

Math 435 - Algebra Notes - Week: 4 ①

(Problems are at the end of the notes.)

1. Linear Transformations and Matrices

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for } i=1, \dots, n\}$$

\mathbb{R} = the real numbers

$$\mathbb{C} = \{a+bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, i^2 = -1\} = \text{the complex numbers.}$$

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

(See the notes on complex numbers for more about $e^{i\theta}$ as a series.)

We know from previous notes that $e^{i\theta} e^{i\phi} = e^{i(\theta+\phi)}$ hence have geom interpretation of complex nos:

$$a+bi = \sqrt{a^2+b^2} \left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}} + \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}} i \right)$$

$$= r (\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$$

$$= r e^{i\theta} \quad (a, b) \neq (0, 0).$$

A mapping (function) $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be linear if

$$(a) T(kv) = kT(v)$$

$$(b) T(v+w) = T(v) + T(w)$$

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{R}; v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

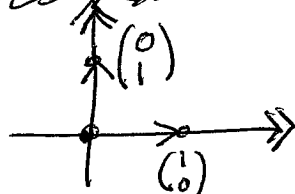
$$k(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (ka_1, \dots, ka_n)$$

$$(a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n) = (a_1+b_1, \dots, a_n+b_n)$$

How we work with \mathbb{R}^2 $\forall \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a, b)$. $\textcircled{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} T \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} &= T \left(a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) \\ &= a T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus a linear transformation is completely determined by what it does on $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ & $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.



Suppose $T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \\ s \end{pmatrix}$

$T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t \\ u \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\text{Then } T \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} r \\ s \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} t \\ u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ar + bt \\ as + bu \end{pmatrix}.$$

Defn. $\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} r & t \\ s & u \end{pmatrix}}_{2 \times 2 \text{ matrix}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{vector}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} rx + ty \\ sx + uy \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{result of applying matrix to vector.}}$

Matrices represent linear transformations.

$$\text{We write } [T] = \begin{pmatrix} r & t \\ s & u \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r & t \\ s & u \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} rx + ty \\ sx + uy \end{pmatrix}$ (3)

$$S \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + cy \\ bx + dy \end{pmatrix}$$

are two given linear transformations.

Theorem. The matrix for $T \circ S$ is given by the formula

$$[T \circ S] = \begin{pmatrix} ra + tb & rc + td \\ sa + ub & sc + ud \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus we define the product of matrices by the formula:

$$\begin{pmatrix} r & t \\ s & u \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ra + tb & rc + td \\ sa + ub & sc + ud \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. $(T \circ S) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = T \left(S \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \right) = T \begin{pmatrix} ax + cy \\ bx + dy \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} r(ax + cy) + t(bx + dy) \\ s(ax + cy) + u(bx + dy) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} (ra + tb)x + (rc + td)y \\ (sa + ub)x + (sc + ud)y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ra + tb & rc + td \\ sa + ub & sc + ud \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} //$$

Examples. (i) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix}$.

The matrix $\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ permutes the coordinates x, y . $\gamma^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$.

We let $I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ denote the identity matrix.

Note $I \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$.

(ii) $J = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$J^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = -I$$

Thus $J^2 = -I$.

(Note. $k \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} ka & kc \\ kb & kd \end{pmatrix}$)

$J = \sqrt{-I}$, a matrix analog of $\sqrt{-1} = i$.

(iii) $aI + bJ = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$.

$\hat{\mathbb{C}} = \{ aI + bJ \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$ behaves just like the complex numbers \mathbb{C} .

In fact, (next page).

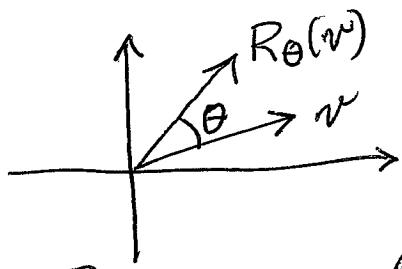
$$\cos(\theta)I + \sin(\theta)J = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

$$= R_\theta$$

our familiar rotation matrix corresponding to multiplication by $e^{i\theta}$.

