

$m \times n$ MATRIX A has m rows and n columns	$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ is 2×3
i, j – entry is in the i^{th} – row and j^{th} – column	the 2,3 – entry of \mathbf{A} is 6, $a_{23} = 6$
row vector or row , matrix with one row	$(1 \ 2 \ 3)$ a row of size 3
column vector or column , matrix with one column	$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$ is a column of size 3
Square matrix , $m = n$, number of rows is the same as the number of columns	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ is a square matrix.
1×1 is a scalar , a	4 is a scalar
\mathbf{A}^T is the transpose where columns and rows are switched	$\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$
sum , $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ only possible if of the same size, and then add entry-per-entry	if $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{pmatrix}$ then $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+a & 2+b & 3+c \\ 4+d & 5+e & 6+f \end{pmatrix}$
scalar product , $a\mathbf{A}$ always possible	$4\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 4a & 4b & 4c \\ 4d & 4e & 4f \end{pmatrix}$
multiplication of $(1 \times n)(n \times 1)$, $(a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \ \cdots \ a_n) \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} =$ $a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3 + \cdots + a_nb_n$	$(1 \ 2 \ 3) \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = 1 \times a + 2 \times b + 3 \times c = a + 2b + 3c$
multiplication AB only possible if the number of columns of \mathbf{A} is the number of rows of \mathbf{B} : then each row times each column .	\mathbf{AB} is not possible, but $\mathbf{AB}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a+2b+3c & d+2e+3f \\ 4a+5b+6c & 4d+5e+6f \end{pmatrix}$
stacking , making matrices out of smaller matrices	$(\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{B}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & a & b & c \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & d & e & f \end{pmatrix}$
blocking , thinking of a matrix as made up of smaller matrices	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & a & b & c \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & d & e & f \end{pmatrix} = (\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{B})$
adjacency matrix , $(0,1)$ – matrix	$i \rightarrow j$ if and only if $a_{ij} = 1$
main diagonal : the 1,1 – , 2,2 – , ..., n,n – positions	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ has 1 and 4 on its main diagonal.

Diagonal Matrix —square one which has only zeroes off the main diagonal	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is diagonal
I , the identity matrix : diagonal matrix with 1's along the diagonal of any square size	$\mathbf{I}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
IM = MI = M	$(a \ b)\mathbf{I}_2 = (a \ b) = \mathbf{I}_1(a \ b)$
O and J , zero and jay, of any size, having all zeroes and all ones respectively	$\mathbf{O}_{2 \times 3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{J}_{2 \times 3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Upper triangular —square with zeroes below diagonal. Lower triangular similarly.	$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is upper, $\mathbf{B}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is lower
Product of upper triangulars is also upper triangular with diagonal just the product	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b+2c \\ 0 & 3c \end{pmatrix}$
Block multiplication : If $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{N} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{Y} \\ \mathbf{Z} & \mathbf{W} \end{pmatrix}$ and \mathbf{MN} exists and so does \mathbf{AX} , then $\mathbf{MN} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{AX} + \mathbf{BZ} & \mathbf{AY} + \mathbf{BW} \\ \mathbf{CX} + \mathbf{DZ} & \mathbf{CY} + \mathbf{DW} \end{pmatrix}$	Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{J}_{2 \times 3} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{O}_{4 \times 3} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}$ and let $\mathbf{N} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{Y} \\ \mathbf{Z} & \mathbf{W} \end{pmatrix}$ be $5 \times ?$. Then block multiplication can be used when and only when \mathbf{X} is $3 \times ?$ and then $\mathbf{MN} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{J}_{2 \times 3}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Z} & \mathbf{J}_{2 \times 3}\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{W} \\ \mathbf{DZ} & \mathbf{DW} \end{pmatrix}$
