

Summary Midterm Exam10 Introduction:

Vector plus Vector

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.6 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0.9 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Number times Vector

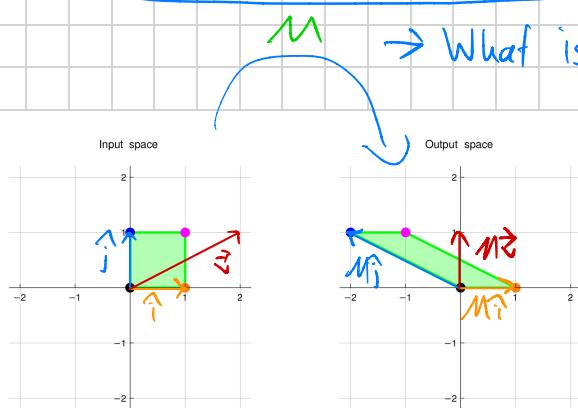
$$5 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0.3 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1.5 \\ -35 \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix and Vector multiplication:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} + 7 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot -2 + 1 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 0 + 7 \cdot 0 \\ 1 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot -2 + 3 \cdot 1 + 7 \cdot 0 \\ 1 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot -2 + 7 \cdot 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

11 Matrix as linear map

$$\hat{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow M\hat{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{j} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow M\hat{j} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \cdot \hat{i} + 1 \cdot \hat{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow M\vec{v} = 2 \cdot M\hat{i} + 1 \cdot M\hat{j}$$

$$M\vec{v} = 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} M\hat{i} & M\hat{j} \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Where $M\hat{i}$ "lands"

Where $M\hat{j}$ "lands"

Shear matrix

A square matrix¹ with
 ▶ along the diagonal²: all 1s
 ▶ away from the diagonal: all 0s except for at most one entry
 is called a **shear matrix**. It is actually a special kind of shear matrix, but we only consider this special kind for the moment.

Examples:

square matrix: $d \times d$ matrix for some d
 diagonal: upper left to lower right corner

Identity matrix

The square matrix with
 ▶ along the diagonal: all 1s
 ▶ away from the diagonal: all 0s
 is called the **identity matrix**.

Example.
 2×2 id. mat. 4×4 id. mat.

The $d \times d$ identity matrix is typically denoted $\mathbb{1}_d$, or simply $\mathbb{1}$.

Scaling matrix

A square matrix with
 ▶ along the diagonal: all equal to the same real number λ
 ▶ away from the diagonal: all 0s
 is called a **scaling matrix**.

Examples:

Diagonal matrix

A square matrix with
 ▶ along the diagonal: no condition
 ▶ away from the diagonal: all 0s
 is called a **diagonal matrix**.

Examples:

\Rightarrow diagonal matrices

Permutation matrix

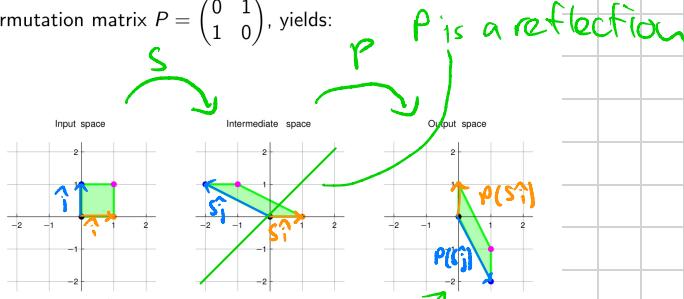
A square matrix with
 ▶ in every row: one 1, otherwise all 0s
 ▶ in every column: one 1, otherwise all 0s
 is called a **permutation matrix**.

Examples:

12 Matrix Multiplication

Applying **first** the shear matrix $S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then the

permutation matrix $P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, yields:



$C \rightarrow$ directly applied

$$C = (P(S^T) \quad P(S^T))$$

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

$$\Rightarrow C = PS \neq S P$$

$$(AB)C = A(BC) = ABC$$

$$AIB \neq BA$$

Matrix multiplication:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_a & b_a \\ c_a & d_a \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} a_b & b_b \\ c_b & d_b \end{pmatrix}$$

For multiplication step by step

\Rightarrow

$$a_b \begin{pmatrix} a_a \\ c_a \end{pmatrix} + c_b \begin{pmatrix} b_a \\ d_a \end{pmatrix}$$

first row

$$b_b \begin{pmatrix} a_a \\ c_a \end{pmatrix} + d_b \begin{pmatrix} b_a \\ d_a \end{pmatrix}$$

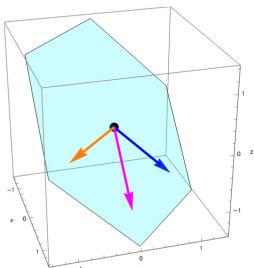
second row

$$AIB = \begin{pmatrix} A(a_b) \\ A(c_b) \end{pmatrix} \quad A \begin{pmatrix} b_b \\ d_b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AIB = \begin{pmatrix} a_b a_a + c_b b_a \\ a_b c_a + c_b d_a \end{pmatrix} \quad b_b a_a + d_b b_a \\ b_b c_a + d_b d_a$$

13 Span Subspace Basis Dimension

The set of all linear combinations of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is still the same plane through the origin:



$$\text{Span} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- zero vector $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is not affecting the span
- span: all linear combinations of k vectors
- basis: 1. $\text{Span} \{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = U$

\Rightarrow $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a linear comb. of v_1 and v_3

$$\Rightarrow \text{span} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

is the basis, since v_1 and v_2 are linearly independent

2. None of the k vectors is in the span of the other $k-1$ vectors.

\Rightarrow removing any one of the vectors would result in not being U
 \Rightarrow k vectors need to be linearly independent

Question: In \mathbb{R}^4 , consider the set U of all

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0$$

$$2 + (-7) + 10 = 5$$

$$U \ni \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

for which $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0$. Is this a subspace?

