let there be 4 $n \times n$ matrices I, P, Q, O

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} I & P \\ O & Q \end{bmatrix} = \det Q$$

* suppose $J = \begin{bmatrix} O & -I_n \\ I_n & O \end{bmatrix}$

A is a $2n \times 2n$ matrix such that

$$A^T J A = J$$

$\det A = \pm 1$ using product theorem

but

$\det A = 1$ is the scene, not -1 . don't ask why

* Let G be the set of all matrices such that $A^TJA = J$

$$\rightarrow I_{2n} \in G$$

$$\rightarrow J \in G$$

$$\rightarrow A, B \in G \Rightarrow AB \in G$$

$$\rightarrow A \in G \Rightarrow A^{-1} \in G \quad (A \text{ is invertible bc } \det A = \pm 1)$$

* if S is a set of $m \times m$ matrices

such that:

$$I_m \in S$$

$$A, B \in S \Rightarrow AB \in S$$

$$A \in S \Rightarrow A^{-1} \in S$$

we say S is a group of matrices

The G above is called the group of symplectic matrices.

Inner products:

Let V be a vector space (subspace of \mathbb{R}^n)

An inner product on V is a function from $V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
which assigns to each pair of vectors $(v_1, v_2) \in V \times V$
a real no. $= \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ satisfying the foll. properties:

Bilinearity:

$$\langle v_1' + v_1'', v_2 \rangle = \langle v_1', v_2 \rangle + \langle v_1'', v_2 \rangle$$

$$\langle v, v_2' + v_2'' \rangle = \langle v, v_2' \rangle + \langle v, v_2'' \rangle$$

Symmetry:

$$\langle v, u \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle$$

also, $\langle \alpha v, v_2 \rangle = \langle v_1, \alpha v_2 \rangle = \alpha \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ (α - scalar)

Positive definiteness: $\langle v, v \rangle > 0$ for all v other than null vectors

$$\langle 0, 0 \rangle = 0$$

Inner product is basically generalised dot product in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\langle [x_1, x_2 \dots x_n]^T, [y_1, y_2 \dots y_n]^T \rangle$$

$$= x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 \dots x_n y_n$$

* if $\langle v, v_2 \rangle = 0$, they are orthogonal. ($v \perp v_2$) (aka perp.)

* $0 \perp v \neq v$

* unit vector : $\langle v, v \rangle = 1$

In general, norm of a vector $\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$

some random formulae:

$$\|v_1 + v_2\|^2 + \|v_1 - v_2\|^2 = 2(\|v_1\|^2 + \|v_2\|^2)$$

$$\|v_1 + v_2\|^2 = \|v_1\|^2 + \|v_2\|^2 \text{ when } v_1 \perp v_2$$

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

If V is an inner product space & $v_1, v_2 \in V$ then

$$|\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle| \leq \|v_1\| \cdot \|v_2\|$$

equality holds iff v_1, v_2 are linearly dep
(multiples of each other)

no one cares about proof.

Theorem:

Suppose V is a vector space endowed w/ an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, then:

nonzero vectors $v_1, v_2 \dots v_k$ are orthogonal



$v_1, v_2 \dots v_k$ are linearly independent

why? gr

* The

Ang

why?
gram det $\neq 0$ (all diagonal elements non zero, and rest 0)

* The converse is false

lin. indep. $\not\Rightarrow$ orthogonal

e.g. $0\hat{i} + 1\hat{j}$

$1\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}$

Angle b/w two vectors:

let v, w be two non zero vectors in an inner product space

$$|\langle v, w \rangle| \leq \|v\| \|w\|$$

$$\Rightarrow -1 \leq \left\langle \frac{v}{\|v\|}, \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right\rangle \leq 1$$

such that θ between them
So \exists a unique $\theta \in [0, \pi]$

$$\text{at } \cos \theta = \left\langle \frac{v}{\|v\|}, \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right\rangle$$

This θ is the angle b/w vectors

$$\theta = \pi/2 \text{ when } v_1 \perp v_2$$

The Gram Schmidt Process:

let's say you have vectors (nonzero) v_1, v_2, v_3

make $\hat{v}_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|}$

express v_2 as \parallel to v_1 , comp + \perp to v_1 , comp



$$\bar{v}_2 - v_2^T$$

$$(\bar{v}_2 \cdot \hat{v}_1) \hat{v}_1$$



v_2^T : tangential

v_2^N : normal

now, make \hat{v}_2

express v_3 using components in plane of v_1 and v_2

and normal to that plane

$$\bar{v}_3 = (\bar{v}_3 \cdot \hat{v}_2) \hat{v}_2 + (\bar{v}_3 \cdot \hat{v}_1) \hat{v}_1 + \bar{v}_3^N$$

at any pt. if $v_3^N = 0 \Rightarrow$ no normal comp.

you can express the last vector as l.c. of the prev. ones \Rightarrow lin dep.