A is invertible if $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{XA} = \mathbf{I}$ for some \mathbf{X} . In particular A is then square.	$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible since $\mathbf{A} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_2$
Inverse is unique, \mathbf{A}^{-1} and $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$
Upper triangular is invertible if and only if every diagonal entry is nonzero. Inverse is also upper triangular.	$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible, $\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Diagonal matrix is invertible if and only if diagonal entries are not zero. Inverse is the diagonal of the reciprocals.	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix}$
If A and B are invertible, then so is AB and $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$	$(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 13 \\ 3 & 21 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 21 & -13 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
$(\mathbf{AB})^T = \mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{A}^T$	$(\mathbf{AB})^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 13 \\ 3 & 21 \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 13 & 21 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{A}^T$
Permutation if every entry is either a 0 or a 1, and only one 1 in each row. Permutation matrix P is invertible, $\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^T$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

<p>P invertible, then $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{PAx} = \mathbf{Pb}$ have the same solutions</p>	<p>Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 15 \\ 24 \\ 33 \end{pmatrix}$. and</p> <p>let $\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ and</p> <p>$\begin{pmatrix} 46 & 56 & 66 \\ 105 & 120 & 135 \\ 26 & 31 & 36 \\ 22 & 26 & 30 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 168 \\ 360 \\ 93 \\ 78 \end{pmatrix}$ have the same solutions.</p>
<p>A matrix A is said to be in (row) reduced form (or row echelon form, or row reduced echelon form) if the following 4 conditions are satisfied:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① The first nonzero term of any row is a 1. This entry is called a pivot, and thus every row is either all zeros or it has a unique pivot. Hence a nonzero row will be called pivotal, and such a row will have exactly one pivot. Conversely, every pivot is in a pivotal row. ② A column that contains a pivot, a pivotal column, has all zeroes except for the pivot. Hence any pivotal column is identical to a column of the identity matrix, and a pivotal column has exactly one pivot, and every pivot is in a pivotal column. ③ Any zero row is below any pivotal row. ④ The pivots in the matrix lie from upper left to lower right. 	<p>$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & ? & 0 & ? & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & ? & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is reduced</p> <p>$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ are not reduced</p>
<p>For any matrix M there exists an invertible matrix P such that PM is reduced</p>	<p>$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 & 39 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 34 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 26 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{37}{4} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{17}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{11}{4} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{PM}$ where</p> <p>$\mathbf{P} = \frac{1}{12} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -4 & -1 \\ -5 & 8 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$.</p>
<p>The reduced form of A is unique, $rref(\mathbf{A})$ is a common designation</p>	<p>No matter what invertible matrix Q we use, if QM is reduced, then QM is as above</p>

\mathbf{A} is invertible if and only if $\text{rref}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{I}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ reduces to \mathbf{I}_2
If \mathbf{A} is invertible, then $(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{I})$ reduces to $(\mathbf{I} \mid \mathbf{A}^{-1})$	$\text{rref}\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$
To solve, $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ reduce augmented matrix $(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$ and proceed.	$(1 \ 2)\mathbf{x} = 7$ has all solutions where $x_1 = 7 - 2x_2$ so x_2 is a free variable
$r(\mathbf{A})$, the rank of \mathbf{A} , is the number of pivots in the reduced form of \mathbf{A} . The nullity is the number of free variables.	$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ has rank 3 and nullity 2.
