Title

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1 | Linear Algebra

Remark 1.0.1 : The underlying field will be assumed to be $\mathbb R$ for this section.





$$\operatorname{Mat}(m, n)$$

$$T$$

$$A \in \operatorname{Mat}(m, n)$$

$$A^{t} \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, m)$$

$$\mathbf{a}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{t}$$

$$A = [\mathbf{a}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{a}_{n}]$$

$$V, W$$

$$|V|, \dim(W)$$

$$\det(A)$$

$$[A \mid \mathbf{b}] \coloneqq [\mathbf{a}_{1}, \mathbf{a}_{2}, \cdots \mathbf{a}_{n}, \mathbf{b}]$$

$$[A \mid B] \coloneqq [\mathbf{a}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{b}_{m}]$$

$$\operatorname{Spec}(A)$$

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

$$r \coloneqq \operatorname{rank}(A)$$

$$r_{b} = \operatorname{rank}\left([A \mid \mathbf{b}]\right)$$

the space of all $m \times n$ matrices a linear map $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ an $m \times n$ matrix representing Tan $n \times m$ transposed matrix a $1 \times n$ column vector an $n \times 1$ row vector a matrix formed with \mathbf{a}_i as the columns vector spaces dimensions of vector spaces the determinant of Aaugmented matrices block matrices the multiset of eigenvalues of Aa system of linear equations the rank of Athe rank of A augmented by \mathbf{b} .

1.2 Big Theorems

Theorem 1.2.1 (Rank-Nullity).

$$|\ker(A)| + |\operatorname{im}(A)| = |\operatorname{dom}(A)|.$$

Generalization: the following sequence is always exact:

$$0 \to \ker(A) \stackrel{\mathrm{id}}{\hookrightarrow} \mathrm{dom}(A) \xrightarrow{A} \mathrm{im}(A) \to 0.$$

Moreover, it always splits, so dom $A = \ker A \oplus \operatorname{im} A$ and thus $|\operatorname{dom}(A)| = |\ker(A)| + |\operatorname{im}(A)|$.

1.3 Big List of Equivalent Properties

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. TFAE: - A is invertible and has a unique inverse A^{-1} - A^{T} is invertible - $\det(A) \neq 0$ - The linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution for every $b \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ -

1.1 Notation 3

The homogeneous system $A\mathbf{x}=0$ has only the trivial solution $\mathbf{x}=0$ - rank(A)=n - i.e. A is full rank - nullity $(A):=\dim \operatorname{nullispace}(A)=0$ - $A=\prod_{i=1}^k E_i$ for some finite k, where each E_i is an elementary matrix. - A is row-equivalent to the identity matrix I_n - A has exactly n pivots - The columns of A are a basis for \mathbb{R}^n - i.e. $\operatorname{colspace}(A)=\mathbb{R}^n$ - The rows of A are a basis for \mathbb{R}^m - i.e. $\operatorname{rowspace}(A)=\mathbb{R}^n$ - ($\operatorname{colspace}(A)$) $^{\perp}=(\operatorname{rowspace}(A)^{\perp}=\{\mathbf{0}\}$ - Zero is not an eigenvalue of A. - A has n linearly independent eigenvectors - The rows of A are coplanar.

Similarly, by taking negations, TFAE:

- A is not invertible
- A is singular
- A^T is not invertible
- $\det A = 0$
- The linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has either no solution or infinitely many solutions.
- The homogeneous system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has nontrivial solutions
- $\operatorname{rank} A < n$
- dim nullspace A > 0
- At least one row of A is a linear combination of the others
- The RREF of A has a row of all zeros.

Reformulated in terms of linear maps T, TFAE: $T^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ exists $-\operatorname{im}(T) = \mathbb{R}^n - \ker(T) = 0$. T is injective T is surjective T is an isomorphism T he system T is infinitely many solutions

1.4 Vector Spaces



Proposition 1.4.1(Two-step vector subspace test).

If $V \subseteq W$, then V is a subspace of W if the following hold:

$$\mathbf{0} \in V$$

(2)
$$\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V \implies t\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \in V.$$

1.4.1 Linear Independence

Proposition 1.4.2(?).