Answer. Yes, it is equal to

$$\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

because this span is in U , and every element in U is in this span side

$$\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \\ -x_3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -x_4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

where all vectors in span result in $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0$

where all vectors in span result in $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + 4x_4 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ -2x_2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \\ -3x_3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -4x_4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

14 Row reduction (also known as Gaussian elimination)

Key fact 1 about rref:

It exists and there is an algorithm

Given a matrix A with real entries, there exists an rref B of the same size as A , such that the span of the rows of A equals the span of the rows of B . Such a B can be obtained from A , using the algorithm discussed in the example, using only the following **elementary row operations** that do not change the span:

- add multiple of one row to another row:

$$R_i \leftarrow R_i + aR_j \text{ with } i \neq j$$

- multiply a row by a nonzero number:

$$R_i \leftarrow aR_i \text{ with } a \neq 0$$

- swap two rows:

$$R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$$

Key fact 3 about rref:

It is canonical

canonical means that the alg. produces a basis that depends only on the span of the input vectors

Weak version: If a matrix is simplified to rref, then no matter which and how many elementary row operations were used, the result is always the same. In this sense, every matrix A has a unique reduced row echelon form. We denote it by

$$\text{rref}(A)$$

Strong version: Suppose A and A' are two matrices such that the span of the rows of A is equal to the span of the rows of A' . Then

$$\text{rref}(A) = \text{rref}(A')$$

Actually, they can differ in the number of all-zero rows. One could define $\text{rref}(A)$ to be the matrix after the all-zero rows are dropped, but conventionally, that is not done.

put span into matrix

→ vectors become cols in matrix

→ nice pivot

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 & 0 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

1. Clean C_1 :

$$R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - R_1$$

$$R_3 \leftarrow R_3 - R_1$$

$$R_4 \leftarrow R_4 - R_1$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

2. Then C_2, C_3, \dots

Key fact 2 about rref:

The nonzero rows are linearly independent

Given an rref, then the nonzero rows are **linearly independent**, meaning none of them is a linear combination of the others.

This follows from the structure of the pivot columns.

span {

1	0	2	1	3
1	0	2	-2	3
2	1	5	0	6
1	2	4	1	3

}

What dimension has this span?

- ~~1 \mathbb{R}^0~~ → more than one vector
- ~~1 \mathbb{R}^1~~ → R_3 needs to consist of at least 3 vectors
- ~~2 \mathbb{R}^2~~ → consists of 4 vectors

⇒ between $1\mathbb{R}^2$ and $1\mathbb{R}^4$

rref =

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

3 pivots
⇒ dim 3

basis of span:

{

1	0	2	0	3
0	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	1	0

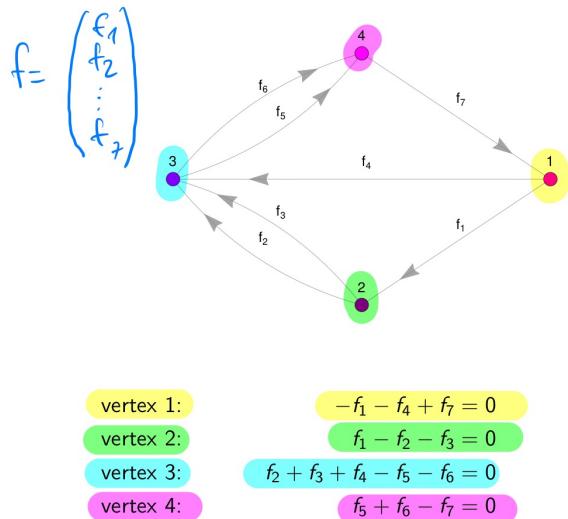
}

Checklist for rref:

- All zero rows at the bottom
- Above all zero rows:
 - The first nonzero entry in each row is a 1, called pivot
 - The pivot columns give the id. matrix

15 Homogeneous linear equations and Nullspace

Cont., traffic flow equations



Cont., matrix form

linear comb. of unknowns \Rightarrow linear homogeneous
 \downarrow
 $\begin{array}{l} -f_1 - f_4 + f_7 = 0 \\ f_1 - f_2 - f_3 = 0 \\ f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 = 0 \\ f_5 + f_6 - f_7 = 0 \end{array}$
 . 4 equations
 . 7 unknowns

is equivalent to
 vertex 1: $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = 0$
 vertex 4: A , known as incidence matrix
 edge 1: starts at first vertex and goes to second vertex
 edge 7: starts at third vertex and goes to fourth vertex
 $Af = 0$

$$Af = 0 \Leftrightarrow \text{rref}(A)f = 0$$

pivot cols
 pivot unknowns
 non pivot unknowns

$$\text{rref}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

\Rightarrow pivot unknowns can be expressed through pivot unknowns

$$\begin{aligned} & \Rightarrow -f_1 - f_4 + f_7 = 0 \\ & f_1 - f_2 - f_3 = 0 \\ & f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 = 0 \\ & f_5 + f_6 - f_7 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &= -f_4 + f_7 \\ f_2 &= -f_3 - f_4 + f_7 \\ f_5 &= -f_6 + f_7 \end{aligned}$$

