

21-241 MATRICES AND LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS
SUMMER 1 2012
COURSE NOTES
JUNE 19

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Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ be a basis for some subspace V of \mathbb{C}^n . We've seen before that any vector v in V can be written uniquely as a linear combination of x_1, \dots, x_k ;

$$v = \lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + \lambda_k x_k$$

Definition. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis for \mathbb{C}^n . If $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$, then the *representation of x in the basis b_1, \dots, b_n* is the unique vector $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$ in \mathbb{C}^n such that

$$x = \lambda_1 b_1 + \dots + \lambda_n b_n$$

We refer to this vector as $\text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(x)$.

Definition. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis for \mathbb{C}^n , and let $T : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ be a linear transformation. The *matrix of T with respect to b_1, \dots, b_n* is the unique $n \times n$ matrix A such that, for all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$\text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(T(x)) = A \text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(x)$$

Equivalently, A is the matrix with entries

$$A_{ij} = (\text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(T(b_j)))_i$$

We refer to this matrix as $\text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(T)$.

Example. Let L be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Compute the matrix of \mathbb{P}_L with respect to the (ordered) standard basis $\mathcal{E} = (e_1, e_2)$, and the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Solution. The first is

$$\text{rep}_{\mathcal{E}}(\mathbb{P}_L) = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The second is simply

$$\text{rep}_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbb{P}_L) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

□

How are these matrices related? They both represent the same linear transformation \mathbb{P}_L , but how does this fact present itself in the algebra of the matrices themselves?

Definition. Two square matrices A and B are *similar*, written $A \sim_s B$, if there is some invertible S such that $A = SBS^{-1}$.

Fact 1. \sim_s is an equivalence relation.

Theorem 1. Let A and B be square matrices, of the same size. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) A and B are similar.
- (2) A and B represent the same linear transformation.

Example. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be the linear transformation

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y + z \\ x + z \\ x + y \end{pmatrix}$$

Find the matrix of T with respect to the standard basis, and the basis

$$\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Solution. In the standard basis, the matrix of T is

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

whereas in the alternate basis, the matrix of T is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

□

In physics one often studies “coordinate-free” properties of linear transformations; ie, properties that are *invariant* under a change of basis. The idea is that physical laws should be independent of the observer.

Theorem 2. If A and B are similar, then $\text{spec}(A) = \text{spec}(B)$. Moreover, the (algebraic and geometric) multiplicity of each eigenvalue with respect to A is the same as that with respect to B .

I’ll prove the theorem below, but first I need a lemma.

Lemma 1. If S is an invertible matrix then $\det(S^{-1}) = \det(S)^{-1}$.

Proof. We have $\det(S) \det(S^{-1}) = \det(SS^{-1}) = \det(I) = 1$. □

Proof of Theorem 2. Say $A = SBS^{-1}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} p_A(\lambda) &= \det(\lambda I - A) = \det(\lambda SIS^{-1} - SBS^{-1}) = \det(S(\lambda I - B)S^{-1}) \\ &= \det(S) \det(\lambda I - B) \det(S)^{-1} = \det(\lambda I - B) = p_B(\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

So A and B have the same characteristic polynomial. This shows that they have the same eigenvalues and their eigenvalues have the same algebraic multiplicities. As for the geometric multiplicities, notice that for all λ ,

$$\text{col}(\lambda I - B) = \text{col}(S(\lambda I - B)) \quad \text{row}(S(\lambda I - B)) = \text{row}(S(\lambda I - B)S^{-1})$$

Hence, $\text{rank}(\lambda I - B) = \text{rank}(\lambda I - A)$. By the rank-nullity theorem, this implies $\text{nullity}(\lambda I - B) = \text{nullity}(\lambda I - A)$. But the nullity of $\lambda I - B$ is simply the geometric multiplicity of λ with respect to B , and analogously for A . □

Of course, the eigenspaces may change under a change of basis. Both of the examples from above are typical in this regard.