Any set of two vectors $\{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$ is linearly **dependent** $\iff \exists \lambda : \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{w}$, i.e. one is not a scalar multiple of the other.

1.4.2 Bases

Definition 1.4.1 (Basis and dimension).

A set S forms a **basis** for a vector space V iff

- 1. S is a set of linearly independent vectors, so $\sum \alpha_i \vec{s_i} = 0 \implies \alpha_i = 0$ for all i.
- 2. S spans V, so $\vec{v} \in V$ implies there exist α_i such that $\sum \alpha_i \vec{s_i} = \vec{v}$

In this case, we define the **dimension** of V to be |S|.

Show how to compute basis of kernel.

Show how to compute basis of row space (nonzero rows in $\ref{eq:constraint}(A)$?)

Show how to compute basis of column space: leading ones

1.4.3 The Inner Product

The point of this section is to show how an inner product can induce a notion of "angle", which agrees with our intuition in Euclidean spaces such as \mathbb{R}^n , but can be extended to much less intuitive things, like spaces of functions.

Definition 1.4.2 (The standard inner product).

The Euclidean inner product is defined as

$$\langle \mathbf{a}, \ \mathbf{b} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \dots + a_n b_n.$$

Also sometimes written as $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}$ or $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$.

Proposition 1.4.3 (Inner products induce norms and angles).

Yields a norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| \coloneqq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{x} \rangle}$$

which has a useful alternative formulation

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{x} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2.$$

This leads to a notion of angle:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \theta_{x,y} \implies \cos \theta_{x,y} := \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|} = \langle \widehat{\mathbf{x}}, \ \widehat{\mathbf{y}} \rangle$$

where $\theta_{x,y}$ denotes the angle between the vectors **x** and **y**.

Remark 1.4.1: Since $\cos \theta = 0$ exactly when $\theta = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$, we can can declare two vectors to be **orthogonal** exactly in this case:

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{y}^{\perp} \iff \langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0.$$

Note that this makes the zero vector orthogonal to everything.

Definition 1.4.3 (Orthogonal Complement/Perp).

Given a subspace $S \subseteq V$, we define its **orthogonal complement**

$$S^{\perp} = \left\{ \mathbf{v} \in V \mid \forall \mathbf{s} \in S, \ \langle \mathbf{v}, \ \mathbf{s} \rangle = 0 \right\}.$$

Remark 1.4.2 : Any choice of subspace $S \subseteq V$ yields a decomposition $V = S \oplus S^{\perp}$.

Proposition 1.4.4 (Formula expanding a norm and 'Pythagorean theorem').

A useful formula is

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{y} \rangle + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2,.$$

When $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{y}^{\perp}$, this reduces to

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

Proposition 1.4.5 (Properties of the inner product).

1. Bilinearity:

$$\left\langle \sum_{j} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{a}_{j}, \sum_{k} \beta_{k} \mathbf{b}_{k} \right\rangle = \sum_{j} \sum_{i} \alpha_{j} \beta_{i} \langle \mathbf{a}_{j}, \mathbf{b}_{i} \rangle.$$

2. Symmetry:

$$\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a} \rangle$$

3. Positivity:

$$\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0} \implies \langle \mathbf{a}, \ \mathbf{a} \rangle > 0$$

4. Nondegeneracy:

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} \iff \langle \mathbf{a}, \ \mathbf{a} \rangle = 0$$

Proof of Cauchy-Schwarz: See Goode page 346.

1.4.4 Gram-Schmidt Process

Extending a basis $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$ to an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$

$$\mathbf{u}_{1} = N(\mathbf{x}_{1})$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{2} = N(\mathbf{x}_{2} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{u}_{1} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{1})$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{3} = N(\mathbf{x}_{3} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{u}_{1} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{1} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{u}_{2} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{2})$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{k} = N(\mathbf{x}_{k} - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \langle \mathbf{x}_{k}, \mathbf{u}_{i} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{i})$$

where N denotes normalizing the result.

In more detail The general setup here is that we are given an orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and we want to produce an **orthonormal** basis from them.