$r(\mathbf{A})$ is the number of leading variables of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$	To solve $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{pmatrix}$ we have $x_1 + x_2 + x_4 = b_1$, $x_3 + x_4 = b_2$, $x_5 = b_3$ and $0 = b_4$ and the leading variables are x_1 , x_3 and x_5
$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ will have a solution if and only if $r(\mathbf{A}) = r(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$	As above, $r(\mathbf{A}) = r(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$ if and only if $b_4 = 0$ which is equivalent to the system having a solution (infinitely many in this case)
If $\mathbf{Mx} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution, then that solution is unique if and only if $r(\mathbf{M}) = n$ where n is the number of columns of \mathbf{M} —otherwise it has infinitely many solutions	Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ be reduced. Then $\mathbf{Mx} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{pmatrix}$ is equivalent to $x_1 = b_1$, $x_2 = b_2$, and $r(\mathbf{M}) = 3$ if and only if $? = 1$. And then $x_3 = b_3$, otherwise x_3 is free and can be anything. Of course, $b_4 = 0$ if there is to be a solution
If $\mathbf{Mx} = \mathbf{b}$ has infinitely many solutions, then all solutions can be written in the form $\mathbf{u} + t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k$ where \mathbf{u} is an arbitrary solution to $\mathbf{Mx} = \mathbf{b}$, $\mathbf{Mv}_i = \mathbf{0}$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, k is the number of free variables, and the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ when viewed in the positions corresponding to the free variables constitute \mathbf{I}_k	The system $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ ? \end{pmatrix}$ when written out becomes $x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_4 = 7$ so $x_1 = 7 + 2x_2 - 3x_4$, $x_3 + 4x_4 = 8$ so $x_3 = 8 - 4x_4$, and $x_5 = 9$, so its solution set is given by $\begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 0 \\ 8 \\ 0 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} + t_1 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ \mathbf{1} \\ 0 \\ \mathbf{0} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t_2 \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ \mathbf{0} \\ -4 \\ \mathbf{1} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

An expression of the form $a_1\mathbf{A}_1 + a_2\mathbf{A}_2 + \cdots + a_t\mathbf{A}_t$ is called a linear combination of $\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_t$	$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = 2\mathbf{J}_2 + 3\mathbf{I}_2$
To write a linear combination is equivalent to matrix multiplication by a vector	$\begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ because $\begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$
the span of $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_t$, $[\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_t]$, is the collection of all linear combinations of them	the span of $\mathbf{I}_2, \mathbf{J}_2$, $[\mathbf{I}_2, \mathbf{J}_2] = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
A collection V is called a space if the following occur: ① $\mathbf{0} \in V$ ② If $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ then so does $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ ③ If $\mathbf{u} \in V$ then so does $a\mathbf{u}$ for any scalar a	The set $\{t\mathbf{J}_2\}$ is a space since it satisfies the three conditions: $0\mathbf{J}_2$, $t\mathbf{J}_2 + s\mathbf{J}_2 = (t+s)\mathbf{J}_2$ and $s(t\mathbf{J}_2) = (st)\mathbf{J}_2$. On the other hand: $\{(t \ 0), (0 \ t)\}$ is NOT a space although it satisfies the first and third condition, it does not satisfy the second one: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \notin V$
the column space of a matrix, $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$, is the span of its columns	$\mathcal{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left\{ a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} + c \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
For any \mathbf{b} , $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution when and only when $\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$	$\begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 15 \\ 24 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ since $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 15 \\ 24 \end{pmatrix}$
the null space of a matrix, $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{A})$, is the set of solutions of the homogeneous system $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{N} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left\{ a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
the row space of a matrix, $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{A})$, is the span of its rows	$\mathbf{R} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}^T, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}^T, \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}^T \right] = \left\{ a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}^T + b \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}^T + c \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}^T \right\}$
