

# MATH 223: Linear Algebra

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**Abstract**

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# 1 Introduction

## 2 Prerequisite knowledge

### 2.1 Notation

#### 2.1.1 Sets

Sets are a grouping of objects.

- $\mathbb{N}$  is the set of natural numbers:  $(0, 1, 2, 3, \dots)$ .
- $\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of integers:  $(\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots)$ .
- $\mathbb{Q}$  is the set of rational numbers (numbers that can be expressed as a fraction of two integers):  $\mathbb{Q} = \frac{a}{b} | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$ .
- $\mathbb{R}$  = all rational + all irrational numbers.
- $\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy | x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , basically:  $\mathbb{C}$  = all real ( $\mathbb{R}$ ) + all imaginary numbers ( $i$ ), where  $i$  is defined to be a root of  $x^2 + 1$ , which is  $i \subseteq \sqrt{-1}$ .

We have the following relationships between sets:

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$$

#### 2.1.2 Symbols

We will be using the following symbols:

- $\subseteq$  means "is a subset of or equal to".
- $\subset$  means "is a subset of" or "is contained in", it could also mean the same thing as  $\subseteq$ , but not all the time.
- $\forall$  means "for all".
- $\exists$  means "there exists".

## 2.2 Complex Algebra

### 2.2.1 Complex Numbers

A complex number is of the form:  $z = x + iy$  where  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $i$  is the imaginary unit such that  $i^2 + 1 = 0$ .

**Theorem 1** (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). *Any polynomial<sup>1</sup>  $f$  (except constant functions) has a root in  $\mathbb{C}$ .*

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<sup>1</sup>Polynomial is a function such as:  $f = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  where  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Remark 1.** If we have a polynomial  $f$  of degree  $n$ , then it has  $n$  roots, where each root can have a multiplicity<sup>2</sup>. For example, if we have a polynomial  $(x-1)^2$ , it has a degree of 2 but only one root, which is 1, with a multiplicity of 2. This means that the root 1 appears twice in the polynomial.

We can factorize a polynomial in the form of  $f = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  into a linear factor:  $f = a(x - z_1)(x - z_2)\dots(x - z_n)$  where  $z_i$  are the roots of  $f$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Using the FTA for a function such as  $f = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ , we can say that the FTA implies that  $f$  has a root  $f(z) = 0$ .

## 2.2.2 Complex Operations

We can define operations on complex numbers as follows:

- Addition:  $z + z' = (x + x') + i(y + y')$ , where  $x, x', y, y' \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Multiplication:  $zz' = (x + iy)(x' + iy') = (xx' - yy') + i(xy' + yx')$ .
- Inverse:  $\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{x-iy}{x^2+y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} + i\frac{-y}{x^2+y^2}$

From the definition of inverse, we can see that for any complex number  $z$ , its inverse  $\frac{1}{z}$  is also a complex number. For example, take  $z = 1 + i$ , where  $x = y = 1$ , from the definition of inverse, we can conclude that:

$$\frac{1}{1+i} \in \mathbb{C}$$

## 2.2.3 Complex Conjugate

A complex conjugate is a way to "flip" the imaginary part of a complex number. For example, if we have a complex number  $z = x + iy$ , then the complex conjugate of  $z$  is  $\bar{z} = x - iy$ . Some basic properties of complex conjugates are:

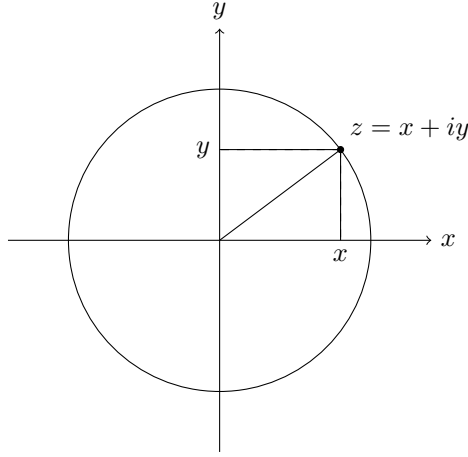
- $\bar{\bar{z}} = z$
- $\overline{z + z'} = \bar{z} + \bar{z'}$
- $\overline{z \cdot z'} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{z'}$

## 2.2.4 Geometric and Polar Form of Complex Numbers

**Definition 1** (Geometric interpretation). Every complex number  $z = x + iy$  can be identified with a point  $(x, y)$  in the plane, called the complex plane. This allows us to study complex numbers using geometry.