Why would we want such a thing? Recall that we often wanted to change from the standard basis \mathcal{E} to some different basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \cdots\}$. We could form the change of basis matrix $B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \cdots]$ acts on vectors in the \mathcal{B} basis according to

$$B[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{E}}.$$

But to change from \mathcal{E} to \mathcal{B} requires computing B^{-1} , which acts on vectors in the standard basis according to

$$B^{-1}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{E}} = [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}.$$

If, on the other hand, the \mathbf{b}_i are orthonormal, then $B^{-1} = B^T$, which is much easier to compute. We also obtain a rather simple formula for the coordinates of \mathbf{x} with respect to \mathcal{B} . This follows because we can write

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b}_i \rangle \mathbf{b}_i \coloneqq \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathbf{b}_i,$$

and we find that

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{c} := [c_1, c_2, \cdots, c_n]^T$$
..

This also allows us to simplify projection matrices. Supposing that A has orthonormal columns and letting S be the column space of A, recall that the projection onto S is defined by

$$P_S = Q(Q^T Q)^{-1} Q^T.$$

Since Q has orthogonal columns and satisfies $Q^TQ = I$, this simplifies to

$$P_S = QQ^T$$
..

The Algorithm Given the orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$, we form an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ iteratively as follows.

First define

$$N: \mathbb{R}^n \to S^{n-1}$$
$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto \widehat{\mathbf{x}} := \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}$$

which projects a vector onto the unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^n by normalizing. Then,

$$\mathbf{u}_{1} = N(\mathbf{x}_{1})$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{2} = N(\mathbf{x}_{2} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{u}_{1} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{1})$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{3} = N(\mathbf{x}_{3} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{u}_{1} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{1} - \langle \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{u}_{2} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{2})$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{k} = N(\mathbf{x}_{k} - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \langle \mathbf{x}_{k}, \mathbf{u}_{i} \rangle \mathbf{u}_{i})$$

In words, at each stage, we take one of the original vectors \mathbf{x}_i , then subtract off its projections onto all of the \mathbf{u}_i we've created up until that point. This leaves us with only the component of \mathbf{x}_i that is orthogonal to the span of the previous \mathbf{u}_i we already have, and we then normalize each \mathbf{u}_i we obtain this way.

1.4.5 The Fundamental Subspaces Theorem

Given a matrix $A \in Mat(m, n)$, and noting that

$$A: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m,$$
$$A^T: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$$

We have the following decompositions:

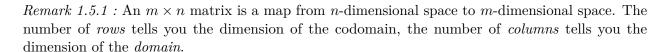
$$\mathbb{R}^{n} \qquad \cong \ker A \oplus \operatorname{im} A^{T} \qquad \cong \operatorname{nullspace}(A) \oplus \operatorname{colspace}(A^{T})$$

$$\mathbb{R}^{m} \qquad \cong \operatorname{im} A \oplus \ker A^{T} \qquad \cong \operatorname{colspace}(A) \oplus \operatorname{nullspace}(A^{T})$$

1.4.6 Computing change of basis matrices

todo

1.5 Matrices



 \triangle Warning 1.1: The space of matrices is not an integral domain! Counterexample: if A is singular and nonzero, there is some nonzero \mathbf{v} such that $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. Then setting $B = [\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}, \cdots]$ yields AB = 0 with $A \neq 0, B \neq 0$.

Definition 1.5.1 (Rank of a matrix).

The **rank** of a matrix A representing a linear transformation T is dim colspace (A), or equivalently dim im T.

Proposition 1.5.1(?).

rank(A) is equal to the number of nonzero rows in RREF(A).

Definition 1.5.2 (Trace of a Matrix).

$$\operatorname{Trace}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{ii}$$

Definition 1.5.3 (Elementary Row Operations).

The following are **elementary row operations** on a matrix:

- Permute rows
- Multiple a row by a scalar
- Add any row to another

Proposition 1.5.2 (Formula for matrix multiplication).

If $A = [\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \cdots] \in \operatorname{Mat}(m, n)$ and $B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \cdots] \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, p)$, then

$$C := AB \implies c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj} = \langle \mathbf{a_i}, \ \mathbf{b_j} \rangle$$

where $1 \le i \le m$ and $1 \le j \le p$. In words, each entry c_{ij} is obtained by dotting row i of A against column j of B.

1.5.1 Systems of Linear Equations

Definition 1.5.4 (Consistent and inconsistent).