If \mathbf{P} is invertible, then $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{PA}) = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{PA}) = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{A})$ but not necessarily true that $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{PA}) = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$	$\begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 & 0 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ so $[(1 \ 2 \ 3), (4 \ 5 \ 6), (7 \ 8 \ 9)] = [(1 \ 0 \ -1), (0 \ 1 \ 2)]$ $\mathbf{N} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \mathbf{N} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, but $\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} \right] \neq \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right]$

<p>let $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_t)$, then the following statements are equivalent:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① Every column of \mathbf{A} is pivotal ② \mathbf{A} is of full column rank, $r(\mathbf{A}) = n$ ③ If $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$, i.e., $N(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{0}$ ④ If $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}$, then $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ ⑤ There exists a matrix \mathbf{B} such that $(\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{B})$ is invertible 	<p>Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ Then $rref(\mathbf{M}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ Also</p> <p>$r(\mathbf{M}) = 2$. The system $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ reduces to</p> <p>$x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$. The matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is invertible.</p>
<p>Let $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$ be vectors in \mathbb{R}^m. We will refer to them as transparent if there is a set of n positions among the rows of the \mathbf{w}'s where we can find \mathbf{I}_n.</p>	<p>$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 7 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is transparent since we can see the identity matrix \mathbf{I}_3 in rows 2, 4 and 5</p>
<p>Consider $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$. Then the following are equivalent:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① $\mathbf{u}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$ and for each $i = 2, \dots, n$, $\mathbf{u}_i \notin [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{i-1}]$ ② There exists an invertible matrix \mathbf{P} such that $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{P}\mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{P}\mathbf{u}_n$ is transparent ③ Whenever $a_1\mathbf{u}_1 + a_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{u}_n = \mathbf{0}$, we must have $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0$ ④ For any scalars, if $a_1\mathbf{u}_1 + a_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{u}_n = b_1\mathbf{u}_1 + b_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + b_n\mathbf{u}_n$ we must have $a_1 = b_1, a_2 = b_2, \dots, a_n = b_n$ ⑤ There exists an invertible matrix \mathbf{P} whose first n columns are $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ <p>Such a collection of vectors is known as linearly independent</p>	<p>Take $\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\mathbf{u}_2 \notin [\mathbf{u}_1]$,</p> <p>and $\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 4 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ satisfies</p> <p>$(\mathbf{P}\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{P}\mathbf{u}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_2 \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$. If $a_1\mathbf{u}_1 + a_2\mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{0}$ then $a_1 + a_2 = 0$ and also $a_1 + 2a_2 = 0$ and so we get $a_2 = 0$ and then $a_1 = 0$ also.</p>
<p>Let V be a space and $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ be in V. We say they span V if $[\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n] = V$. They are also called a spanning set.</p>	<p>$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$ is a spanning set for $\mathcal{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$</p>
<p>Let V be a space and $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ be a spanning set for V. Then we say they form a basis if they are also linearly independent.</p>	<p>$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$ is NOT a basis for $\mathcal{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$</p>
<p>A space has many bases but all of them have the same size. That common size is called the dimension of V</p>	<p>$\dim \mathbb{R}^5 = 5$</p>

Every column of \mathbf{A} is a linear combination of pivotal columns of \mathbf{A}	$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$, $rref(\mathbf{A}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{C}_3 = -\mathbf{C}_1 + 2\mathbf{C}_2$ in both matrices and also $\mathbf{C}_4 = -2\mathbf{C}_1 + 3\mathbf{C}_2$ where \mathbf{C} is for column
$\dim \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) = r(\mathbf{A})$ $\dim \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = r(\mathbf{A})$ $\dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = n - r(\mathbf{A})$ where n is the number of columns of \mathbf{A}	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$; $(1 \ 0 \ -1 \ -2), (0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3)$ is a basis for $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$, and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$
$r(\mathbf{A}) = r(\mathbf{A}^T)$	$rref(\mathbf{A}^T) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T$
If \mathbf{M} has independent columns, then $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M})^{-1}\mathbf{M}^T$ is the projection onto $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{M})$	Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 6 \\ 9 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$ so $\mathbf{Q} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$