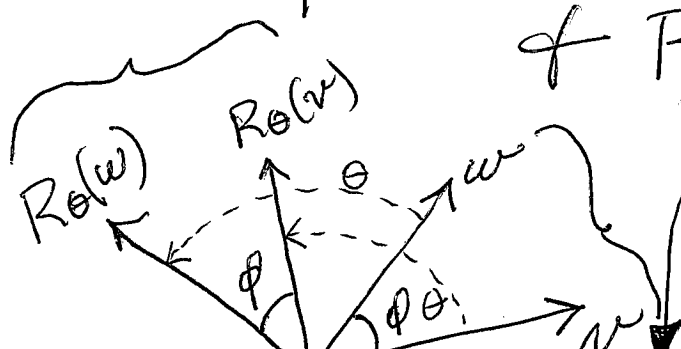
2.0 Rotation Revisited

Let R_θ denote rotation of \mathbb{R}^2 counterclockwise by angle θ . Suppose this is all we know about R_θ .



But this means that we do know that R_θ preserves lengths,

and R_θ preserves angles between vectors.



This means that R_θ is a linear transformation.

\angle Between $R_\theta(w)$ & $R_\theta(v) = \phi$
 $= \angle$ Between w & v .

(The sum of two vectors is determined by their lengths and directions & the angle between them. This implies that $R_\theta(v+tw) = R_\theta(v) + R_\theta(w)$. Since R_θ preserves length, it follows that $R_\theta(kv) = kR_\theta(v)$.)

But we know, from the geometric definition of R_θ as a rotation, that $R_{\theta+\phi} = R_\theta R_\phi$ where $R_\theta R_\phi$ is the matrix product. (7)

$$\therefore \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta+\phi) & -\sin(\theta+\phi) \\ \sin(\theta+\phi) & \cos(\theta+\phi) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\phi) & -\sin(\phi) \\ \sin(\phi) & \cos(\phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

This implies (by multiplying the matrices on the right) that

$$\cos(\theta+\phi) = \cos(\theta)\cos(\phi) - \sin(\theta)\sin(\phi)$$

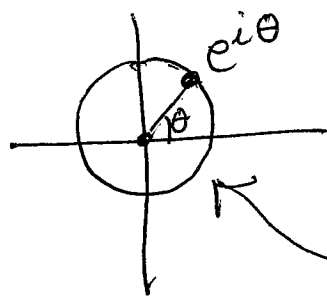
$$\sin(\theta+\phi) = \sin(\theta)\cos(\phi) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\phi)$$

We have deduced basic trigonometry from the linearity of rotations.

Note that $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} = R_\theta \mid 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi \right\}$

\updownarrow 1-1 correspondence

$$\leftrightarrow \left\{ e^{i\theta} \mid 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi \right\} = S^1$$



the set of points on the unit circle in the complex plane.

$$S^1 = \{e^{i\theta} \mid 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi\} \leftrightarrow \text{Diagram of the unit circle in the complex plane with a point } e^{i\theta} \text{ marked on the upper right quadrant.}$$

is a group under multiplication of complex numbers.

We can extend this to a larger group $O(1) = \langle S^1 \cup \{F\} \rangle$

group generated by

where $F(z) = \bar{z}$, the complex conjugate of z .

$$R_\theta \in O(1), R_\theta(z) = e^{i\theta} z$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } (R_\theta F)z &= e^{i\theta} \bar{z} \\ &= \overline{e^{-i\theta} z} \\ &= \overline{e^{-i\theta}} z \end{aligned}$$

$$(R_\theta F)z = (FR_{-\theta})z.$$

$$\text{Thus } R_\theta F = FR_\theta^{-1} \text{ (since } R_\theta^{-1} = R_{-\theta}\text{).}$$

Here we view $O(1)$ as the group of all linear transformations of the form $\{R_\theta\} \cup \{R_\theta F\}$.