A system of linear equations is **consistent** when it has at least one solution. The system is **inconsistent** when it has no solutions.

Definition 1.5.5 (Homogeneous Systems).

Remark 1.5.2: Homogeneous systems are always consistent, i.e. there is always at least one solution.

Remark 1.5.3 :

- $\bullet\,$ Tall matrices: more equations than unknowns, over determined
- Wide matrices: more unknowns than equations, underdetermined

Proposition 1.5.3 (Characterizing solutions to a system of linear equations).

There are three possibilities for a system of linear equations:

- 1. No solutions (inconsistent)
- 2. One unique solution (consistent, square or tall matrices)
- 3. Infinitely many solutions (consistent, underdetermined, square or wide matrices)

These possibilities can be check by considering $r := \operatorname{rank}(A)$:

- $r < r_b$: case 1, no solutions.
- $r = r_b$: case 1 or 2, at least one solution.
 - $-r_b=n$: case 2, a unique solution.
 - $-r_b < n$: case 3, infinitely many solutions.

1.5.2 Determinants

Proposition 1.5.4(?).

$$\det{(A \mod{p}) \mod{p}} \equiv (\det{A}) \mod{p}$$

Proposition 1.5.5 (Inverse of a 2×2 matrix).

For 2×2 matrices,

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

In words, swap the main diagonal entries, and flip the signs on the off-diagonal.

Proposition 1.5.6 (Properties of the determinant).

Let $A \in Mat(m, n)$, then there is a function

$$\det: \operatorname{Mat}(m,m) \to \mathbb{R}$$
$$A \mapsto \det(A)$$

satisfying the following properties:

• det is a group homomorphism onto (\mathbb{R}, \cdot) :

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

- Some corollaries:

$$\det A^k = k \det A$$

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

• Invariance under adding scalar multiples of any row to another:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i + t\mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

• Sign change under row permutation:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = (-1) \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

– More generally, for a permutation $\sigma \in S_n$,

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{i} & - \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{j} & - \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = (-1)^{\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)} \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{\sigma(j)} & - \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{\sigma(i)} & - \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

• Multilinearity in rows:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{i} \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{i} \end{bmatrix} = t \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{i} \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} -t\mathbf{a}_{1} \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{m} \end{bmatrix} = t^{m} \det \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{a}_{1} \\ -\mathbf{a}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{m} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} -t\mathbf{a}_{1} \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{m} \end{bmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} t_{i} \det \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{a}_{1} \\ -\mathbf{a}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} -t\mathbf{a}_{1} \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ -t\mathbf{a}_{m} \end{bmatrix}.$$

• Linearity in each row:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i + \mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}.$$

- det(A) is the volume of the parallelepiped spanned by the columns of A.
- If any row of A is all zeros, det(A) = 0.

 ${\bf Proposition}~1.5.7 ({\it Characterizing~singular~matrices}).$

TFAE:

- $\det(A) = 0$
- A is singular.

1.5.3 Computing Determinants

Useful shortcuts:

• If A is upper or lower triangular, $det(A) = \prod_{i} a_{ii}$.

Definition 1.5.6 (Minors).

The **minor** M_{ij} of $A \in \text{Mat}(n, n)$ is the *determinant* of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained by deleting the *i*th row and *j*th column from A.

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Definition 1.5.7 (Cofactors).

The **cofactor** C_{ij} is the scalar defined by

$$C_{ij} := (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$$
.

Proposition 1.5.8 (Laplace/Cofactor Expansion).

For any fixed i, there is a formula

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij}.$$

Example 1.5.1 (?): Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrr} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{array} \right].$$

Then

$$\det A = 1 \cdot \left| \begin{array}{cc} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{array} \right| - 2 \cdot \left| \begin{array}{cc} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{array} \right| + 3 \cdot \left| \begin{array}{cc} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{array} \right| = 1 \cdot (-3) - 2 \cdot (-6) + 3 \cdot (-3) = 0.$$

Proposition 1.5.9 (Computing determinant from RREF).

det(A) can be computed by reducing A to RREF(A) (which is upper triangular) and keeping track of the following effects:

- $R_i \leftarrow R_i \pm tR_i$: no effect.
- $R_i \rightleftharpoons R_j$: multiply by (-1).
- $R_i \leftarrow tR_i$: multiply by t.

