

- Last time \rightarrow Diagonalize a square matrix, if possible (recall 4 steps!)
 - \rightarrow Criteria for when a square matrix is diagonalizable (ask if anyone remembers)
 - \rightarrow Eigenvalues of linear transformations $T: V \rightarrow V$

Ex 1: 1) Verify that $p(t) \mapsto t \cdot \frac{dp}{dt}$ defines a linear transformation

$$T: \mathbb{P}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_n$$

2) Find all eigenvalues and eigenspaces

3) In the basis $\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$, compute $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

- Let's recall the construction of $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for a chosen basis \mathcal{B} of V . Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ be a basis of V . For any $\vec{x} \in V$, consider the coordinate vectors $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ and $[T(\vec{x})]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

Fact: $[T(\vec{x})]_{\mathcal{B}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}} \cdot [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$

column of height n \uparrow \uparrow column of height n

" \mathcal{B} -matrix of lin. transp. T " \uparrow $n \times n$ matrix whose columns are $T(\vec{b}_1)_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, T(\vec{b}_n)_{\mathcal{B}}$

In the particular case $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, linear transporm. $V \rightarrow V$ are in bijection with $n \times n$ matrices. Then, the above yields:

Claim: Suppose $A = PDP^{-1}$, P -invertible $n \times n$ matrix, D -diagonal $n \times n$ matrix.
 If \mathcal{B} is the basis for \mathbb{R}^n formed by the columns of P , then D is the \mathcal{B} -matrix for the transformation $\vec{x} \mapsto A\vec{x}$

Remark: If V is a finite dimensional vector space, then choosing a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ of V allows to identify $V \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\vec{x} \mapsto [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$
 Then the moral of $T \mapsto [T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is to identify linear transformations $V \rightarrow V$ with $n \times n$ matrices.
 In that context, eigenvalues/eigenvectors boil to previous discussion

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Lecture #19

• § Appendix B: "Complex Numbers"

Def: A complex number is a number written in the form

$$z = a + b \cdot i$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and i is a formal symbol satisfying $i^2 = -1$.

a - real part of z , denoted $\text{Re } z$

b - imaginary part of z , denoted $\text{Im } z$

So: $z = 0$ iff $a = b = 0$, equivalently, $z_1 = z_2$ iff $\text{Re } z_1 = \text{Re } z_2$ & $\text{Im } z_1 = \text{Im } z_2$

Def: \mathbb{C} - the set of all complex numbers

Rem: Any real number $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is considered as a special case via $a + 0 \cdot i$.

Key: \mathbb{C} is endowed with addition & multiplication:

$$(a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i$$

$$(a + bi)(c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

Subtraction is also clear:

$$(a + bi) - (c + di) = (a - c) + (b - d)i$$

Def: The conjugate of $z = a + bi$ is $\bar{z} := a - bi$.

Note: If $z = a + bi$, then $z \cdot \bar{z} = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2 \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.

Def: The absolute value (a.k.a. modulus) of $z = a + bi$ is $|z| := \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

Properties: 1) $z = \bar{\bar{z}}$ iff $z \in \mathbb{R}$ (i.e. $\text{Im } z = 0$)

$$2) \overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$$

$$3) \overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$$

$$4) z \cdot \bar{z} = |z|^2 \geq 0$$

$$5) |zw| = |z| \cdot |w|$$

$$6) |z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$$

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If $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $z \neq 0$, then z has a multiplicative inverse $\frac{1}{z} = z^{-1} := \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$,
i.e. $z \cdot z^{-1} = z^{-1} \cdot z = 1$.

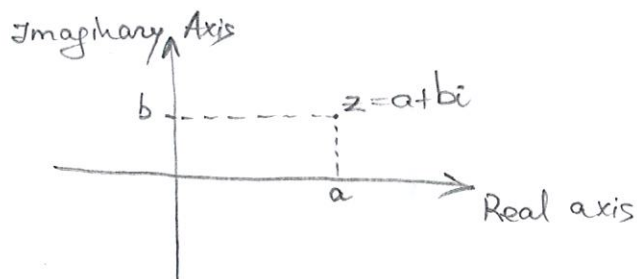
This allows to divide $\frac{z}{w}$ for two complex numbers $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ with $w \neq 0$
 $:= z \cdot \frac{1}{w}$.

Ex 2: Let $z = 1+2i$, $w = 3+4i$.

- Compute $|z|$, $|w|$.
- Compute $z+w$, $z \cdot w$.
- Compute $\frac{z}{w}$.

Geometric Interpretation

Each $z = a+bi \in \mathbb{C}$ can be naturally depicted by the point (a, b)



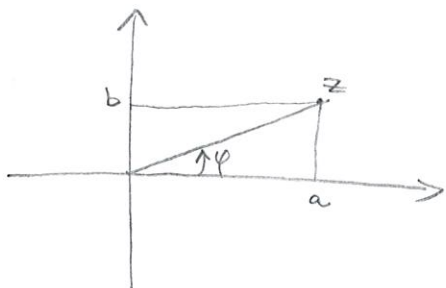
Q: What is the geometric meaning of $|z|$?

Q: What is the geometric meaning of the conjugate \bar{z} ?

Q: What is the geometric meaning of the addition of two complex numbers?

To give a geometric representation of complex multiplication, one needs to use polar coordinates in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Def: The argument of $z = a+bi$ is the angle φ between the positive real axis and the point (a, b) with conventions $-\pi < \varphi \leq \pi$.



Note:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= |z| \cos \varphi \\ b &= |z| \sin \varphi \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = |z| (\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$$

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Ex 3: If $z = |z|(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$, $w = |w|(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$, compute $z \cdot w$.

$$\begin{aligned} z \cdot w &= |z| \cdot |w| \cdot \left(\underbrace{(\cos \varphi \cos \theta - \sin \varphi \sin \theta)}_{\cos(\varphi + \theta)} + i \underbrace{(\cos \varphi \sin \theta + \sin \varphi \cos \theta)}_{\sin(\varphi + \theta)} \right) \\ &= |z| \cdot |w| \cdot (\cos(\varphi + \theta) + i \cdot \sin(\varphi + \theta)) \end{aligned}$$

So: The product of two nonzero complex numbers is given in polar form by the product of their absolute values and the sum of their arguments

Q: What about the ratio of two nonzero complex numbers?

Note: Multiplication by $(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$ rotates $\uparrow \varphi$.

Ex 4: a) Depict all complex numbers with $\operatorname{Re} z = 1$
b) $-11-$ with $|z| = 2$
c) $-11-$ with argument $= \pi$.

The above product formula allows to raise $z \in \mathbb{C}$ to any positive integer power:

if $z = r(\cos \varphi + i \sin \varphi)$, then $z^k = r^k (\cos(k\varphi) + i \sin(k\varphi))$

De Moivre's Theorem.

!!! While geometrically we identified \mathbb{C} with \mathbb{R}^2 , let me emphasize that \mathbb{R}^2 has only addition and scalar multiplication by \mathbb{R} , while \mathbb{C} is naturally endowed with complex multiplication.

Ex 5: Find all complex solutions of $z^5 = 2^5$.