Non-pivot vars f_3, f_4, f_6, f_7 are free and uniquely determine pivot vars f_1, f_2, f_5

\Rightarrow Solution to $Af = 0$:

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -f_4 + f_7 \\ -f_3 - f_4 + f_7 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ -f_6 + f_7 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix}$$

id. mat.
 Nullspace S

- A system of equations is called **linear homogeneous** if and only if it can be written as

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Ax = 0$$

for some matrix A that does not depend on $x_1 \dots x_n$

- Set of all x with $Ax = 0$ is called **nullspace of A** or **kernel of A** . It is a subspace

\Rightarrow Constructing solution x of $Ax = 0$ is equivalent to constructing **basis of the nullspace A**

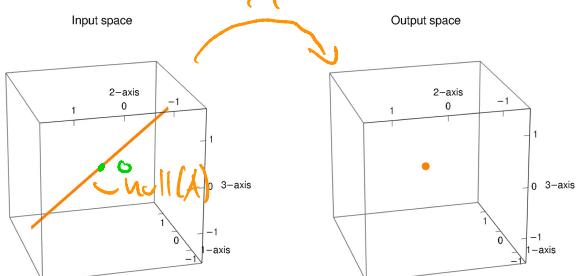
$$\Rightarrow Ax = 0 \rightarrow AS = 0 \rightarrow x = S \cup$$

(non pivot vars)

$\Rightarrow S$ solution operator of $Ax = 0$.
If S has 0 cols $\rightarrow x = 0$ only solution to $Ax = 0$

16 Column space Rank

$$x + y + z = 0 \\ y + 2z = 0 \\ x - z = 0 \Rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \text{rref}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

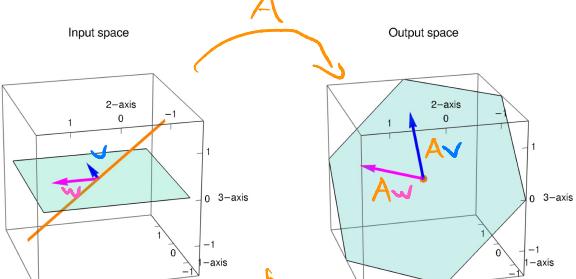


$$\rightarrow S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

\hookrightarrow basis $\text{null}(A)$
1 dim

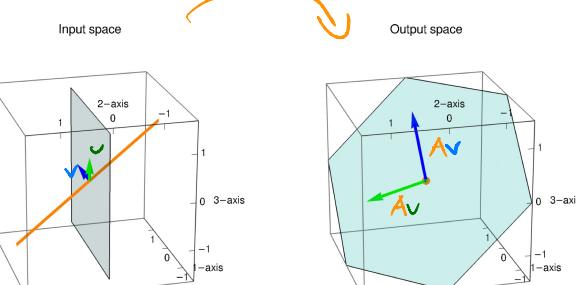
Two linearly independent vectors / inputs w and v that intersect with $\text{null}(A)$ at the origin

$$w = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\text{span} \left\{ A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

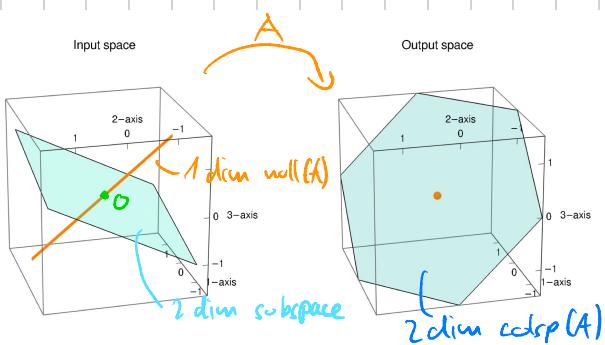


$$v = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ .5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ .5 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\text{span} \left\{ A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ .5 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

\Rightarrow Output is the same $\Rightarrow \text{colsp}$



Any 2-dim subspace that intersects with $\text{null}(A)$ at the origin. The result of mapping A onto the subspace is the columnspace, $\text{colsp}(A)$

$\Rightarrow \text{colsp}(A)$ is the span of all columns of A

$$\Rightarrow \dim(\text{colsp}(A)) = \dim(\text{input space}) - \dim(\text{null}(A))$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{number of pivots in } \text{rref}(A)$$

$$= \dim(\text{input space}) - \dim(\text{null}(A))$$

$$= \dim(\text{colsp}(A))$$

\Rightarrow if A is $m \times n$ then $\text{rank}(A) \leq m$ and $\text{rank}(A) \leq n$

The basis of a colsp can be obtained by computing the rref of the transpose. Ex:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & 34 & 233 \\ 1 & 8 & 55 & 377 \\ 2 & 13 & 89 & 610 \\ 3 & 21 & 144 & 987 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 8 & 13 & 21 \\ 34 & 55 & 89 & 144 \\ 233 & 377 & 610 & 987 \end{pmatrix}$$