1.5.4 Inverting a Matrix

Proposition 1.5.10 (Cramer's Rule).

Given a linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, writing $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$, there is a formula

$$x_i = \frac{\det(B_i)}{\det(A)}$$

where B_i is A with the *i*th column deleted and replaced by **b**.

Proposition 1.5.11 (Gauss-Jordan Method for inverting a matrix).

Under the equivalence relation of elementary row operations, there is an equivalence of augmented matrices:

$$\left[A \mid I\right] \sim \left[I \mid A^{-1}\right]$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

Proposition 1.5.12 (Cofactor formula for inverse).

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} [C_{ij}]^t.$$

where C_{ij} is the cofactor(Definition 1.5.7) at position i, j.^a

^aNote that the matrix appearing here is sometimes called the *adjugate*.

Example 1.5.2 (Inverting a 2×2 matrix):

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where } ad - bc \neq 0$$

What's the pattern?

- 1. Always divide by determinant
- 2. Swap the diagonals
- 3. Hadamard product with checkerboard

Example 1.5.3 (Inverting a 3×3 matrix):

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - \\ - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} ei-fh & -(bi-ch) & bf-ce \\ -(di-fg) & ai-cg & -(af-cd) \\ dh-eg & -(ah-bg) & ae-bd \end{bmatrix}.$$

The pattern:

- 1. Divide by determinant
- 2. Each entry is determinant of submatrix of A with corresponding col/row deleted
- 3. Hadamard product with checkerboard

$$\begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix}$$

4. Transpose at the end!!

1.5.5 Bases for Spaces of a Matrix

Let $A \in \text{Mat}(m, n)$ represent a map $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$.

Add examples.

Definition 1.5.8 (Pivot).

todo

Proposition 1.5.13.

 $\dim \operatorname{rowspace}(A) = \dim \operatorname{colspace}(A).$

The row space

$$\operatorname{im}(T)^{\vee} = \operatorname{rowspace}(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Reduce to RREF, and take nonzero rows of RREF(A).

The column space

$$im(T) = colspace(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$$

Reduce to RREF, and take columns with pivots from original A.

Remark 1.5.4: Not enough pivots implies columns don't span the entire target domain

The nullspace

$$\ker(T) = \text{nullspace}(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

Reduce to RREF, zero rows are free variables, convert back to equations and pull free variables out as scalar multipliers.

Eigenspaces For each $\lambda \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$, compute a basis for $\ker(A - \lambda I)$.

1.5.6 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition 1.5.9 (Eigenvalues, eigenvectors, eigenspaces).

A vector **v** is said to be an **eigenvector** of A with **eigenvalue** $\lambda \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ iff

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

For a fixed λ , the corresponding **eigenspace** E_{λ} is the span of all such vectors.

Remark 1.5.5 :

- Similar matrices have identical eigenvalues and multiplicities.
- Eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are always linearly independent
- A has n distinct eigenvalues \implies A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- A matrix A is diagonalizable \iff A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Proposition 1.5.14 (How to find eigenvectors).

For $\lambda \in \operatorname{Spec}(A)$,

$$\mathbf{v} \in E_{\lambda} \iff \mathbf{v} \in \ker(A - I\lambda).$$

Remark 1.5.6: Some miscellaneous useful facts:

- $\lambda \in \operatorname{Spec}(A) \implies \lambda^2 \in \operatorname{Spec}(A^2)$ with the same eigenvector.
- $\prod \lambda_i = \det A$
- $\sum \lambda_i = \operatorname{Tr} A$

Finding generalized eigenvectors

todo

Diagonalizability

Remark 1.5.7: An $n \times n$ matrix P is diagonalizable iff its eigenspace is all of \mathbb{R}^n (i.e. there are n linearly independent eigenvectors, so they span the space.)

Remark 1.5.8: A is diagonalizable if there is a basis of eigenvectors for the range of P.

1.5.7 Useful Counterexamples

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \operatorname{Spec}(A) = [1, 1]$$

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \implies A^2 = I_2, \qquad \operatorname{Spec}(A) = [1, -1]$$