

1 Linear Systems and Matrix Equations

Linear Algebra from Elementary to Advanced

University: Johns Hopkins University

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Definition

- Linear Functions All terms are of degree 0 or 1.
A solution of a system of linear equation is set of points that makes the equation system true.
- Consistent lin. systems is consistent if either 1 or ∞ solutions exist else inconsistent.
- Conist

Coefficient Matrix Example

$$\begin{cases} A_1x_1 + A_2x_2 + A_3x_3 = \alpha \\ B_1x_1 + B_2x_2 + B_3x_3 = \beta \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 \\ B_1 & B_2 & B_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Augmented Matrix Example

$$\begin{cases} A_1x_1 + A_2x_2 + A_3x_3 = \alpha \\ B_1x_1 + B_2x_2 + B_3x_3 = \beta \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 & \alpha \\ B_1 & B_2 & B_3 & \beta \end{array} \right] \quad (2)$$

Row-Equivalence

Two matrce are row-equivalent if there is a sequence of **EROS** that transforms one into the other.

Elementary Row Operations (EROS)

1. **[Replacement]** Replace one row by sum of itself.
2. **[Interchange]** Swap position of 2 rows.
3. **[Scaling]** Multiply all entries in row by non-zero constant.

Echelon Form (ef)

1. All non-zero rows are above any rows of all-zero.
2. Each leading entry of a row is in a column to the right of the roe above it.
3. All entries in a column below a leading entry are 0.

Reduced Row Echelon Form (rref)

1. As to be in echelon form.
2. Leading entry in each row is 1.
3. Each leading 1 is the only non-zero entry in its column.

Theorems

Theorem 1 Every matrix is row equivalent to a unique row echelon form.


Theorem 2 Every matrix is row equivalent to a unique row echelon form.


Matrix Algebra, Determinants, & Eigenvectors

Orthogonality and Diagonalization

Definition

- Inner Product $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{v}^T \vec{u} = u_1v_1 + \dots + u_nv_n$
(Also called dot product or scalar product)
- Length of \vec{x} $||\vec{x}|| = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$
(Also called Norm or Magnitude)
- Unit vectore A vector with $||\vec{x}|| = 1$
- Normalization The formula $\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{x}}{||\vec{x}||}$ creat a unit vector in the same direction as \vec{x} .

Distance $dist(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \vec{u} - \vec{v}$ 

Orthogonality $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$ 

Orthogonal Set A set of vectors $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that each distinct vectors are orthogonal.

Orthogonal Basis For a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is a basis that is also an orthogonal set.

Orthonormal set is a set of orthogonal unit vectors.

Orthogonal matrix Is a squared matrix whose columns are orthonormal.

Normal equation $A^T A \vec{x} = A^T \vec{b}$

Least-Squares Error $||\vec{b} - A\hat{x}||$

Symetric $A_{m \times n}$ is symetric if $A = A^T$

Spectrum Set of eigenvalues of $A_{n \times n} \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$ is called the **spectrum** of A .

Quadratic Form A **quadratic form** on \mathbb{R}^n is a function Q from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of the form $Q(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$, where A is a symetric matrix.

Orthogonal Complements Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
The orthogonal complement of W is:

Orthogonal Projection $W^\perp = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n | \vec{x} \cdot \vec{w} = 0, \forall \vec{w} \in W\}$
of $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is the vector \hat{y} in W such that $\vec{y} - \hat{y}$ is in W^\perp . (Noted $\text{proj}_W(\vec{y})$)

Least-Squares Problem is to find \vec{x} that makes $||\vec{b} - A\vec{x}|| = \text{dist}(\vec{b}, A\vec{x})$ as small as possible.

Orthogonally Diagonalizable Matrix is a square matrix for which there exist an orthogonal matrix P and a diagonal matrix D such that $A = PDP^{-1} = PDP^T$.

Theorems

Properties 1 Let $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then:

- $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$ • $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$ • $(c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = (c\vec{v}) \cdot \vec{u}$
- $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = u_1^2 + \dots + u_n^2 \geq 0$

Theorem 3 (Fundamental Subspaces Theorem) Let $A_{M \times N}$ then: • $(\text{row}(A))^\perp = \text{nul}(A)$ • $(\text{Col}(A))^\perp = \text{nul}(A^T)$

Theorem 4 If $S = \{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ is an **orthogonal set** of non-zero vectors in \mathbb{R}^n then S is a **linearly independent** set.