Solve $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ by solving $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{b}$	To solve $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, one solves instead for $\frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$
If \mathbf{B} is a square matrix, then there is always a unique monic polynomial $m_{\mathbf{B}}(x)$ of least degree such that $m_{\mathbf{B}}(\mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{0}$, the minimum polynomial of \mathbf{B}	If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$, then $m_{\mathbf{B}}(x) = x - 1$ If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$, then $m_{\mathbf{B}}(x) = x$ If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{J}_n$, then $m_{\mathbf{B}}(x) = x^2 - nx$
$\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = [\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{B}^2, \mathbf{B}^3, \dots]$ is the algebra generated by \mathbf{B} , which is a space closed under multiplication	If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$, then $\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = [\mathbf{I}] = \{a\mathbf{I}\}$ If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{J}_n$, then $\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = [\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{J}] = \{a\mathbf{I} + b\mathbf{J}\}$ If $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
$\dim \langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = \deg m_{\mathbf{B}}(x)$	Consider $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, then $m_{\mathbf{B}}(x) = (x - 2)^3 = x^3 - 6x^2 + 12x - 8$, so $\mathbf{B}^3 = 6\mathbf{B}^2 - 12\mathbf{B} + 8\mathbf{I}$ and $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{B}^2$ constitute a basis for $\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle$ and $\dim \langle \mathbf{B} \rangle = 3$

the determinant of a matrix is a scalar	$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc$
$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} = aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - afh - bdi$	$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = 45 + 96 + 84 - 105 - 48 - 72 = 0$
If \mathbf{A} is a square, then a new matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ (the adjoint) can be built whose i, j -entry is $(-1)^{i+j} \det \mathbf{A}_{ji}$ where \mathbf{A}_{ji} is obtained from \mathbf{A} by deleting the j^{th} -row and the i^{th} -column (note the switch)	If $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -3 \\ 4 & -11 & 6 \\ -3 & 6 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$
$\mathbf{A}\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = (\det \mathbf{A})\mathbf{I} = \tilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}$ \mathbf{A} is invertible when and only when $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$ and then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} \tilde{\mathbf{A}}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 10 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -3 \\ 4 & -11 & 6 \\ -3 & 6 & -3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 10 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{-1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -3 \\ 4 & -11 & 6 \\ -3 & 6 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$
For any i , $\det \mathbf{A} = (-1)^{i+1} a_{i1} \det \mathbf{A}_{1i} + (-1)^{i+2} a_{i2} \det \mathbf{A}_{2i} + \cdots + (-1)^{i+n} a_{in} \det \mathbf{A}_{ni}$	$\det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ ? & a & b \\ ? & c & d \end{pmatrix} = 2(ad - bc)$
$\det(\mathbf{AB}) = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B})$	$522 = \det \begin{pmatrix} 46 & 26 \\ 79 & 56 \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 8 \\ 8 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = -9 \times -58$
$\widetilde{\mathbf{A}^T} = \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^T$ and $\det(\mathbf{A}^T) = \det \mathbf{A}$	$\widetilde{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 10 \end{pmatrix}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -3 \\ 2 & -11 & 6 \\ -3 & 6 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$
Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C} \end{pmatrix}$ where \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{C} are square (not necessarily of the same size). Then $\det \mathbf{M} = \det \mathbf{A} \det \mathbf{C}$.	Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & ? & ? & ? \\ 1 & 2 & ? & ? & ? \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\det \mathbf{M} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \times 20 = 60$
Let \mathbf{A} be upper triangular, then $\det \mathbf{A} = a_{11} a_{22} \cdots a_{nn} = \prod_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$	$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ ? & 2 & 0 \\ ? & ? & 3 \end{pmatrix} = 6$
If \mathbf{P} is a permutation, then $\det \mathbf{P} = \pm 1$	$\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -1$, $\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1$

Throughout the remaining of the course, our matrices will be square	
The polynomial $c_A(x) = \det(\mathbf{A} - x\mathbf{I})$ has leading coefficient ± 1 and has degree the size of \mathbf{A} . It is called the characteristic polynomial of \mathbf{A}	$c_{J_2}(x) = -2x + x^2$ $c_{J_3}(x) = 3x^2 - x^3$
Let λ be a scalar. Then the following are equivalent: ❶ $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$ ❷ $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{u}$ for some nonzero vector \mathbf{u} ❸ λ is a root of $c_A(x)$	❶ $\det(\mathbf{J}_3 - 3\mathbf{I}) = 0$ ❷ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ❸ $c_{J_3}(3) = (3x^2 - x^3)(3) = 3(3)^2 - (3)^3 = 0$