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<sup>2</sup>The multiplicity of a root represents how many times the root occurs in the polynomial.



$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + iy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

**Definition 2** (Modulus). *The modulus of a complex number  $z$  is defined by*

$$|z| = \sqrt{z\bar{z}} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

*Geometrically,  $|z|$  is the distance from the origin to the point  $(x, y)$ .*

We can rewrite the definition of the unit circle as follows:

$$S' = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}.$$

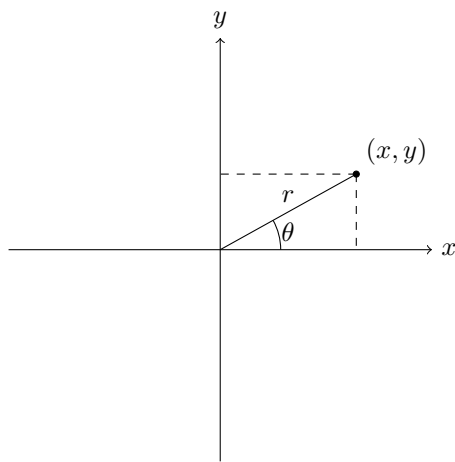
Thus,  $S'$  is the *unit circle* in the complex plane.

**Definition 3** (Powers of  $i$ ). 
$$\begin{array}{c|cccccc} k & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \hline i^k & 1 & i & -1 & -i & 1 & i \end{array}$$

**Definition 4** (Geometric meaning of multiplication). *Multiplying by a complex number  $z$  corresponds geometrically to*

$$\begin{cases} \text{a rotation by some angle } \theta, \\ \text{a rescaling by the factor } |z|. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 5** (Polar coordinates). *Instead of describing a point by  $(x, y)$ , we may describe it using polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$ , where  $r = |z|$  is the distance to the origin and  $\theta$  is the angle with the positive  $x$ -axis.*



**Example.**

$$x = r \cos(\theta), \quad y = r \sin(\theta).$$

**Definition 6** (Polar and exponential form).

$$z = x + iy = r \cos(\theta) + ir \sin(\theta) = r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)) = re^{i\theta}.$$

**Definition 7** (Euler's formula). *Euler's formula gives*

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta).$$

**Definition 8** (Multiplication in polar form).

$$z = re^{i\theta}, \quad z' = r'e^{i\theta'}, \quad zz' = rr'e^{i(\theta+\theta')}.$$

**Example.**

$$(1 + i)^{32} = (\sqrt{2}e^{i\pi/4})^{32} = (\sqrt{2})^{32}e^{i8\pi} = 2^{16}(\cos 8\pi + i \sin 8\pi) = 2^{16}.$$

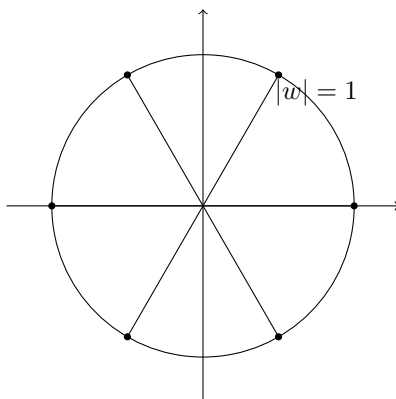
**Definition 9** ( $n^{\text{th}}$  roots). *An  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of  $z$  is a complex number  $w$  such that*

$$w^n = z.$$

**Definition 10** (Roots of unity). *The  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity are the solutions of*

$$w^n = 1, \quad w \in \mathbb{C}.$$

*Geometrically, they lie on the unit circle  $|w| = 1$ .*



$$1 = e^{i2\pi k}, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z},$$

$$w_k = e^{i2\pi k/n}, \quad w^n = (e^{i2\pi/n})^n = e^{i2\pi} = 1.$$

### 3 Basic Algebraic structures

"Let  $V$  be a vector space over a field  $K$ "

#### 3.1 Invertibility

**Definition 11** (Condition for Invertibility). *Let  $A \in M$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix, and suppose that there exists an  $n \times n$  matrix  $B$  such that  $AB = I_n$  or  $BA = I_n$ .*