(next page)

Note $(R_\theta F)(R_\phi F) = (R_\theta F)(FR_{-\phi})$ ⑨

$$= R_\theta(F^2)R_{-\phi}$$

$$= R_\theta R_{-\phi} = R_{\theta-\phi}.$$

So it is clear that

$$O(1) = \{R_\theta \mid 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi\} \cup \{R_\phi F \mid 0 \leq \phi < 2\pi\}$$

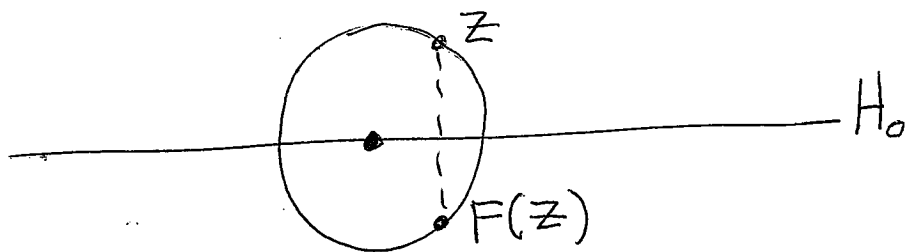
is closed under composition and so forms a group. You can show that

$$O(1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \mid ad - bc = 1 \right\}.$$

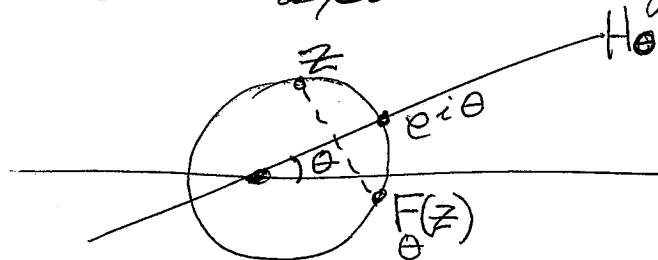
Note that $F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $ad - bc = -1$ for F .

Here is an exercise for you:

$O(1) \ni F$ and F is a flip about the horizontal axis:



Show that there are flips F_θ for each axis at angle θ with $F_\theta \in O(1)$.



Among other things, you want

$$\underline{\underline{F_\theta(e^{i\theta}) = e^{i\theta}}}$$

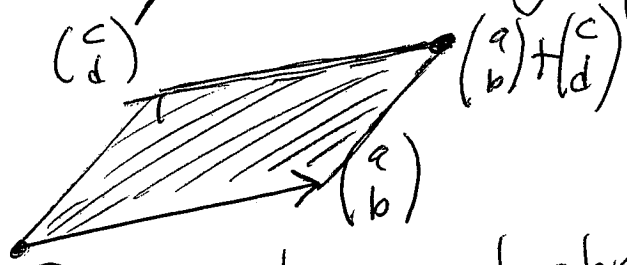
3. Determinants

Definition

$$\text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

Fact 1. $|\text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}| = |ad - bc|$

= area of parallelogram spanned by $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$.



See our linear algebra notes for the proof.

Fact 2. $\begin{pmatrix} d-c \\ -ba \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = \Delta I$

where $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$

Thus when $\text{Det}(M) \neq 0$, then M has an inverse matrix and $M^{-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta} \text{adj}(M)$ where $\text{adj}(M) = \begin{pmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}.$

Among other things, this means ⁽¹¹⁾
⑥ = $\{M \mid M \text{ } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrix with real entries and } \text{Det}(M) \neq 0\}$
forms a group.

Theorem. If M and N are 2×2 matrices
then $\text{Det}(MN) = \text{Det}(M)\text{Det}(N)$.

Proof. This will be part of your
homework. //

e.g. $\text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = 4 - 6 = -2$

$$\text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 2$$

$$\text{Det} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 11 \end{pmatrix} = 11 - 15 = -4 = (-2)(2) \checkmark$$

4° The Cayley Hamilton Theorem

Define the characteristic polynomial

$C_M(x)$ of a 2×2 matrix by
the formula:

$$C_M(x) = \text{Det}(M - xI).$$

Thus if $M = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$, then

$$C_M(x) = \left| \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} - x \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right|$$

$$= \left| \begin{pmatrix} a-x & c \\ b & d-x \end{pmatrix} \right| = (a-x)(d-x) - bc$$

$$= ad - (a+d)x + x^2 - bc$$

$$= x^2 - (a+d)x + (ad-bc).$$

$$C_M(x) = x^2 - \text{tr}(M)x + \text{Det}(M)$$

(where $\text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = a+d =$ sum of diagonal entries.)

Cayley-Hamilton Theorem. Any matrix

M is a root of its own characteristic polynomial. That is, if

$$C_M(x) = x^2 - \text{tr}(M)x + \text{Det}(M), \text{ then}$$

$$M^2 - \text{tr}(M)M + \text{Det}(M)I = 0.$$

(with the I.)