Such a λ is called an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} and such a \mathbf{u} is an eigenvector of \mathbf{A}	3 is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{J}_3 and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a corresponding eigenvector
The complete list of roots of $c_A(x)$ (that is the list eigenvalues) is known as the spectrum of \mathbf{A}	The spectrum of \mathbf{J}_3 is 3,0,0 The spectrum of \mathbf{J}_2 is 2,0
The spectrum of an upper triangular matrix consists of its diagonal entries	The spectrum of $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & ? & ? \\ 0 & 2 & ? \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{pmatrix}$ is 1,2, a
\mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are similar if $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{B}$ for some invertible matrix \mathbf{P}	Since $\begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -14 & -22 \\ 12 & 19 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} -14 & -22 \\ 12 & 19 \end{pmatrix}$ are similar
Two similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomial	$x^2 - 5x - 2$ is the common characteristic polynomial of the example above
\mathbf{A} is diagonalizable if \mathbf{A} is similar to a diagonal matrix.	\mathbf{J}_3 is diagonalizable since $\frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
If \mathbf{P} diagonalizes \mathbf{A} , then its columns are eigenvectors of \mathbf{A}	Indeed $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ are eigenvectors of \mathbf{J}_3
Not every matrix is diagonalizable	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ has spectrum 1,1 so if it were diagonalizable it would be similar to \mathbf{I} which is impossible
Not every matrix has real eigenvalues but when it does, it is similar to an upper triangular matrix	If $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, then $c_A(x) = x^2 + 1$, but also $\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

The trace of a matrix is the sum of its diagonal elements. Abbreviated, $\text{tr } \mathbf{A}$.	$\text{tr } \mathbf{I}_n = n = \text{tr } \mathbf{J}_n$
If $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{B}$, then $c_{\mathbf{A}}(x) = c_{\mathbf{B}}(x)$, $m_{\mathbf{A}}(x) = m_{\mathbf{B}}(x)$, $\det \mathbf{A} = \det \mathbf{B}$ and $\text{tr } \mathbf{A} = \text{tr } \mathbf{B}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} -14 & -22 \\ 12 & 19 \end{pmatrix}$ both have determinant -2 and trace 5
If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ is the spectrum of \mathbf{A} then $\lambda_1 \times \lambda_2 \times \dots \times \lambda_n = \det \mathbf{A}$ and $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n = \text{tr } \mathbf{A}$	Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ then $\mathbf{A} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 6 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{A} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ -5 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ -5 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{A} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = -4 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ so its spectrum is $0, 6, -4$ and $\text{tr } \mathbf{A} = 2 = 0 + 6 - 4$ while $\det \mathbf{A} = 0 = 0 \times 6 \times 4$
If $p(x)$ is a polynomial, and \mathbf{A} is similar to \mathbf{B} , then $p(\mathbf{A})$ is similar to $p(\mathbf{B})$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{pmatrix}$ is similar to $\begin{pmatrix} -14 & -22 \\ 12 & 19 \end{pmatrix}^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -67 & -110 \\ 60 & 98 \end{pmatrix}$
If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ is the spectrum of \mathbf{A} and $p(x)$ is a polynomial, then $p(\lambda_1), p(\lambda_2), \dots, p(\lambda_n)$ is the spectrum of $p(\mathbf{A})$	Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\mathbf{A}^2 + \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 27 & 2 & 8 \\ 10 & 11 & 16 \\ 10 & 10 & 17 \end{pmatrix}$ has spectrum $1, 37, 17$
$c_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{0}$	If $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, then $c_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x^2 - (a+d)x + (ad - bc)$ and $\mathbf{M}^2 - (a+d)\mathbf{M} + (ad - bc)\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{0}$
$m_{\mathbf{A}}(x)$ is a factor of $c_{\mathbf{A}}(x)$ and every eigenvalue is a root of $m_{\mathbf{A}}(x)$	Consider $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $c_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x^2(x-1)^2$ and $m_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x^2(x-1)^2$ if $z \neq 0$ and $x \neq 0$, $m_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x(x-1)^2$ if $x \neq 0$ and $z = 0$, $m_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x^2(x-1)$ if $z \neq 0$ and $x = 0$, $m_{\mathbf{M}}(x) = x(x-1)$ if $z = 0$ and $x = 0$
If λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} then its algebraic multiplicity is the number of times λ occurs as a root of $c_{\mathbf{A}}(x)$	In the previous example, the algebraic multiplicity of 1 is 2 and so is the algebraic multiplicity of 0
If λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} then its geometric multiplicity is the number of independent eigenvectors for λ	In the example above, if $x = 0$, then $r(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{I}) = 2$ so its nullity is 2 , and so the geometric multiplicity of 1 is also 2 . If $x \neq 0$, then $r(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{I}) = 3$ and then the geometric multiplicity is only 1 .