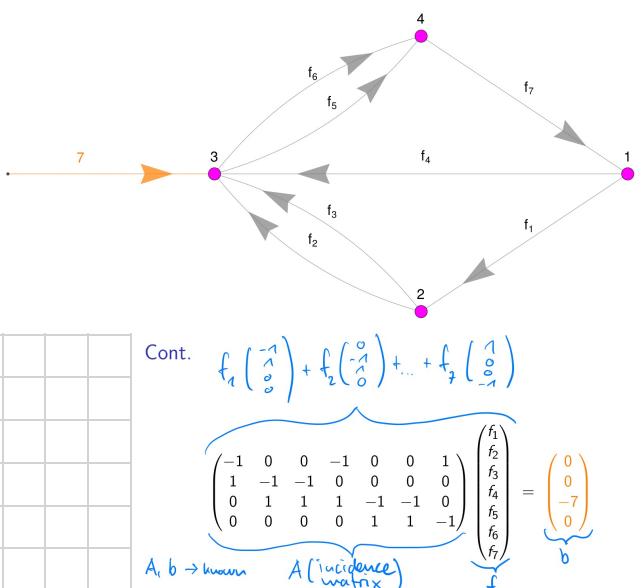
\Rightarrow compute $\text{rref}(A^T)$

$$\text{rref}(A^T) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow basis of $\text{colsp}(A)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

17 Inhomogeneous linear equations



$$\text{Cont. } f_1 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + f_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \dots + f_7 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -7 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A, b \rightarrow \text{matrix } A \text{ (incidence matrix)} \quad f \rightarrow \text{unknown}$$

This is an inhomogeneous linear system.
Does a solution exist? $\Leftrightarrow b \in \text{colsp}(A)$?
Compute all solutions!

* $Af=0$, then $f=0$ is obviously a solution

$$3: f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_8 - f_6 + 7 = 0$$

$$f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 = -7$$

A solution f exists to $Af = b$ if b is in the colsp of A

\Rightarrow Check $\text{rank}(A)=3$, hence $\text{colsp}(A)$ is 3-dim subspace of \mathbb{R}^4 .

b might be in there

To get the solution augment the matrix A with b

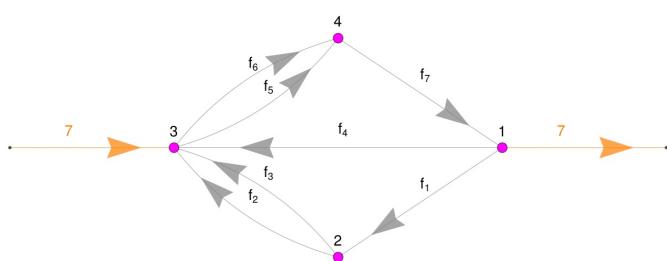
$$(A|b) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

\Rightarrow linear homogeneous system, compute rref($A|b$)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

- Last col is pivot col
 \Rightarrow 4th equation is unsatisfiable
 \Rightarrow no solution, system is inconsistent

$$1 \cdot (-1) = -1 \neq 0$$



Total traffic into system is zero.

Ad-hoc observation: Solution exists using only f_4 .

But again, we want to run our systematic method.

$$1: -f_1 - f_4 + f_7 - 7 = 0$$

$$-f_1 - f_4 + f_7 = 7$$

$$3: f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 + 7 = 0$$

$$f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 = -7$$

$$\Rightarrow b = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 0 \\ -7 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow A f = b \rightarrow$ Augment A with b , add -1 to f

$$\rightarrow (A|b) \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \text{rref}(A|b)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \text{rref} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

- Last col not pivot col

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \\ f_5 \\ f_6 \\ f_7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -7 \\ -7 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{One solution: } f = \begin{pmatrix} -7 \\ -7 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow All solutions: Adding element in null(A)
 $f_* + u\lambda I(A)$

Summary of the method

Suppose a matrix A and a vector b are given, with real entries. Consider the linear inhomogeneous system for the unknown x :

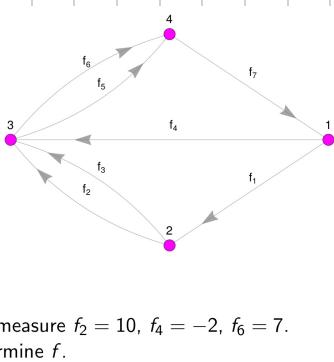
$$Ax = b$$

Theorem. Consider the rref of the augmented matrix:

$$\text{rref}(A|b)$$

- If the last column is a pivot column, then no solution x exists.
- If the last column is not a pivot column, then:
 - There is unique solution x_* that uses only components corresponding to pivot columns.
 - The space of all solutions x is $x_* + \text{null}(A)$.

In the first case, the system is called **inconsistent**, in the second case, **consistent**.



$$\begin{aligned} -f_1 - f_4 + f_7 &= 0 \\ f_1 - f_2 - f_3 &= 0 \\ f_2 + f_3 + f_4 - f_5 - f_6 &= 0 \\ f_5 + f_6 - f_7 &= 0 \\ f_2 &= 10 \\ f_4 &= -2 \\ f_6 &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

junctions
measurements
inham. lin. sys.

Since 3 values are already known, there is another option.

Option 2. Simply replace known values:

$$\begin{aligned} -f_1 + f_7 &= -2 \\ f_1 - f_3 &= 10 \\ f_3 - f_5 &= -1 \\ f_5 - f_7 &= -7 \end{aligned}$$

20 Square matrix and inverse

Square matrix: num of rows equals num of cols

A linear systems with as many equations as unknowns such as

$$3x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 = 39$$

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 34$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 26$$

The augmented matrix is

$$(A|b) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3 & 2 & 1 & 39 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 34 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 26 \end{array} \right)$$

"usually" if A is square, then $\text{rref}(A) = \mathbb{I}$

$\boxed{\mathbb{I}} \rightarrow \text{id. mat.}$

id. mat. to the left

\downarrow

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{37}{4} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{17}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{11}{4} \end{array} \right) = x \quad \text{then } Ax = b$$

Its rref is:

Generally true: When the rref of a square matrix is \mathbb{I} , then the rref of the augmented matrix is $(\mathbb{I}| \text{solution})$. id. mat.

leads to a **square matrix**:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}}_A \quad \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}}_b = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 39 \\ 34 \\ 26 \end{pmatrix}}_b \Rightarrow (A|b)$$

Doing this gives one solution, to get general solution we can use the standard basis vectors:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Augment A with the standard basis vectors

$$(A|v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3)$$

Computing the rref results in $(\mathbb{I}|v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3)$ or in other words the general solution

$$\text{rref} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) = (\mathbb{I}|v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3)$$

$$\text{rref} \left(\begin{array}{cccc|ccc} 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{7}{12} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{12} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{5}{12} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{12} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{12} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{5}{12} \end{array} \right) \quad A^{-1} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} \frac{7}{12} & -\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{12} \\ -\frac{5}{12} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{12} \\ \frac{1}{12} & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{5}{12} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow Ax = b \rightarrow x = A^{-1}b$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}}_A x = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

is $x = b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + b_3 v_3$.

Proof.

$$Ax = A(b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + b_3 v_3)$$

$$= b_1 A v_1 + b_2 A v_2 + b_3 A v_3 = b_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) + b_2 \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) + b_3 \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{array} \right)$$

Inverse matrix

Definition and Theorem.

A square matrix A is said to be **invertible** if and only if $\text{rref}(A) = \mathbb{1}$. In this case, define a new matrix A^{-1} by

$$\text{rref}(A|\mathbb{1}) = (\mathbb{1}|A^{-1})$$

called the **inverse matrix** of A .

- It is the unique matrix that satisfies $AA^{-1} = \mathbb{1}$.
- It is the unique matrix that satisfies $A^{-1}A = \mathbb{1}$.
- A^{-1} is invertible and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

Idea of Proof. The definition relies on the uniqueness of rref. For $AA^{-1} = \mathbb{1}$ see the example above. Our definition of A^{-1} implies $\text{rref}(A^{-1}|\mathbb{1}) = (\mathbb{1}|A)$. Hence $\text{rref}(A^{-1}) = \mathbb{1}$ and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$. Hence $A^{-1}A = A^{-1}(A^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbb{1}$. Uniqueness: If B satisfies $AB = \mathbb{1}$ then $B = A^{-1}AB = A^{-1}\mathbb{1} = A^{-1}$, using the associativity of matrix multiplication. If C satisfies $CA = \mathbb{1}$ then $C = CAA^{-1} = \mathbb{1}A^{-1} = A^{-1}$.

Properties of invertible square matrix

Theorem. For a real $n \times n$ matrix A , the following are equivalent:

- $\text{rref}(A) = \mathbb{1}$.
- A is invertible.
- The nullspace $\text{null}(A)$ contains only the zero vector.
- The column space $\text{colsp}(A)$ is all of \mathbb{R}^n .
- For every $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ there is a unique $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $Ax = b$.

This follows from our construction of nullspace and columnspace using rref; the solution of the inhomogeneous problem using the rref of the augmented matrix.

Given a 2×2 matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

where a, b, c, d are symbols. Compute the row reduction

$$\text{rref}(A|\mathbb{1})$$

and derive a formula for A^{-1} . State all assumptions that you make.

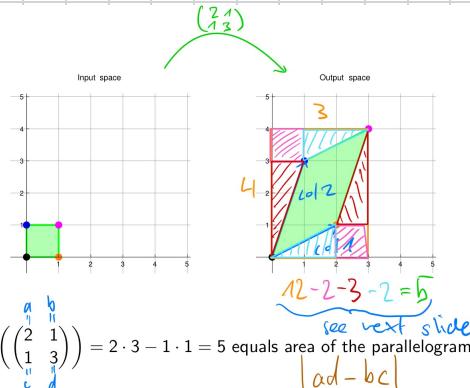
21 Determinant

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

The denominator is the determinant:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc$$

Matrix is invertible if and only if the determinant is $\neq 0$.



Inverse of AB

Theorem. Suppose A and B are square matrices of the same size. Then AB is invertible if and only if A and B are invertible, and

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

Proof. Applying AB means first applying B and then applying A ; therefore, to undo AB , we must first undo what A did, then undo what B did, which is $B^{-1}A^{-1}$. As a computation:

$$(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}(AA^{-1})B = B^{-1}B = \mathbb{1}$$

Why $(AB)^{-1}$ cannot possibly be $A^{-1}B^{-1}$

An $n \times n$ matrix maps \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n , but conceptually, imagine that these spaces are unrelated. The input could be volume, the output weight. Let us use color to distinguish different types.

$$A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$B : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

Output space of B matches input space of A so that AB is defined.

$$A^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ because it undoes what } A \text{ does}$$

$$B^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \text{ because it undoes what } B \text{ does}$$

Note that $A^{-1}B^{-1}$ is undefined; the types do not match.