Orthonormal systems & orthonormal basis:

A set of vectors $v_1, v_2 \dots v_k$ in a inner product space V is said to form an orthonormal system if

$$(i) \quad v_i \perp v_j \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

$$(ii) \quad \text{each } v_i \text{ is a unit vector}$$

* In G.S process:

the normal component basically another orthonormal vector which will make up the basis. Once a normal comp. comes out as 0, we know our job is done and we have the basis.

let there be vectors $\{v_1, v_2, v_3 \dots v_i\}$

let the corr. normal components, e.g. = 0 (normal to plane)

with above

$$\frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|} = w_1 \quad (\text{normal to line } v_1)$$

$$\frac{v_2^N}{\|v_2^N\|} = w_2 \quad (\text{normal to line } v_1)$$

(normal to line w_1)

$$\frac{v_3^N}{\|v_3^N\|} = w_3 \quad (\text{normal to plane of } v_1 \text{ & } v_2)$$

$$\|v_3^N\|$$

$$\frac{v_i^N}{\|v_i^N\|} = w_N$$

then $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_i\}$ is an orthonormal system

For $\forall j \quad 1 \leq j \leq i$:

$$\text{lin span } \{v, \dots, v_j\} = \{w_1, \dots, w_j\}$$

As long as process doesn't terminate, the vectors are L.I.

If it terminates at some pt, then those vectors up till that pt are L.D.

Corollary: Given a vector space V endowed w/ an inner product

- (i) there exists an orthonormal basis for V
- (ii) given any basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ we can find an orthonormal basis $\{w_1, \dots, w_k\}$ using GSP such that

$$\text{span } \{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = \text{span } \{w_1, \dots, w_k\}$$

* A circle in \mathbb{R}^n is a set of vectors v such that all of them

have $\langle v, v \rangle = \|v\|^2 = \text{constant}$

e.g. $\bar{u} \cos \theta + \bar{v} \sin \theta$ where \bar{u}, \bar{v} are L unit vectors

If you have a 3×3 matrix where every row is an orthonormal vector, then $A^T A = I_3 = A^T A$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

* The columns will also be orthonormal (Rank = 3 as well as unit vectors too) = Row / Column rank

* Given \bar{v}, \bar{w} in \mathbb{R}^3 , find \bar{z} such that $A = [v, w, z]$

$$A^T A = I \quad (\bar{v}, \bar{w} \text{ are } \perp \text{ unit vecs})$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{\bar{v} \times \bar{w}}{\|\bar{v} \times \bar{w}\|}$$

In \mathbb{R}^n , to find this n^{th} vector, find normal component up till last step using G.S process & normalize it to get ans.

inner products & symmetric matrices

A - real symm. matrix

$u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (column vectors)

$u^T A v$ is a real number = $(1 \times n)(n \times n)(n \times 1)$
= (1×1) matrix

define $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T A v$

... satisfies all inner product conditions except
positive definiteness so we define that:

Def: A real symm. matrix is said to be non-negative if

$$u^T A u \geq 0 \quad \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

and is said to be +ve definite if

$$u^T A u > 0 \quad \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$$

$$u^T A u = 0 \quad \text{if } u = \{0\}$$

* if A & B are real & +ve definite

$\alpha A + \beta B$ are also " (α, β are scalars)

* So now if A is a +ve def. matrix,

$\langle u, v \rangle = u^T A v$ is an inner product on \mathbb{R}^n

Each $n \times n$ matrix can be regarded as an element of \mathbb{R}^{n^2}
 if its symm then you need $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ arguments to
 describe it (dimension)
 new symm

* $\text{Tr}(A) = \sum \text{diagonal elements in square matrix}$

Complex Vector Spaces:

* Everything is same as before, but replace \mathbb{R} w/ \mathbb{C}

now, vectors have complex entries

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \bar{z}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{z}_1 \\ \bar{z}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- scalars are now complex
- all theorems still hold.
- instead of base, dim we now say base, Cdim
- instead of inner product, we have sm new.
- called hermitian form. It splits out a complex number for each vector pair. Its rules are slightly diff. from inner product.

$$(i) \quad \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = \overline{\langle v_2, v_1 \rangle} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{complex conjugate}}$$

$$(ii) \quad \langle v_1' + v_1'', v_2 \rangle = \langle v_1', v_2 \rangle + \langle v_1'', v_2 \rangle$$

$$\langle v_1, v_2' + v_2'' \rangle = \langle v_1, v_2' \rangle + \langle v_1, v_2'' \rangle$$

$$\langle \lambda v, w \rangle = \lambda \langle v, w \rangle$$

$$\langle v, \lambda w \rangle = \bar{\lambda} \langle v, w \rangle$$

... important!

... note the difference
... sesquilinearity

$$(iii) \quad \langle v, v \rangle > 0 \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{C}^n - \{0\}$$

$$\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \quad \text{if } v = 0$$

* Math sesquilinearity convention is opp. to that of QM

e.g. usual hermitian product on \mathbb{C}^n

$$z, w \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

$$\langle z, w \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n z_j \bar{w}_j$$

can be written as

$$\langle z, w \rangle = w^* z$$

$$w^* = \bar{w}^T$$

adjoint = conjugate, transposed

$$(AB)^* = B^* A^*$$

- if $A = A^*$ \Rightarrow self adjoint/hermitian matrix
- if AB , commute & are both hermitian $\Rightarrow AB$ is hermitian
- * if $A = A^*$,
we can consider hermitian product as
 $\langle z, w \rangle = w^* A z$
 again, all conditions except positive definiteness can easily be proved
- if: A hermitian matrix A is said to be +ve definite if
 $w^* A w > 0 \quad \forall w \neq 0$

- if A is +ve definite, then $\langle z, w \rangle = w^* A z$ defines a hermitian product on C^n
- * $(z A)^* = \bar{z} A^*$
- * $A^* = -A \Rightarrow$ skew-hermitian
- * let A be any $n \times n$ matrix

$$B = \frac{1}{2} (A + A^*)$$

$$C = \frac{1}{2i} (A - A^*)$$

$$\therefore A = B + iC$$

this helps when B & C commute

aka $BC = CB$

this gives the final condition

as:

$$A^* A = AA^*$$

* An $n \times n$ matrix is said to be normal if $A^* A = AA^*$

A is said to be normal iff $A = B + iC$

B, C - hermitian + commuting

* Unitary: $AA^* = A^*A = I_n$

if A is real, $A^* = A^T$

$AAT = A^TA = I$ = orthogonal

certified $SAT = \{w, z\}$ next, which are 3 & 4

* More properties of "S" to be told by mentioned

this gives the final condition
as:
 $A^*A = AA^*$

* An $n \times n$ matrix is said to be normal if $A^*A = AA^*$

A is said to be normal iff $A = B + iC$

B, C - hermitian & commuting

* Unitary: $AA^* = A^*A = I_n$

if A is real, $A^* = A^T$

$AA^T = A^TA = I$ = orthogonal

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$$Av = \lambda v$$

A : $n \times n$ matrix

λ : eigenvalue associated to eigenvector v

• A is a mapping from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, such that the output is collinear to the input

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\pi/3 & -\sin\pi/3 \\ \sin\pi/3 & \cos\pi/3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{no eigenvector in } \mathbb{R}^3$$

bc its a rotation transformation,
collineation not possible

If a non-zero vector v lies in the null space of A :

$$Av = 0v$$

0 → eigenvalue

∴ if $\text{nullity } A > 0 \rightarrow 0$ is an eigenvalue

Given a $n \times n$ matrix A , suppose v is an eigenvector w/ eigenvalue λ

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$(A - \lambda I)v = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

conversely, if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\text{nullity}(A - \lambda I) > 0$$

$$\exists v \neq 0 \text{ s.t. } (A - \lambda I)v = 0$$

→ A has eigenvector v with eigenvalue λ

Theorem: The eigenvalues of A are the roots of the polynomial

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \quad (\text{the characteristic eqn})$$

- it is a polynomial of degree n
- may/may not have real roots
- may have repeated roots

$$(A - \lambda I)v = 0$$

- Given A, λ , to find v just solve
using REF

Theorem: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of A and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k then v_1, \dots, v_k are linearly independent.

