

## Linear Algebra Review

### Matrices and Systems of Linear Equations

Matrix: rectangular array of numbers arranged in rows, columns

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = (a_{ij})$$

↑  
row index  
col. index

m rows  
n columns  
mxn matrix  
order of A

$n \times n$  matrix called square

If  $m=1$  (one row), called row vector.

If  $n=1$  (one column), called column vector

Vectors: short for column vectors, e.g.,

$$\underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

m-vector

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

n-vector

### Matrix Multiplication

A  $m \times n$

B  $n \times p$

$C = AB$  is  $m \times p$

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

= inner product of  $i^{th}$  row of A  
with  $j^{th}$  column of B

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & 3 \\ -4 & 2 \\ 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \cdot 6 + 0 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1 = 7$$

System of  $m$  linear equations in  $n$  unknowns

$$a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

:

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

Written in matrix form

$$A \underline{x} = \underline{b}$$

Matrix multiplication is associative, not necessarily commutative.

Diagonal and Triangular Matrices. Suppose A is square,  $n \times n$

$a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}$  called diagonal entries of A

$a_{ij}$  with  $i \neq j$  called off-diagonal entries

$a_{ij}$  with  $i < j$  called super-diagonal entries

$a_{ij}$  with  $i > j$  called sub-diagonal entries

If  $a_{ij} = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , A called diagonal matrix

If  $a_{ij} = 0$  for  $i > j$ , A called upper-triangular

If  $a_{ij} = 0$  for  $i < j$ , A called lower-triangular

Exercise: Show that a square matrix is diagonal iff it is both upper-and lower-triang.

Identity Matrix  $I_n$   $n \times n$  (If  $n$  is understood, just write I.)

$$I_n A = A \quad (\forall n \times p \text{ matrices } A)$$

$$B I_n = B \quad (\forall m \times n \text{ matrices } B)$$

$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Inverse matrices

Square  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  called invertible if  $\exists$  an  $n \times n$  matrix  $B$  such that  $AB = BA = I_n$ ;  $B$  is called the inverse of  $A$ , written  $A^{-1}$ .

Exercise: Show that  $A$  can have at most one inverse.

Facts: If  $A$  is invertible, so is  $A^{-1}$ , and  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ .

If  $A, B$  invertible, so is  $AB$ , and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

Matrix addition  $A, B$  same order  $A+B = C$   $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$

Scalar multiplication  $(\alpha A)_{ij} = \alpha a_{ij}$  ( $\alpha$  scalar)

Properties:  $A+B = B+A$

$$(A+B)C = AC + BC$$

$$(A+B)+C = A+(B+C)$$

$$\alpha(A+B) = \alpha A + \alpha B$$

$$(\alpha+\beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A$$

If  $A$  is invertible and  $\alpha \neq 0$ , then  $\alpha A$  is invertible, and  $(\alpha A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\alpha} A^{-1}$

Null Matrix  $a_{ij} = 0 \forall i, j$ , write  $0$  for null matrix.

### Linear Combinations

$\underline{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \underline{x}^{(k)}$   $k$   $n$ -vectors

$b_1 \underline{x}^{(1)} + b_2 \underline{x}^{(2)} + \dots + b_k \underline{x}^{(k)}$  called a linear combination (where  $b_1, \dots, b_k$  scalars).

Let  $A$  be  $m \times n$ ,  $\underline{a}_j$  =  $m$ -vector which is the  $j$ th column of  $A$ .

For any  $n$ -vector  $\underline{x}$ ,  $A\underline{x} = x_1 \underline{a}_1 + x_2 \underline{a}_2 + \dots + x_n \underline{a}_n$

is a linear combination of the columns of  $A$ .

Let  $\underline{e}_j = j^{\text{th}}$  column of  $I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  called  $j^{\text{th}}$  unit vector

Then  $\underline{a}_j = A \underline{e}_j$ .