The geometric multiplicity is always less than or equal to the algebraic multiplicity	Let $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then the algebraic multiplicity of 1 is 3. But if $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$, then $r(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{I}) = 2$, so the geometric multiplicity of 1 is just 1. If $x \neq 0$ and $y = 0$, then geometric multiplicity is 2, and if $x = y = 0$, then it is of course 3
Eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are linearly independent	Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ -5 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ are independent
The following are equivalent for a matrix \mathbf{A} : ❶ \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable ❷ There is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} ❸ The geometric multiplicity equals the algebraic multiplicity for every eigenvalue	$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then ❶ holds since $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{D}$ where $\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. ❷ holds since $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ form a basis of eigenvectors. ❸ holds since the multiplicities of 4 are both 1 while those of 0 are both 2
A matrix with different eigenvalues is diagonalizable	$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is diagonalizable since its eigenvalues are 0, 6, -4
A matrix is diagonalizable if and only if its minimum polynomial has different roots	The minimum polynomial of $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is $x^2 - 4x$ while its characteristic polynomial is $x(x^2 - 4x)$
$\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_t$ are mutually orthogonal if $\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = \mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ for any $i \neq j$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ are mutually orthogonal
If $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_t$ are mutually orthogonal and not zero, then they are linearly independent	same as above
If $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_t$ are independent, and $\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1$, $\mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1$, $\mathbf{u}_3 = \mathbf{v}_3 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2}{\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2$, then $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_t$ are mutually orthogonal	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ become $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

A symmetric matrix has real eigenvalues	<p>If $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$, then its spectrum is given by</p> $\frac{a+c \pm \sqrt{(a-c)^2 + 4b^2}}{2}$
Eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are orthogonal	<p>Let $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ then $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ are eigenvectors for 0 and 14 respectively and they are orthogonal</p>
A square matrix \mathbf{P} is orthogonal if $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{P}^T = \mathbf{I}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ -\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & -2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ are}$
<p>The following are equivalent:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❶ \mathbf{P} is orthogonal ❷ \mathbf{P}^T is orthogonal ❸ The columns of \mathbf{P} form an orthonormal basis (mutually orthogonal of length 1) ❹ The rows of \mathbf{P} form an orthonormal basis (mutually orthogonal of length 1) 	<p>The examples just above illustrate the theorem. Peculiarly, not enough for the columns to be mutually orthogonal to obtain the rows to be orthogonal. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ has orthogonal columns but not rows</p>
Let \mathbf{A} have real eigenvalues. Then there exists an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{P} such that $\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{T}$ is upper triangular.	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ -\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & -2 \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ -\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3\sqrt{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
Let \mathbf{A} be symmetric, then there exists an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{P} such that $\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{D}$ is diagonal \mathbf{A} is orthogonally diagonalizable	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{42}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{7} & 4\sqrt{2} \\ 2\sqrt{3} & -2\sqrt{7} & \sqrt{2} \\ 3\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{7} & -2\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{42}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{7} & 4\sqrt{2} \\ 2\sqrt{3} & -2\sqrt{7} & \sqrt{2} \\ 3\sqrt{3} & \sqrt{7} & -2\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 14 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
An equation of the form $ax + bxy + cy + dx + ey + f = 0$ is a general quadratic equation	$4x^2 + 4xy + y^2 - 24x + 38y - 139 = 0$
A general quadratic equation always represents a conic (although some are so called simplistic conic)	$x^2 + y^2 = 1 \text{ is the unit circle}$ $x^2 - y^2 = 1 \text{ is a hyperbola}$ $x^2 - y^2 = 0 \text{ represents two lines}$
One associates the symmetric matrix $\begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix}$ with the equation	$4x^2 + 4xy + y^2 - 24x + 38y - 139 = 0 \text{ has matrix } \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
the shape of the conic is determined by the determinant of the matrix: 0, parabola , positive, ellipse and negative hyperbola	$4x^2 + 4xy + y^2 - 24x + 38y - 139 = 0 \text{ is a parabola}$