It follows that if a real matrix A has n distinct eigenvalues w/ corresponding eigenvectors $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, it forms a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

- * A $(n \times n)$ real matrix A is said to be diagonalizable if there is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n w/ eigenvectors of A
(n distinct eigenvalues \Rightarrow diagonalisable)

But,

diagonalisable $\not\Rightarrow$ n distinct ev's

e.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\lambda = 1$

- Real matrix can have complex ev.

- eigenvectors $\neq 0$
- eigenvalue can be 0

Nature of the characteristic eqⁿ:

$$\det(xI - A) = 0$$

- leading coeff = 1
- lets see what we know abt. the coefficients

$$\det(xI - A) = x^n + c_1 x^{n-1} \dots c_n$$

- do some hax, you get:

$$\cancel{(-1)^n} \det A = c_n$$

$$c_{n-1} = \text{coeff of } x = (-1)^{n-1} \sum_{\text{principal minors of } A} (n-1) \times (n-1)$$

* A $k \times k$ principal minor is a $(k \times k)$ subdet such that the diagonal of the subdet is a part of the main diagonal

$$c_{n-2} = \text{coeff of } x^2 = (-1)^{n-2} \sum_{\text{pm's of } A} (n-2) \times (n-2)$$

.. pattern goes on

• For a 3×3 matrix, CP is:

$$x^3 - (\text{Trace})x^2 + \left(\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \right) x - (\det A)$$

★ Sum of eigenvalues = Trace

Product of eigenvalues = Det

$\leq \lambda_i \lambda_j$ (sum taking 2 at a time) = $\leq (2 \times 2)$ PM's

Imp: if A is a real matrix, complex ev's will appear in conjugate pairs!

Theorem: Suppose A is a matrix w/ ev's

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ (counted w/ multiplicities) and

$g(A)$ is a polynomial in A

then $g(\lambda_1), g(\lambda_2), \dots, g(\lambda_n)$ is the list of ev's of

$g(A)$

* ev's of a skew symm matrix are 0 or imaginary

Diagonalisability:

Let A, B be two $(n \times n)$ matrices.

A, B are similar if \exists a non singular matrix P such that $P^{-1}AP = B$.

Suppose v is an eigenvector of A w.r.t λ

$$Av = \lambda v$$

"

$$\lambda v = \lambda v$$

$$(P^{-1}AP)(P^{-1}v) = \lambda(P^{-1}v)$$

$$B(P^{-1}v) = \lambda(P^{-1}v)$$

$\Rightarrow P^{-1}v$ is an eigenvector of B w.r.t same λ

Theorem: For a $(n \times n)$ matrix A , the foll. are equivalent

(i) $\exists P$ s.t

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$
 diagonal matrix

(ii) There is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A

A matrix A is said to be diagonalisable if it satisfies (one and hence both) of the following conditions

- (i) A has n lin. indep eigenvectors.
- (ii) \exists a non sing. matrix s.t

$$P^{-1}AP = \text{diag}(1, \dots, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

Corollary: If A has n distinct ev's, then it is diagonalisable

* Eigenvcs corr. to diff ev's are LI.

* The columns of P are eigenvcs of A . That is what results in the eigenvalue matrix. Note! the vectors must corr. to diff. evals.

Geometric & Algebraic multiplicity:

let A be a $(n \times n)$ matrix

$$\det(\alpha I - A) = (\alpha - \lambda_1)^{k_1} (\alpha - \lambda_2)^{k_2} \dots (\alpha - \lambda_t)^{k_t}$$

where $\lambda_{i,j}$ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

k_j = algebraic multiplicity of λ_j

and nullity of $(A - \lambda_j I)$ is called the geometric multiplicity of λ_j

- * Nullity of A = GM of eigenvalue 0
- * AM of $\lambda \geq$ GM of λ
- * sum of AM's of all λ = n (degree of C.E)

Theorem:

Let A be an $(n \times n)$ matrix, the foll. are equivalent:

- i) A has n lin indep. eigenvectors
- ii) There exists non-sing P s.t. $P^{-1}AP$ is diag.
- iii) For each eigen λ , $A - \lambda I$ is invertible

$$GM = AM$$

Cayley Hamilton Theorem:

Every matrix satisfies its own characteristic equation.