For any  $n$ -vector  $\underline{b}$ ,  $\underline{b} = b_1 \underline{e}_1 + \dots + b_n \underline{e}_n$

Existence and Uniqueness of Solutions to  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  given  $m \times n$  matrix  
given  $m$ -vector  
unknown  $n$ -vector

- (1) If  $\underline{x} = \underline{x}_1$  is a solution of  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$ , then any other solution  $\underline{x}_2$  is of the form  $\underline{x}_2 = \underline{x}_1 + \underline{y}$  where  $\underline{y}$  is a solution of the homogeneous system  $A\underline{y} = 0$ .
- (2)  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has at most one solution  $\Leftrightarrow A\underline{y} = 0$  has only the "trivial solution"  $\underline{y} = 0$ .
- (3) Any homogeneous linear system with fewer equations than unknowns has nontrivial solutions.
- (4) If  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has a solution for every  $m$ -vector  $\underline{b}$ , then  $\exists$   $n \times m$   $C$  such that  $AC = I_m$ .
- (5) If  $BA = I$ , then  $A\underline{x} = 0$  has only the trivial solution.
- (6) If  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has a solution for every  $m$ -vector  $\underline{b}$ , then  $m \leq n$
- (7) Let  $A$  be square  $n \times n$ . The following are equivalent
  - (i)  $A\underline{x} = 0$  has only  $\underline{x} = 0$  as solution
  - (ii)  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has a solution for every  $n$ -vector  $\underline{b}$
  - (iii)  $A$  is invertible.

### Linear Independence

$\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  n m-vectors

Lin. ind.:  $x_1 \underline{q}_1 + x_2 \underline{q}_2 + \dots + x_n \underline{q}_n = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$

Otherwise, called linearly dependent.

Let A be  $m \times n$  matrix whose columns are  $\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$

$\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  lin. ind  $\Leftrightarrow A\underline{x} = \underline{c}$  has only trivial solution.

Any set of more than m m-vectors is lin. dep.

Basis If every m-vector  $\underline{b}$  can be written as a lin. comb of

$\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  (where  $\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  are lin. ind.), we call  $\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  a basis (the set of all m-vectors).

So  $\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n$  basis  $\Leftrightarrow A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has a unique soln. for each  $\underline{b}$

Thus m must equal n.

Transpose A  $m \times n$

$B = A^T$  is  $n \times m$   $b_{ij} = a_{ji}$

If  $A^T = A$ , A called symmetric (must be square)

Facts:  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

$(A^T)^T = A$

If A is invertible  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

(sometimes use notation  $A^{-T}$  for this matrix)

### Scalar product

If  $\underline{q}, \underline{b}$  are real n-vectors, scalar product is

$$\underline{b} \cdot \underline{q} = \underline{b}^T \underline{q} = b_1 q_1 + \dots + b_n q_n$$

### Conjugate transpose (or Hermitian transpose)

Complex matrices  $(A^H)_{ij} = \bar{a}_{ji}$  ( $\bar{z}$  is conjugate of  $z$ )

If A real,  $A^H = A^T$

If  $A^H = A$ , A called Hermitian

Scalar product for complex vectors:

$$\underline{b}^H \underline{q} = \bar{b}_1 q_1 + \dots + \bar{b}_n q_n$$

### Determinants

Let  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  denote the symmetric group of degree  $n$ , the set of all permutations  $p$  of degree  $n$ .  $p: \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  (one-to-one, onto)

There are  $n!$  such permutations, so  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  has  $n!$  elements.