By contrast, the types match just fine for $B^{-1}A^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & 1 & 0 \\ c & d & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiply the first row by $\frac{1}{a}$, assuming $a \neq 0$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} & \frac{1}{a} & 0 \\ c & d & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Add $-c$ times the first row to the second row:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} & \frac{1}{a} & 0 \\ 0 & d - \frac{cb}{a} & -\frac{c}{a} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Simplify:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} & \frac{1}{a} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{ad - bc}{a} & -\frac{c}{a} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiply the second row by $\frac{a}{ad - bc}$, assuming $a \neq 0$ and $ad - bc \neq 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} & \frac{1}{a} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{ad - bc}{ad - bc} & \frac{a}{ad - bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

Add $-b/a$ times the second row to the first row:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{a} + \frac{bc/a}{ad - bc} & -\frac{b}{ad - bc} \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{ad - bc}{ad - bc} & \frac{a}{ad - bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

Simplify:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{d}{ad - bc} & -\frac{b}{ad - bc} \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{ad - bc}{ad - bc} & \frac{a}{ad - bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$, valid when $ad - bc \neq 0$ (do not need $a \neq 0$)

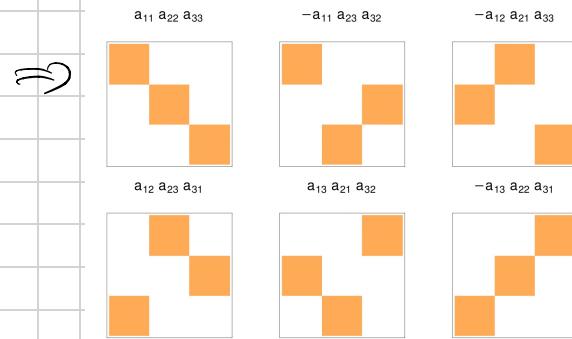
To generally get the area after applying linear map:

$$\text{Area} = \text{Area in input space} \cdot \det$$

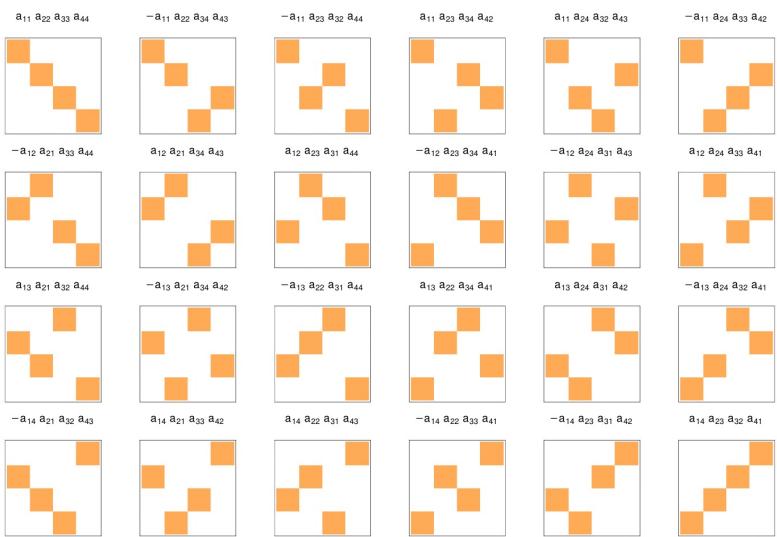
Inverse of 3×3 matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{aei - aht - dbi + dhc + gbt - gec} \begin{pmatrix} ei - fh & ch - bi & bf - ce \\ fg - di & ai - cg & cd - af \\ dh - eg & bg - ah & ae - bd \end{pmatrix}$$

def



For 4×4 matrix:



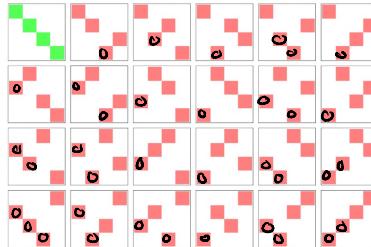
Def for upper/lower triangular mat.

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & * & * & \dots & * & * \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & * & \dots & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \dots & * & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_{n-1} & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 \cdots \lambda_{n-1} \lambda_n$$

Since these entries have a 0, their corresponding boxes don't contribute to the det:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -6 & 7 & 11 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 & 0.2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot (-1) \cdot 2 = -30$$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & -2 & 3 \\ 7 & 11 & 5 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 19 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 13 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 7 & 11 \end{pmatrix} \det \begin{pmatrix} 19 & 2 \\ 13 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 5 \cdot (-7) = -35$$



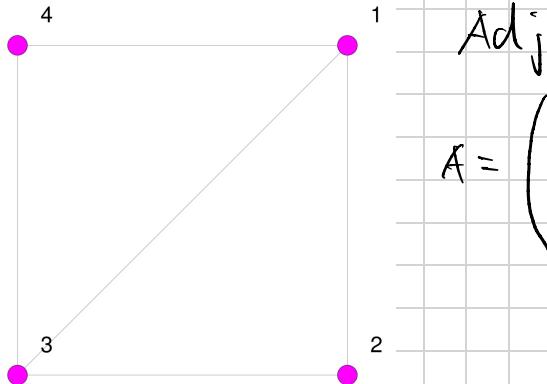
If A, D are square matrices, then

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} = \det(A) \det(D)$$

$\Rightarrow B$ is irrelevant

22 Matrix powers and adjacency matrix

$$A^0 = 1I$$

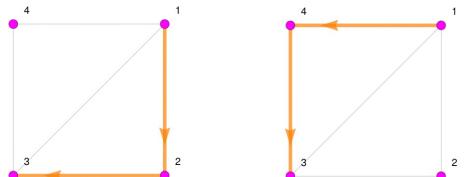


Adjacency matrix of this undirected graph:

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

$v_1 v_2 v_3 v_4$

Tells that vertex 1 is connected with vertex 2
vertex 2
vertex 3
vertex 4



$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

3 possibilities to go from 1 to 1 with 2 steps
2 possibilities to go from 1 to 3 with 2 steps

Entry 31 in A^2 counts the number of walks of length 2 with 2 steps from vertex 1 to vertex 3.