The Spectral Theorem:

Real case: $A \rightarrow$ real symm $(n \times n)$ matrix

\exists orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of

eigenvectors of A

equivalently, \exists an orthogonal matrix O such that

$$O^T A O = \text{diag } (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A and are all real.

Complex case: let A be a $(n \times n)$ hermitian matrix
 ∃ an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^n
 consisting of eigenvectors of A
 equivalently, ∃ a unitary matrix U
 such that

$$U^* A U = \text{diag } (\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n)$$

* All the eigenvalues are real here as well.

orthonormality \Rightarrow inner product $= 0$ gives $i \in \mathbb{R}$

hermitian product $= 0$, i.e. now not \mathbb{R}

Lemma: The ev's of real symm matrix are real & its evcs lie in \mathbb{R}^n

hermitian " are real &

its evcs lie in \mathbb{C}^n

* For a hermitian/real symm matrix A , eigenvectors
 corr. to different eigenvalues are perpendicular!

with some \mathbf{B} other properties w.r.t. other things
 if \mathbf{A} (only) \mathbf{B} called the normal multiplicity of \mathbf{A}
 $(\text{or } \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$ give $= \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{B}$

and brought to standard form with $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}^{-1}$

* Coda:

we found an orthonormal basis v_1, \dots, v_n of \mathbb{C}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A

$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & v_1 \\ | & \vdots \\ | & v_n \end{bmatrix}$ is a unitary matrix

$$UU^* = U^*U = I$$

$$Av = [Av_1, Av_2, \dots, Av_n]$$

$$= [\lambda v_1, \lambda v_2, \dots, \lambda v_n]$$

$$= [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Av = U \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U^*Av = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots \\ 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Commuting matrices:

if A, B are $(n \times n)$ hermitian (or real symm) matrices

we know \exists unitary matrices U and V s.t

$$U^* A U = \text{diag } (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$$V^* B V = \text{diag } (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)$$

λ, μ - ev's of A & B

if we want U and V to be the same matrix,
then the necessary & sufficient condition is
 $A B = B A$.. they commute

Lemma 1: A, B are commuting hermitian matrices

λ is an ev. of A (w/ geom mult. k)

$\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors of A

all w/ value ev. λ

then each of Bv_1, Bv_2, \dots, Bv_k is a linear combination
of v_1, \dots, v_k

Lemma 2: if A, B are commuting hermitian matrices

then \exists a $v \neq 0$ s.t simultaneously

$$Av = \lambda v$$

and

$$Bv = \mu v$$

.. commuting hermitian
matrices have a
common eigenvector

quadratics & conics:

We have:

$$2x^2 + 2y^2 - 2xy = 1$$

what shape is this? ellipse? hyperbola?

lets see how to find out:

it can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}_{A} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 1$$

3x2 matrix

rewrite this equation now as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} P^T A P \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 1$$

what is P ?

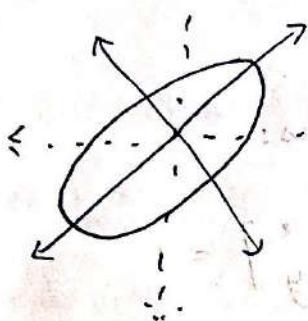
a matrix whose columns are eigenvectors of A
 it rotates the conic, and now instead of the
 usual basis, we have a basis of eigenvectors
 which means we only have nice x^2, y^2, z^2
 terms & no xy, yz stuff (xy, yz pops up
 when stuff other than elongation/shortening of
 basis happens but w/ eigenbasis — the basis
 vectors are only scaled by λ , making things
 simple)

$$P^T A P = \text{diag}(\text{eigenvalues of } A)$$

to form P , generate evec of A and make them columns of a matrix

$$\text{here, } P^T A P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P^T A P \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x^2 + 3y^2 = 1 \\ \text{ellipse} \end{cases}$$



In new coord system: Major & Minor axes: \hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2

~~if you look~~

at it w/ your

head ~~straight~~ rotated

But, to find axes in unrotated xy plane,

{ what you do is, ~~head straight~~ (head straight)}

apply P to \hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2 and convert back

opposite picture, to get rotated picture back

$\hat{P_1}, \hat{P_2}$ are the axes

$= v_1, v_2$ (eigenvectors) \rightarrow (eigenbasis)

