# Linear Algebra

### **Definition 1.1**

A vector space (or linear space) V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  consists of a set on which two operations (called addition and multiplication respectively here) are defined so that;

- (A) (V is Closed Under Addition) For all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ , there exists a unique element  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in V$ .
- (M) (V is Closed Under Scalar Multiplication) For all elements  $a \in \mathbb{F}$  and elements  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , there exists a unique element  $a\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

Such that the following properties hold:

- (VS 1) (Commutativity of Addition) For all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ , we have  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}$ .
- (VS 2) (Associativity of Addition) For all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V$ , we have  $(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z})$ .
- (VS 3) (Existence of The Zero/Null Vector) There exists an element in V denoted by  $\mathbf{0}$ , such that  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .
- (VS 4) (Existence of Additive Inverses) For all elements  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , there exists an element  $\mathbf{y} \in V$  such that  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- (VS 5) (Multiplicative Identity) For all elements  $x \in V$ , we have  $1\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ , where 1 denotes the multiplicative identity in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- (VS 6) (Compatibility of Scalar Multiplication with Field Multiplication) For all elements  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$  and elements  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , we have  $(ab)\mathbf{x} = a(b\mathbf{x})$ .
- (VS 7) (Distributivity of Scalar Multiplication over Vector Addition) For all elements  $a \in \mathbb{F}$  and elements  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ , we have  $a(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = a\mathbf{x} + a\mathbf{y}$ .
- (VS 8) (Distributivity of Scalar Multiplication over Field Addition) For all elements  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ , and elements  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , we have  $(a + b)\mathbf{x} = a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{x}$ .

### **General Information**

- Let V be a vector space and W a subset of V. Then W is a subspace of V iff the following 3 conditions hold for the operations defined in V.
  - (a)  $0 \in W$
  - (b)  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in W$  whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in W$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in W$ .
  - (c)  $c\mathbf{x} \in W$  whenever  $c \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in W$ .
- A subset S of a vector space V generates (or spans) V iff span(S) = V. In this case, we also say that the vectors of S generate (or span) V.
- Let V be a vector space and S a nonempty subset of V. A vector  $v \in V$  is called a *linear combination* of vectors of S iff there exists a finite number of vectors  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$  in S and scalars  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  in  $\mathbb{F}$  such that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i u_i.$$

In this case we also say that v is a linear combination of  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$  and call  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  the *coefficients* of the linear combination

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• A set subset S of a vector space V is called *linearly dependent* iff there exists a finite number of distinct vectors  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$  in S and scalars  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  not all zero, such that

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + a_nu_n = \mathbf{0}.$$

- A basis  $\beta$  for a vector space V is a linearly independent subset of V that generates V. If  $\beta$  is a basis for V, we also say that the vectors of  $\beta$  form a basis for V.
- The Rank-Nullity Theorem: For any vector spaces V and W, and a linear operator  $T: V \to W$ , it holds that

$$rank(T) + nullity(T) = dim(V).$$

- For any matrix, its row space, column space, and rank are identical.
- A system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is homogeneous iff  $\mathbf{b} = 0$ ; otherwise it is nonhomogeneous.
- A system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  of m linear equations in n unknowns has a solution space of dimension n rank(A).
- A system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  of linear equations is *consistent* iff its solution set is nonempty; otherwise it is *inconsistent*.
- The Rouché-Capelli theorem: A system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent iff  $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{b})$ .
- A matrix is said to be in reduced row echelon form iff
  - Any row containing a nonzero entry precedes any row in which all the entries are zero (if any).
  - The first nonzero entry in each row is the only nonzero entry in its column.
  - The first nonzero entry in each row is 1 and it occurs in a column to the right of the first nonzero entry in the preceding row.
- Gaussian elimination.
  - In the forward pass, the augmented matrix is transformed into an upper triangular matrix in which the first nonzero entry of each row is 1 and it occurs in a column to the right of the first nonzero entry of each preceding row.
  - In the backward pass, the upper triangular matrix is transformed into reduced row echelon form by making the first nonzero entry of each row the only nonzero entry of its column.
- Let **A** be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and  $\mathbf{a}_j$  its jth column. For any  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{pmatrix}^{\top}$ ,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \mathbf{a}_j.$$

• Let **A** and **B** be matrices having n rows. For any matrix **M** with n columns, we have

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{M}\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{B}).$$

• The determinant of a square matrix can be evaluated by cofactor expansion along any row. That is, if  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ , then for any integer  $1 \le i \le n$ ,

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} \mathbf{A}_{ij} \cdot \det(\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}_{ij}).$$

Here,  $\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}_{ij}$  is the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{A}$  by deleting its *i*th row and *j*th column.

• The determinant of a square matrix can also be evaluated by cofactor expansion along any column, since

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{A}^{\top}).$$

- A matrix **A** is invertible iff its determinant is nonzero.
- Let **A** be an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. Then, for some elementary row matrices  $\mathbf{E}_1$  to  $\mathbf{E}_p$ ,

$$\mathbf{E}_{p}\mathbf{E}_{p-1}\dots\mathbf{E}_{1}(\mathbf{A}\,|\,\mathbf{I}_{n})=\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{A}\,|\,\mathbf{I}_{n})=(\mathbf{I}_{n}\,|\,\mathbf{A}^{-1}).$$

In other words, we can perform Gaussian elimination, so that  $(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{I}_n) \to (\mathbf{I}_n \mid \mathbf{A}^{-1})$ .

• Alternatively,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \operatorname{adj}(A),$$

where  $\operatorname{adj}(\mathbf{A})$  is the adjugate / classical adjoint of  $\mathbf{A}$ . That is, the matrix whose (i, j)th entry is the (j, i)th cofactor  $(-1)^{j+i} \det(\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}_{ji})$ 

## **Numerical Methods**

### **General Information**

- The parity of the degree of a real polynomial is the same as that of its number of real roots.
- Let the real polynomial p given by  $p(x) = a_{2n}x^{2n} + a_{2n-1}x^{2n-1} + \cdots + a_0$  have coefficients  $a_n > 0$  and  $a_0 < 0$ . Then, it has at least one positive and one negative root.
- Suppose we have some function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  with a root  $\alpha$ , whose value we want to approximate. There are three ways to obtain this approximation.
  - 1. Linear interpolation on an interval [a, b] containing  $\alpha$ . We let  $x_0 := b$  and

$$x_{i+1} \coloneqq \frac{a|f(x_i)| + x_i|f(a)|}{|f(a)| + |f(x_i)|}.$$

- Additional notes.
- 2. Fixed-point Iteration. First select a function  $F: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $F(\alpha) = \alpha$ , and choose some initial approximation  $x_0$  to  $\alpha$ . Then, we recursively define  $x_{n+1} := F(x_n)$ . The desired convergence behavior is for  $x_n$  to approach  $\alpha$ .
  - Additional notes.

### G.C. Skills

Linear interpolation: finding an approximation to a root in [a, b] up to n decimal places.

- 1.  $Y_1 = f(x)$ ,
- 2.  $a \to A$  and  $b \to B$ ,
- $3. \ \frac{B|Y_1(A)|+A|Y_1(B)|}{|Y_1(A)|+|Y_1(B)|},$
- 4. Ans  $\rightarrow A$  or B (choose the one that has the opposite sign to Ans),
- 5. Repeat steps 4 to 5,
- 6. Terminate this process when the approximations are consistent up to n decimal places.