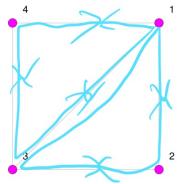
The **trace** of a square matrix is the sum of all diagonal entries:

$$\text{tr}(A^2) = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 3 + 2 + 3 + 2 = 10$$

The trace of A^2 counts the attached edges with a walk of 2 from vertex i back to vertex i

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}(A^2) = 2 \cdot \# \text{edges}$$

$$\# \text{edges} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(A^2)$$

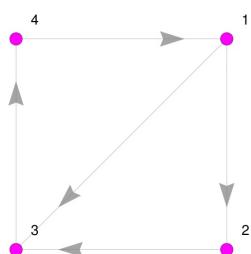


$$\text{tr}(A^3) = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 & 5 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 & 5 & 2 \\ 5 & 5 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 4 + 2 + 4 + 2 = 12$$

The trace of A^3 counts the same as the trace of A^2 , however instead of edges it counts triangles with a walk of 3

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}(A^3) = 6 \cdot \# \text{triangles}$$

$$\# \text{triangles} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \text{tr}(A^3)$$



For a directed graph these principles stay the same, the only thing that differs is what the adjacency matrix tells.

The **adjacency matrix** of this **directed** graph is

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

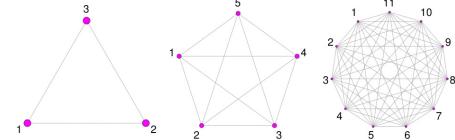
vertex 1 is only connected with vertex 4
vertex 3 is only connected with vertex 1 and vertex 2

Problem 2

a.)

$n = 3$

```
A = np.array([[0, 1, 1], [1, 0, 1], [1, 1, 0]])
matrix_power(A, 2)
✓ 0.0s
array([[2, 1, 1],
       [1, 2, 1],
       [1, 1, 2]])
```



The complete graph on n vertices is the undirected graph where all edges are present; the cases $n = 3$, $n = 5$ and $n = 11$ respectively are shown above. The adjacency matrix A_n can be described as follows: It is the $n \times n$ matrix all whose diagonal entries are equal to 0, all whose off-diagonal entries are equal to 1.

- Give a similar description of $(A_n)^2$.
- Give a similar description of $(A_n)^3$.
- Compute the trace $\text{tr}((A_n)^2)$. How many edges are there?
Check. For $n = 5$, your answer should give 10 edges.
- Compute the trace $\text{tr}((A_n)^3)$. How many triangles are there?
Check. For $n = 3$, your answer should give 1 triangle.

$n = 5$

```
A = np.array(
    [
        [0, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 0, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 0, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 0, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 0]
    ]
)
matrix_power(A, 2)
✓ 0.0s
```

```
array([[4, 3, 3, 3, 3],
       [3, 4, 3, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 4, 3, 3],
       [3, 3, 3, 4, 3],
       [3, 3, 3, 3, 4]])
```

$n = 11$

```
A = np.array(
    [
        [0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0]
    ]
)
matrix_power(A, 2)
✓ 0.0s
```

```
array([[10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10, 9],
       [9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 10]])
```

diagonal: $n-1$

off diagonal: $n-2$

b.)

$n = 3$

```
A = np.array([[0, 1, 1], [1, 0, 1], [1, 1, 0]])
matrix_power(A, 3)
✓ 0.0s
array([[2, 3, 3],
       [3, 2, 3],
       [3, 3, 2]])
```

$n = 5$

```
A = np.array(
    [
        [0, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 0, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 0, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 0, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 0]
    ]
)
matrix_power(A, 3)
✓ 0.0s
```

```
array([[12, 13, 13, 13, 13],
       [13, 12, 13, 13, 13],
       [13, 13, 12, 13, 13],
       [13, 13, 13, 12, 13],
       [13, 13, 13, 13, 12]])
```

$n = 11$

```
A = np.array(
    [
        [0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1],
        [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0]
    ]
)
matrix_power(A, 3)
✓ 0.0s
```

```
array([[90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90, 91],
       [91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 91, 90]])
```

diagonal: $n=5$

$$A_{11} = 0 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3$$

$$= 0 + 4 \cdot 3$$

$$= (n-1)(n-2) = 12$$

$$\text{check } n=11 \Rightarrow (11-1)(11-2) = 10 \cdot 9 = 90$$

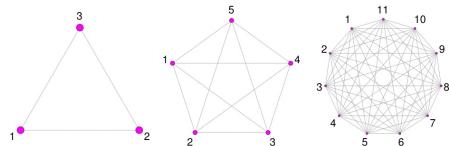
off diagonal:

$$A_{21} = 1 \cdot 4 + 0 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 3$$

$$= 4 + 0 + 3 \cdot 3 = 4 + 3^2$$

$$= (n-1) + (n-2)^2 = 13$$

Problem 2



The complete graph on n vertices is the undirected graph where all edges are present; the cases $n = 3$, $n = 5$ and $n = 11$ respectively are shown above. The adjacency matrix A_n can be described as follows: It is the $n \times n$ matrix all whose diagonal entries are equal to 0, all whose off-diagonal entries are equal to 1.

