#### 37233 Linear Algebra — revision

• Revision of the key topics

• Your questions?

- Matrix subspaces
- Scalar product and orthogonality; projections; orthogonal basis
- Diagonalisation and SVD
- Quadratic forms

### Null, column, row spaces

For an  $m \times n$  matrix **A**, the following subspaces are defined:

• Null space: all solutions to Ax = 0:

$$\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A} = \{ \mathbf{x} \, : \, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \}$$

• Column space: all linear combinations of the columns of A:

$$Col \mathbf{A} = Span\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots \mathbf{a}_n\}$$
$$Col \mathbf{A} = \{\mathbf{b} : \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

• Row space: all linear combinations of the rows of A:

$$\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

#### For a given $m \times n$ matrix **A**:

- Nul  $\mathbf{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ; Col  $\mathbf{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ ; Row  $\mathbf{A} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Col A = Span{a<sub>i</sub>} and Row A = Span{z<sub>i</sub>} (here Z = A<sup>T</sup>) are explicitly defined. Nul A is implicitly defined by Ax = 0.
- There is no direct relation between Nul A and  $a_{ij}$ There is a direct relation between Col A, Row A and  $a_{ij}$
- A vector of Nul A is obtained by solving Ax = 0.
   A vector of Col A is obtained as a linear combination of {a<sub>i</sub>}, and of Row A as a linear combination of {z<sub>i</sub>}.
- Checking if  $\mathbf{v} \in \operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A}$  is done by computing if  $\mathbf{Av} = \mathbf{0}$ Checking if  $\mathbf{v} \in \operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}$  requires solving  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{v}$ Checking if  $\mathbf{v} \in \operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A}$  requires solving  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}$
- Nul  $\mathbf{A} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  only for  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ Col  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbb{R}^m$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a solution  $\forall \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ Row  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a solution  $\forall \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- $\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A} = (\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A})^{\perp}$  and  $(\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A})^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul}(\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}})$

## Bases and dimensions for $\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A}$ , $\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}$ , and $\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A}$

- A basis for  $\operatorname{Nul} A$  is provided by linearly independent vectors spanning the solution of a homogeneous system Ax = 0.
- A basis for Col A is formed by pivot columns of a A.
   Warning: It is important that the pivot columns of A itself, and not those of the REF form, are a basis for Col A.
- A basis for Row A is formed by pivot rows of a A.
   Note: The row space of the REF of A is the same space.

By proceeding with solving  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  we can establish:

- $\dim(\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A})$  is the number of free variables.
- $\dim(\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A})$  is the number of pivot columns.
- $\dim(\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A})$  is the number of pivot rows.
- rank  $\mathbf{A} = \dim(\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}) = \dim(\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A})$
- $\operatorname{rank} \mathbf{A} + \operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A}) = n$  (given  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ )

# The invertible matrix theorem (summary of results)

Statements equivalent to  $\mathbf{A}$  being an  $n \times n$  invertible matrix:

- There is an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that  $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$
- A has n pivot positions in the REF form
- $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution
- The columns (rows) of A form a linearly independent set
- The columns (rows) of  $\mathbf A$  span  $\mathbb R^n$
- The columns (rows) of  $\mathbf A$  form a basis of  $\mathbb R^n$
- $\widehat{T}: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  is one-to-one
- $\widehat{T}: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^n$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- $\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A} = \operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A} = \mathbb{R}^n$
- $\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  and  $\operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A}) = 0$
- $\dim(\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}) = \dim(\operatorname{Row} \mathbf{A}) = n$
- rank  $\mathbf{A} = n$
- ullet The eigenvalues of f A are non-zero

## Scalar product, orthogonality, norm

For  $\mathbf{v}, \, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the product  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} \equiv \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i w_i$ 

is called the *scalar product* (or inner product, or dot product).

$$\forall \{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}:$$
•  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ 
•  $(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ 
•  $(c \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v} \cdot (c \mathbf{w}) = c (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w})$ 
•  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \ge 0$ , and  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ 

Vectors are *orthogonal*  $(\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w})$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$ .

The length, or *norm*, of v is: 
$$\|v\| = \sqrt{v \cdot v} = \sqrt{v^{\mathsf{T}} v}$$
.

A *unit vector* has a unit norm (length):  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$ 

#### Orthogonal sets

**Definition:** A set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called an *orthogonal set* if each pair of vectors from the set is orthogonal:

$$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \qquad \forall \ i \neq j$$

**Definition:** An orthogonal basis for a subspace V of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is such a basis for V which is an orthogonal set.

Coordinates with respect to an orthogonal basis are easily found:

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \ldots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p$$
 has the weights  $c_i = rac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{u}_i}{\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_i}$ 

**Definition:** A set  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  is called an *orthonormal set* if it is an orthogonal set of unit vectors.

The standard basis  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an orthonormal set.