Any quadratic

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2hxy + 2gxz + 2fyz = 1$$

can be brought to the form

$$\lambda x^2 + \mu y^2 + \nu z^2 = 1$$

via an orthogonal change of coordinates

λ, μ, ν are ev's of $\begin{bmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{bmatrix}$

Transformation matrix is O

$$O = \begin{bmatrix} | & v_1 & | & v_2 & | & v_3 & | \\ | & & | & & | & & | \\ | & & & & & & | \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 3} \quad v_1, v_2, v_3 - \text{ev's of } \lambda, \mu, \nu$$

$$OO^* = O^*O = I_3 \quad (\text{rotation of coordinates matrix})$$

Possible loci:

(i) All 3 are -ve

\rightarrow imaginary locus

\rightarrow no $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 satisfies $-x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$ (eg.)

(ii) ~~3 negative~~ 3 positive

→ Ellipsoid

$$\lambda x^2 + \mu y^2 + \nu z^2 = \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2}$$

(iii) 2 positive, 1 negative

→ Hyperboloid of one sheet

(iv) 1 positive, 2 negative

→ Hyperboloid of two sheets

(v) if one out of the three is zero, last 2 +ve

→ Cylinder

* Bessel's Inequality & Parseval's formula:

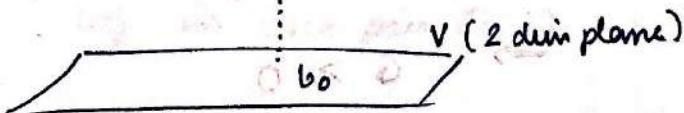
- Let $S = \{w_1, \dots, w_k\}$ be an orthonormal set of vectors (unit) which span a k dim space in \mathbb{R}^n .
- now if you take a vector v , its components along each basis vector of S , will account for v^T (the part of v which lies in that span)
- $\leq (\text{component along } w_i)^2$ will be less than $\|v\|^2$ because the v normal components were left out.
- it is equal when v lies in the span of S . ($v^N = 0$)
<Parseval's formula>

* Least square approximation:

V is a k dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^n ; $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$v \in V$, find b_0 s.t $\|b - v\|^2$ is least when $v = v_0$

e.g.



$$b_0 = \sum \langle b, w_i \rangle w_i = \text{the component of } b \text{ in the span of } \{w_1, \dots, w_k\}$$

→ this work be now,

$$b - b_0 = b - b^T$$

$= b_N \Rightarrow$ the shortest distance is along the \perp path

$$\begin{matrix} k=2 \\ n=3 \end{matrix}$$

orthogonal unit vector basis of V

Cauchy-Binet Theorem:

- A is a $k \times n$ matrix
- B is a $n \times k$ matrix
- $\det(AB) = \text{sum of } (k \times k) \text{ principal minors of } BA$
- * If AB is non diagonalisable / non invertible,
perturb it (change the entries a bit) to
make it diag. / invertible. Now make these
perturbed matrices tend to the actual one,
and apply limit to C-B formula, it will
give the desired answer.

Cor: i) $B = A^T$

$$\det(AA^T) = \text{gramian } (v_1, \dots, v_k)$$

= sum of $(k \times k)$ principal
minors of A^TA

= sum of squares of $(k \times k)$
submatrices of A (or A^T)

(Cauchy-Binet) \Rightarrow

$$G > 0$$

* if $v_1, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$G(v_1, \dots, v_k) \leq \|v_1\|^2 \dots \|v_k\|^2$$

equality holds iff either

- one of the v_j is 0

OR

- the vectors are mutually orthogonal

Cor: Hadamard's inequality

if A is a $(n \times n)$ matrix w/ real entries

$$(\det A)^2 \leq \|v_1\|^2 \dots \|v_n\|^2$$

v_1, \dots, v_n - columns of A

equality holds iff cols. of A are orthogonal

* $G(v_1, \dots, v_k; w_1, \dots, w_l) \leq G(v_1, \dots, v_k) G(w_1, \dots, w_l)$

equality holds if either

- (i) one of the sets $\{w_1, \dots, w_l\}$ or $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ lin dep.

- (ii) $v_i \perp w_j$ for each pair (i, j)

$$1 \leq i \leq k$$

$$1 \leq j \leq l$$