

LECTURE 1

Sept. 15, 2003

Review of Linear algebra

$n \times n$ matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ & & & \\ & & a_{ij} & \\ & & & \\ a_{n1} & & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

For now: $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$

— Notation: $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ = set of such matrices.

Can add them:

$$A + B = (a_{ij} + b_{ij})$$

$(a_{ij}) \quad (b_{ij})$

Can scalar multiply:

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \quad \alpha \cdot A = (\alpha \cdot a_{ij})$$

So: \mathbb{R} -vector space of
dim'n n^2

Multiplication of matrices

$$A \cdot B = (c_{ij})$$

$$c_{ij} = \sum_k a_{ik} b_{kj} \leftarrow \begin{matrix} i^{\text{th}} \\ \left(\text{---} \right) \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} j^{\text{th}} \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} | \\ | \\ | \end{array} \right) \end{matrix}$$

If A represents $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
and B represent $S: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

then $A \cdot B$ represents the
composition $T \circ S$

Remember $A + B = B + A$

but not necessarily true that $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$.

$$\text{e.g.} : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

denoted by
 $\mathbf{0}$

$$\mathbf{0} + A = A + \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \\ = A.$$

(it is the zero-
element of $M_n(\mathbb{R})$
as a vector space)

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has property
 $A \cdot I = I \cdot A = A$

Distributive law: $A(B+C) = AB+AC$

Associativity: $A(BC) = (AB)C$
(so can forget brackets!)

Note: to prove associativity, reinterpret matrices as linear transformations.

The result then follows from associativity of composition.

We say A is invertible



\exists a matrix B s.t. $AB=BA=I$.

Notes: • not all matrices are invertible
e.g. O cannot be invertible
since $O \cdot A = O = A \cdot O$.

• I is invertible (take $B=I$).

• 1×1 matrices: (a) is
invertible $\Leftrightarrow a \neq 0$
($B = (1/a)$)

• 2×2 matrices: $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is
invertible $\Leftrightarrow ad - bc \neq 0$.

(then $A^{-1} = B = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$)
↑
notation

can verify this explicitly.

- In general:

determinant
" "

$$\det: M_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\text{(e.g. } \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc \text{)}$$

$$\det A = \sum_{n! \text{ terms}} (\pm 1) \text{ (product of } n \text{ matrix entries)}$$

Fact: A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$.

In fact: $\exists B$ s.t. $AB = BA = \det(A) \cdot I$
 \uparrow
"matrix of cofactors"

We are more interested in subset

$$GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \subset M_n(\mathbb{R})$$

$$\{A : \det A \neq 0\}$$

$$\{A \text{ s.t. there is an inverse matrix } A^{-1}\}$$

Note: if inverse exists it is unique

Suppose $A \cdot B = A \cdot C = I$

Then $B(A \cdot B) = B(A \cdot C)$

$\parallel \parallel$
 $(BA)B \Rightarrow (BA)C$

$\parallel \parallel$
 $I \cdot B \quad I \cdot C$

$\parallel \parallel$
 $B \quad C$

By restricting to $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ we gain some things but lose others:

- there is no addition law on $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ (i.e. is not closed under addition from $M_n(\mathbb{R})$)
- also not closed under multiplication by 0
- but it is closed under multiplication.

two proofs of \uparrow :

① Suppose A & B invertible then $A \cdot B$ is invertible since

$$(B^{-1}A^{-1})(A \cdot B) = B^{-1}(A^{-1}A)B \\ = B^{-1}IB = I.$$

② Determinant identity:
 $\det(A \cdot B) = \det A \cdot \det B$
 then use

$$GL_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{A : \det A \neq 0\}$$

More properties of $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$:

- has multiplication identity I
- has inverses A^{-1}
- product is associative
 $(AB)C = A(BC)$

These are the properties that define the notion of group.

More precisely:

A group G is a set with a product operation $g \cdot h \in G$ which is

- 1) associative
- 2) has an identity element e
- 3) has inverses g^{-1} :

$$g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1}g = e$$

Note: if $gh = hg$ for all pairs,
we say G is commutative
or Abelian

- An example of an Abelian group:

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\}$$

"product" is addition:

$$\cancel{a} + b = b + a$$

$$e = 0 \quad a + 0 = a$$

$$"a^{-1}" = -a.$$

- Another example of a (Abelian) group is any vectorspace.
(just forget scalar mult.)

Most "general" example of a group

T a set

$$G = \{ \text{all bijections } g: T \rightarrow T \}$$

1-to-1, onto maps

$$= \text{Sym}(T)$$

is a group under composition of transformations.

Identity: $e = \text{identity map}$
 $x \mapsto x$

Inverses: exist by bijectivity
Associativity: follows by def'n

In some sense this is most general because groups arise as bijections of a set which preserve the structure of a set ("symmetries")

T a set $T = \{1, \dots, n\}$

$$S_n := \text{Sym}(T)$$

finite group of order $n!$

("order" $\stackrel{\uparrow}{=}$ # of elements)
notation

Ex: S_3 is not Abelian