Proof. This will be an exercise. //

example. $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

(13)

$$C_M(x) = x^2 - x - 1.$$

Cayley-Hamilton $\Rightarrow M^2 - M - I = 0$

check: $M^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} M^2 - M - I &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 2-1-1 & 1-1 \\ 1-1 & 1-0-1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So Cayley-Hamilton says that every 2×2 matrix M satisfies a quadratic equation:

$$M^2 = \text{tr}(M)M - \text{Det}(M)I.$$

example. $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$C_M(x) = x^2 - (-1)1 = x^2 + 1.$$

Cayley-Hamilton $\Rightarrow M^2 + I = 0.$

We already knew this.

Problems for Week 4

1. Consider a cubic equation of the form
 $x^3 = px + q.$

(a) Suppose that

$$x^3 - px - q = (x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma).$$

(you do not have to know the values of α, β, γ .)

Prove that

$$(i) \alpha + \beta + \gamma = 0.$$

$$(ii) p = -(\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma).$$

$$(iii) q = +\alpha\beta\gamma.$$

(b) In solving the cubic we do the following: $x = a + b \Rightarrow$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a^3 + b^3 = P/27 \\ a^3 b^3 = q \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} RS = P/27 \\ R+S = q \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow R(q - R) = P/27$$

$$\Rightarrow R^2 - qR + P/27 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow R = \frac{q \pm \sqrt{q^2 - 4P/27}}{2}$$

$$R = \frac{q \pm \sqrt{27q^2 - 4P^3}}{2 \cdot 2\sqrt{27}}$$

Show that if

$$D = (\alpha - \beta)(\alpha - \gamma)(\beta - \gamma),$$

$$\text{then } \boxed{-D^2 = 27q^2 - 4P^3}.$$

Either illustrate some examples, or prove in general.

2. See pages 8 & 9 of these notes.

We have $O(1) =$ group generated by $R_\theta : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

& $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, F(z) = \bar{z}$

$$R_\theta \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad \left(F \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ -b \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

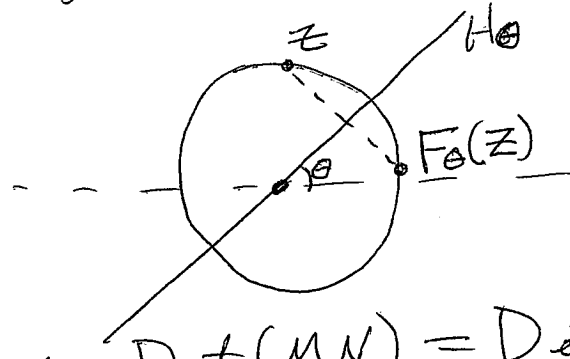
$$R_\theta z = e^{i\theta} z.$$

you can think of $R_\theta, F : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

Define $F_\theta = R_\theta F R_{-\theta}$.

(i) Show $F_\theta(e^{i\phi}) = e^{i(z\theta - \phi)}$.

(ii) Show that, geometrically, F_θ is a flip about the axis whose angle is θ .



3. Prove that $\text{Det}(MN) = \text{Det}(M)\text{Det}(N)$ for M and N any 2×2 matrices.

4. Let $M = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$. See pages 12, 13 of these notes. Prove that $M^2 = (a+d)M - (ad-bc)I$. This is the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem for 2×2 matrices.

5. Recall Problem #4 from the Week 3 homework.

You had $R = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

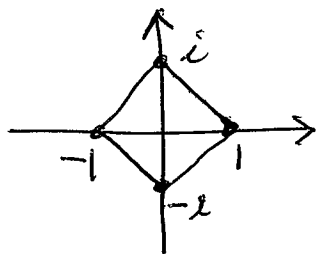
Find $C_R(x)$, the characteristic polynomial for R .

Verify that $R^2 + R + I = 0$ is the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem for R .

6. Apply problem 2. of this set to the symmetry group of a square by using $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$ as the vertices of the square and $R(z) = iz$

$$F(z) = \bar{z}$$

as the group generators.



Tell everything you can about this group and its subgroups.