# Orthogonal decomposition

Let W be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\forall \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  there is a unique decomposition

$$\mathbf{y} = \check{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z},$$

where  $\check{\mathbf{y}} \in W$  and  $\mathbf{z} \in W^{\perp}$ .



$$\check{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{i}}{\mathbf{u}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{i}} \mathbf{u}_{i}$$
 and  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \check{\mathbf{y}}$ .

 $\check{\mathbf{y}} \equiv \operatorname{proj}_W \mathbf{y}$  is called the *orthogonal projection* of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto W.

For an *orthonormal* set:  $\check{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$  (where  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \, \mathbf{u}_2 \, \dots \, \mathbf{u}_p]$ ).



### Gram-Schmidt process

Given a basis  $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_p$  for a subspace W of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = \mathbf{x}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{2} = \mathbf{x}_{2} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{3} = \mathbf{x}_{3} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2}$$
...
$$\mathbf{v}_{p} = \mathbf{x}_{p} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2} - \dots - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}}{\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}} \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$$

Then  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is an orthogonal basis for W.

In addition,  $\operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k\} = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  for  $1 \leq k \leq p$ .

Orthonormal basis is then obtained by normalising  $\mathbf{v}_i$  to unit vectors.

## Orthogonal matrices

**Definition:** An orthogonal matrix  $\mathbf{U}$  is a square invertible matrix such that  $\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}$ .

#### Equivalent properties:

 $\bullet~{\bf U}$  has orthonormal columns and orthonormal rows:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} u_{ki} u_{kj} = \delta_{ij} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \sum_{k=1}^{n} u_{ik} u_{jk} = \delta_{ij}$$

 Given two different orthonormal bases in ℝ<sup>n</sup>, the change of basis matrices between such bases are orthogonal matrices.

**Note:** For an orthogonal matrix 
$$\mathbf{U}$$
:  $|\det \mathbf{U}| = 1$ 

# Matrix diagonalisation

- If A has n linearly independent eigenvectors,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$  where
  - ${\ensuremath{\bullet}}$  diagonal entries of the diagonal matrix  ${\ensuremath{\mathbf{D}}}$  are the eigenvalues
  - ${\ensuremath{\bullet}}$  columns of  ${\ensuremath{\mathbf{P}}}$  are the corresponding eigenvectors of  ${\ensuremath{\mathbf{A}}}$

A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is orthogonally diagonalisable as

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{\top} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$ 

with  $\mathbf{P}$  orthogonal ( $\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^{\top}$ ) and  $\mathbf{D}$  diagonal matrices.

Diagonalisation procedure:

- Find the eigenvalues
- Ind the corresponding eigenvectors

#### Singular value decomposition

**Definition:** The singular values of  $\mathbf{A}$  are the square roots of the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots \lambda_n$  of  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}$ , arranged in the descending order:

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \qquad \sigma_i \geqslant \sigma_{i+1}$$

**SVD:** for an  $m \times n$  matrix **A** with rank r, construct:

m × n matrix Σ with the first r diagonal entries being the singular values of A: σ<sub>1</sub> ≥ σ<sub>2</sub> ≥ ... ≥ σ<sub>r</sub> > 0; then zeros

• 
$$n \times n$$
 orthogonal matrix  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_n]$   
(with  $\mathbf{u}_i$  being the normalised eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}$ )

• 
$$m \times m$$
 orthogonal matrix  $\mathbf{W}$ :  $\mathbf{w}_i = \frac{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i}{\sigma_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ ,  
extended to an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  for  $r < i \leq m$ 

Then  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{W} \Sigma \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}$  is a singular value decomposition of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## Quadratic forms

**Definition:** A quadratic form on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a function Q defined as

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$
 :  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$   $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$ 

where the  $n \times n$  symmetric **A** is the *matrix of the quadratic form*.

#### The principal axes theorem:

For a given quadratic form  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$  there is a change of variable  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{y}$  that transforms it into a quadratic form  $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{y}$  with a diagonal matrix  $\mathbf{D}$  (no cross-product terms).

Procedure:

- Orthogonally diagonalise  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}$
- 2 The required change of variables is  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$
- **③** The columns of  $\mathbf{P}$  are the *principal axes* of  $\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

## Notes on the final test

- 110 minutes writing time plus 5 minutes technical time
- 3 problems covering the following main topics:
  - Matrix subspaces
  - Orthogonality, projections, orthogonal basis
  - Diagonalisation; spectral decomposition
  - Singular value decomposition
  - Quadratic forms
- Previous subject topics are still relevant (as solutions tools)

## Advice for solving test problems

- Identify and attack the easiest problems first
- If stuck, change to the next problem and return at the end

• Keep to explicit radicals and rational fractions (e.g. 
$$\frac{5}{\sqrt{3}}$$
, not "2.88675")

- If the numbers are getting really uncomfortable, something is probably wrong
- Articulate your solutions as much as practical (explain what you are doing)
- Check back the final answer where possible

# Final class test

at the tutorials this week

Thank you for studying linear algebra, and good luck!