Theorem 5 let $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ be an **orthogonal basis** for $W \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $y \in W$. Then $\vec{y} = C_1\vec{u}_1 + \dots + C_p\vec{u}_p$, $C_j = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_j}{\vec{u}_j \cdot \vec{u}_j}$

Theorem 6 Let $u = (\vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_2 \vec{u}_3)$, where $\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_3\}$ is orthonormal set. $u^T \cdot u = I$

Theorem 7 Let u be an **orthogonal matrix**, Let $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$:
 • $|u\vec{x}| = |\vec{x}|$ • $(u\vec{x}) \cdot (u\vec{y}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$

Theorem 8 (Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem) Let W be a subspace with an orthogonal basis $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$. let $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then: $\hat{y} = \left(\frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1}{\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1}\right) \vec{u}_1 + \dots + \left(\frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_p}{\vec{u}_p \cdot \vec{u}_p}\right) \vec{u}_p$



Theorem 9 (Best Approximation Theorem) Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\hat{y} = \text{proj}_W(\vec{y})$. Then \hat{y} is closest point to \vec{y} in W . That is $\forall \vec{v} \neq \vec{y} \quad \|\vec{y} - \hat{y}\| < \|\vec{y} - \vec{v}\|$

Theorem 10 (Orth. Proj. with Orthonormal Bases) Let W subspace in \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ be an orthonormal basis of W . $\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) = (\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1)\vec{u}_1 + \dots + (\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_p)\vec{u}_p$ Let $U = (\vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_2 \dots \vec{u}_p)$. Then $\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) = UU^T \vec{y}$

Theorem 11 (Normal Equations and Least-Squares Sol.)
 The set of least squares solutions of $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ coincide the non-empty solutions of the Normal equation.

Theorem 12 (Criteria for a Unique Least-Squares Sol.)
 Let $A_{M \times N}$ then the following are equivalent: • $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has unique least-square solution $\forall \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. • Columns of A are linearly independent. • The matrix $A^T A$ is invertible. When the statements are true, the least squares solution is given by $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{b}$

Theorem 13 (Eigenvectors of a Symmetric Matrix) Let A be a symmetric matrix. Then any two eigenvectors of A from different eigenspaces are orthogonal.

Theorem 14 (Symmetric Matrices and Orth. Diag.) A square matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if A is a symmetric matrix.

Theorem 15 (Spectral Theorem For Symetric Matrices)
 Let $A_{n \times n}$ be symmetric. Then the following properties hold. • A has n real eigenvalues (counting multiplicities). • Then dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue λ is equal to the multiplicity of λ . • The eigenvectors of A corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal. • A is orthogonally diagonalizable.

Theorem 16 (Principal Axis Theorem) Let $A_{N \times N}$ be symmetric. Then there is an orthogonal change of variable $\vec{x} = P\vec{y}$ that transform the quadratic form $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ to $\vec{y}^T A \vec{y}$ with no cross terms (Ex. of cross terms is $x_1 x_2$). The columns of P are the eigenvectors of A .

Theorem 17 (Eigenvalue of Definites Quadratic) The quadratic form is: • Positive definite if and only if $\forall i \lambda_i > 0$. • Negative definite if and only if $\forall i \lambda_i < 0$. • Indefinite if and only if A as positive and negative eigenvalues.

Fact about the Orthogonal Complements

- $\vec{0} \in W^\perp$ since $\vec{0} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$
- If $W \in W^\perp, c \in \mathbb{R}$ then $cW \in W^\perp$
- If $\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2 \in W^\perp$ so $(\vec{w}_1 + \vec{w}_2) \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{w}_1 \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{w}_2 \cdot \vec{x} \in W$

Gram-Schmit Process(G-S)

The Gram-Schmit Process is an algorithm producing an orthogonal basis.

Start with $\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n\}$ basis for nonzero subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n define:

$$\vec{v}_1 = \vec{x}_1$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = \vec{x}_2 - \left(\frac{\vec{x}_2 \cdot \vec{v}_1}{\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1}\right) \vec{v}_1$$

\vdots

$$\vec{v}_n = \vec{x}_n - \left(\frac{\vec{x}_n \cdot \vec{v}_1}{\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1}\right) \vec{v}_1 - \dots - \left(\frac{\vec{x}_n \cdot \vec{v}_{n-1}}{\vec{v}_{n-1} \cdot \vec{v}_{n-1}}\right) \vec{v}_{n-1}$$

Finding the Matrix of a Quadratic Form

$$Q(\vec{x}) = Ax_1^2 + Bx_1x_2 + Cx_2^2 \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} A & \frac{B}{2} \\ \frac{B}{2} & C \end{bmatrix}$$

Quadratic Form Terminology

A quadratic form $Q(\vec{x})$ is: • Positive Definite If $Q(\vec{x}) > 0, \forall \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$
 • Positive Semidefinite If $Q(\vec{x}) \geq 0$ • Negative Definite If $Q(\vec{x}) < 0, \forall \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ • Negative Semidefinite If $Q(\vec{x}) \leq 0$