- Give a similar description of $(A_n)^2$.
- Give a similar description of $(A_n)^3$.
- Compute the trace $\text{tr}((A_n)^2)$. How many edges are there?
Check. For $n = 5$, your answer should give 10 edges.
- Compute the trace $\text{tr}((A_n)^3)$. How many triangles are there?
Check. For $n = 3$, your answer should give 1 triangle.

$$c) \text{tr}((A_n)^2) = n \cdot (n-1)$$

$$= \frac{n^2 - n}{2}$$

$$\# \text{edges} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}((A_n)^2) = \frac{n^2 - n}{2}$$

$$n=5 \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A^2) = 5^2 - 5$$

$$= 25 - 5 = 20$$

$$\# \text{edges} = \frac{20}{2} = 10$$

$$d) \text{tr}((A_n)^3) = \frac{n \cdot ((n-1)(n-2))}{6}$$

$$\# \text{triangles} = \frac{1}{6} \text{tr}((A_n)^3) =$$

$$\frac{n \cdot ((n-1)(n-2))}{6}$$

$$n=3 \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A^3) = 3 \cdot ((3-1)(3-2)) \\ = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$$

$$\# \text{triangles} = \frac{6}{6} = 1$$

23 Block multiplication and inversion

Given 4 matrices A, B, C, D can build new matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}$$

provided sizes fit, as in



Operations can be done blockwise:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Av + Bw \\ Cv + Dw \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A' & B' \\ C' & D' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} AA' + BC' & AB' + BD' \\ CA' + DC' & CB' + DD' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & X \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Y \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & X+Y \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z^2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}BK^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}BK^{-1} \\ -K^{-1}CA^{-1} & K^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$K = D - CA^{-1}B$$

To invert block matrix:

- A and D are square
- A and K are invertible

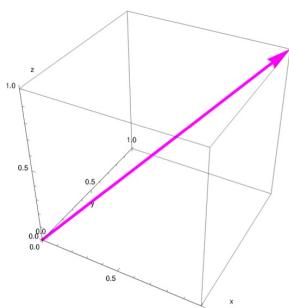
30 Dot product

$$v = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{norm is square root of sum of squares of all entries}$$

(Also known as 2-norm or Euclidean norm)

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{2^2 + 5^2 + 4^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{49} = 7$$

norm represents distance in physical space



There are other norms:

• 1-norm: sum of absolute values:

$$\|v\|_1\text{-norm} = |2| + |5| + |4| + |-2| = 13$$

↳ also known as Manhattan distance

$$\bullet p\text{-norm: } \left\| \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_d \end{pmatrix} \right\|_{p\text{-norm}} = \sqrt[p]{|v_1|^p + \dots + |v_d|^p}$$

• 2-norm is the default
⇒ When speaking about norm,
2-norm is meant

$$\left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{3}$$

Dot product

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \cdot 9 + 5 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot (-2) + (-2) \cdot 3 = \underline{\underline{9}}$$

$\begin{matrix} 1 \times 4 & 4 \times 1 \\ (2 \leq 4 \leq -2) & \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = (3) \end{matrix}$

Unlike length, the dot product is not part of everyday language, but it is mathematically natural and powerful. For a start, it can be used to give an equivalent definition of the 2-norm:

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{v \cdot v}$$

"sum of squares of entries"

Quantifying alignment

Given the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, one regards

$$-1 \leq \frac{v \cdot w}{\|v\| \|w\|} \leq 1$$

as a measure of how strongly $v \neq 0$ and $w \neq 0$ are aligned.

1 between 0 and 1	fully aligned
0 between -1 and 0	partially aligned
-1 between 0 and -1	orthogonal
-1 between -1 and 0	partially anti-aligned
-1 between 0 and 1	fully anti-aligned

0 deg

90 deg

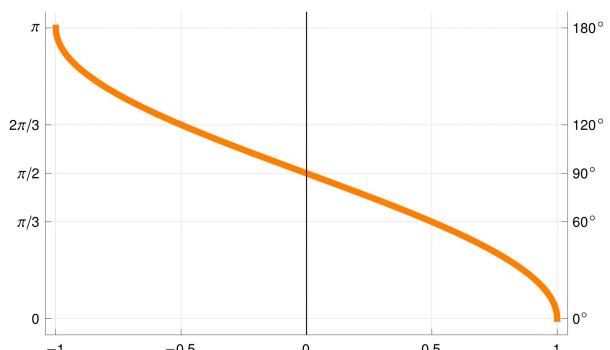
180 deg

If $v \neq 0$ and $w \neq 0$ angle can be defined

$$\angle(v, w) = \arccos \frac{v \cdot w}{\|v\| \|w\|}$$

$$v \cdot w = \|v\| \|w\| \cos \angle(v, w)$$

• Generalizes concept of angle to all dimensions



$$\cos 0^\circ = 1$$

$$\arccos 1 = 0^\circ$$

$$\cos 90^\circ = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\arccos 0 = 90^\circ$$

$$\cos 180^\circ = -1$$

$$\arccos(-1) = 180^\circ$$

orthogonal:
 $v \cdot w = 0$
 $\angle(v, w) = \frac{\pi}{2} = 90^\circ$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

Fact. For all vectors v, w one has

$$\underbrace{-\|v\| \cdot \|w\|}_{-20} \leq v \cdot w \leq \underbrace{\|v\| \cdot \|w\|}_{20}$$

Furthermore, assuming $v \neq 0$ and $w \neq 0$:

- $v \cdot w = \|v\| \cdot \|w\|$ if and only if v and w are **fully aligned**, meaning $v = kw$ for some number $k > 0$. \rightarrow pointing in same direction
- $v \cdot w = -\|v\| \cdot \|w\|$ if and only if v and w are **fully anti-aligned**, meaning $v = -kw$ for some number $k > 0$. \rightarrow pointing in different direction