Define the sign of  $p$  by  $\text{sgn}(p) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \text{ is an even permutation} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \text{ is an odd permutation} \end{cases}$

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Define the determinant of  $A$  by

$$\det(A) = \sum_{p \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \text{sgn}(p) a_{1,p(1)} a_{2,p(2)} \cdots a_{n,p(n)}$$

#### Examples

$n=1$  [1] even

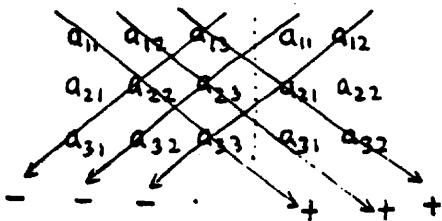
$$\det A = a_{11}$$

$n=2$  [1 2] even [2 1] odd

$$\det A = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

$n=3$  [1 2 3] even [2 3 1] even [3 1 2] even [3 2 1] odd [1 3 2] odd [2 1 3] odd

$$\det A = a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33}$$



(easy way to remember 3x3 determinant;  
caution - does not work for 4x4 or bigger)

Theorem If  $A$  is upper- or lower-triangular,  $\det A = a_{11}a_{22} \cdots a_{nn}$

Proof The only term in the sum which can be nonzero is when  $p$  is the identity permutation.

Theorem If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices,  $\det(AB) = (\det A)(\det B)$

Theorem  $A$  is invertible iff  $\det A \neq 0$

### Computing Determinants

Perform PLU factorization using Gaussian elimination with pivoting

$$\det A = (\det P)(\det L)(\det U)$$

$\det P = \text{sgn}(p)$  where  $p$  is the associated permutation

$$\det L = 1 \quad \det U = u_{11}u_{22} \cdots u_{nn}$$

$$\det A = \text{sgn}(p) u_{11}u_{22} \cdots u_{nn}$$

See book for Cramer's Rule, expansion in minors.

### Matrix Form of Row Operations

Multiplying an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  by the following  $n \times n$  matrices  $R$  (i.e. forming  $RA$ ) has the stated effect on  $A$ :

- (i)  $R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & \alpha & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  (where  $\alpha \neq 0$ )  $i \rightarrow$  multiplies the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $A$  by  $\alpha$
- (ii)  $R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & \alpha & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  (where  $i \neq j$ )  $i \rightarrow$  adds  $\alpha$  times the  $j^{\text{th}}$  row of  $A$  to the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $A$
- (iii)  $R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 0 & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  (where  $i \neq j$ )  $i \rightarrow$   $j \rightarrow$  (same as  $I$  except  $r_{ii} = r_{jj} = 0$ ,  $r_{ij} = r_{ji} = 1$ ) interchanges the  $i^{\text{th}}$  and  $j^{\text{th}}$  rows of  $A$   
(This is a permutation matrix.)

Exercise Show that each of the matrices  $R$  in (i), (ii), (iii) above is invertible, and that their corresponding inverses are

$$(i) R^{-1} = i \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (ii) R^{-1} = i \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & -\alpha \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (iii) R^{-1} = R$$

Definition Two linear systems  $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$  and  $\hat{A}\tilde{x} = \hat{\tilde{b}}$  are equivalent if they have the same solution set, i.e.,  $(\forall \tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$   $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$  iff  $\hat{A}\tilde{x} = \hat{\tilde{b}}$

Theorem Suppose we do one of the following operations on a given linear system  $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$ :

- (i) multiply one equation by a nonzero constant
- (ii) add a multiple of one equation to another
- or (iii) interchange two equations

Then the new system  $\hat{A}\tilde{x} = \hat{\tilde{b}}$  is equivalent to the original system  $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$ .

Proof Each of these operations can be performed by multiplying both sides of the equation  $A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$  by an invertible matrix  $R$ . So  $\hat{A} = RA$  and  $\hat{\tilde{b}} = R\tilde{b}$ .

$$\text{Thus } A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b} \Rightarrow RA\tilde{x} = R\tilde{b} \Rightarrow \hat{A}\tilde{x} = \hat{\tilde{b}}$$

$$\text{and } \hat{A}\tilde{x} = \hat{\tilde{b}} \Rightarrow R^{-1}\hat{A}\tilde{x} = R^{-1}\hat{\tilde{b}} \Rightarrow A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$$