Where  $I_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix<sup>3</sup>  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Then  $A$  is invertible,

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

**Remark 2.** *If  $A$  is invertible, then  $A^{-1}$  exists and is unique<sup>4</sup>.*

To determine if an element  $A$  in a set with multiplication  $M$  is invertible, we can use the following examples:

**Example.** *Let  $M = \mathbb{Z} = \{\dots - 2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  and  $A = 2$ . Is  $A$  invertible in  $M$ ?*

*Solution: No, because  $\frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$ .*

**Example.** *Let  $M = \mathbb{R}$  and  $A = 2$ , is  $A$  invertible in  $M$ ?*

*Solution: Yes, because  $\frac{1}{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

<sup>3</sup>An identity matrix is a square matrix with 1s on its main diagonal and 0s everywhere else. It represents no change in linear transformations, and it's used in finding matrix inverses.

<sup>4</sup>Unique means there is exactly one such element.

**Example.** Is  $1 + i$  invertible in  $\mathbb{C}$ ?

*Solution:* Yes, using our previous definition of inverse (2.2.2), we get that

$$\frac{1}{1+i} = \frac{1-i}{2} \in \mathbb{C}.$$

## 3.2 Ring

**Definition 12.** A ring is a set  $R$  with the following properties:

1.  $R$  is an abelian group under addition.
2.  $R$  is a monoid under multiplication.
3. The distribution law holds:  $a(b + c) = ab + ac$  for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

More informally, a ring is a set with two operations (addition and multiplication) that satisfy certain properties.

The main example of a ring is the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

## 3.3 Field

**Definition 13.** A field is a commutative ring in which every element is invertible.

The main example of a field is the real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  or the complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ . Mathematically,  $K = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $K$  is the field.

In the following explanation, we will denote  $M$  to be a set with multiplication<sup>5</sup>. An example of a set with multiplication is the set of all  $2 \times 2$  complex matrices:  $M = M_2(\mathbb{C})$ . Another example is the nonzero set of all real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  with ordinary multiplication:  $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Problem 1.** Construct a field with 2 elements.

**Problem 2.** Show that if an inverse of  $A$  in  $\mathbb{M}$  exists, then it is unique.

**Problem 3.** Let  $K$  be a field. Prove that this matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in M_2(K)$  is not invertible.

# 4 Vector Spaces

## 4.1 Cartesian space

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} : x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

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<sup>5</sup>A set of objects where you can multiply any two of them.



You can add two vectors:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Scalar multiplication:

$$\lambda \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

A linear combination is a vector  $v$  of the form  $v = \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n$ .

$$\xi((v_1 + 2v_2) + v_3) + v_4$$

Set  $A$  inside  $\mathbb{R}^2$   $Span(A)$  = all linear combinations of elements in  $A$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$A = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Draw a graph with one long diagonal line in the +x, +y and three arrows on the same line showing the vector grows.

$$Span\{r\} =$$

line spanned by  $v$

## 5 Appendix

## 6 Solutions

**Solution 1.** A field with 2 elements can be constructed as follows: Let  $F = \{0, 1\}$  be a set with two elements. We define addition and multiplication operations on  $F$  as follows:

- $0 + 0 = 0$
- $0 + 1 = 1$
- $1 + 0 = 1$
- $1 + 1 = 0$
- $0 \times 0 = 0$

- $0 \times 1 = 0$
- $1 \times 0 = 0$
- $1 \times 1 = 1$

**Solution 2.** Suppose  $B$  and  $B'$  are both inverses of  $A$ . Then

$$B = BI = B(AB') = (BA)B' = IB' = B'.$$

Therefore,  $B = B'$ , so the inverse is unique.

**Solution 3.** We can answer this problem with proof by contradiction. Let's suppose this matrix is invertible. By definition there exists  $B = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  such

that  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . We can rewrite this equation into:  $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$ . The inverse of our matrix can be rewritten as  $\frac{1}{0*0-1*0} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ <sup>6</sup>.

But this is undefined since division by 0 is undefined. Therefore, our initial assumption that the matrix is invertible is false, and thus the matrix is not invertible.

## 7 Useful Links

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<sup>6</sup>Recall that an inverse of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix is equal to its determinant multiplied with its conjugate