

# MAT 3341

## Applied Linear Algebra

### Study Guide

winter 2024

$$Ax = b$$

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

$$A = LU$$

$$PA = LU$$

$$A = QR$$

## Matrix Arithmetic

• addition / subtraction:

$$A = (a_{ij}) \quad B = (b_{ij}) \quad m \times n$$

$$A \pm B = (a_{ij} \pm b_{ij})$$

• scalar multiplication:

$$A = (a_{ij}) \quad \alpha \text{ is a scalar}$$

$$\alpha A = (\alpha a_{ij})$$

• matrix-vector multiplication:

$$A = (a_{ij}) \quad \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{F}^m$$

$$x \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

$$Ax = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i a_i \in \mathbb{F}^m$$

• matrix-matrix multiplication

$$A: m \times q \text{ matrix}$$

$$B: q \times n \text{ matrix with columns } b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{F}^q$$

$$AB = (Ab_1, Ab_2, \dots, Ab_n)$$

or if  $C=AB$ , we have that

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

## 2 special Matrices

$$\text{Zero matrix: } O_{m \times n} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$\text{Identity matrix: } I_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

For a  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ :

$$\bullet A + O = O + A = A$$

$$\bullet I_m A = A I_n = A$$

## Diagonal Matrix

$$A = \text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$$

## Transpose

The transpose of a matrix  $A$  is a matrix  $A^T$  whose  $(i, j)$  entry is the  $(j, i)$  entry of  $A$ .

$$A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n} \quad A^T = (a_{ji}) \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times m}$$

$$A^T = A \Rightarrow A \text{ is symmetric}$$

Some relations:

$$\bullet (A^T)^T = A$$

$$\bullet (A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$\bullet (\alpha A)^T = \alpha A^T$$

$$\bullet (AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

$$\bullet (A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$$

## Inverse

A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  is said to be invertible if  $\exists X \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  s.t.  $XA = AX = I_n$

$X$  is an inverse of  $A$ , write  $A^{-1}$

Proposition: The inverse of an invertible matrix is unique.

If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  invertible matrices, then we have

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

## Link to Linear Map

A function  $f: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$  is a linear map if:

$$\bullet f(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = f(\vec{x}) + f(\vec{y}) \quad \forall \vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

$$\bullet f(\alpha \vec{x}) = \alpha f(\vec{x}) \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}, \vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

Proposition: Let  $f: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$  be a linear map. Then  $\exists! A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$  s.t.  $f(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n$ . Conversely, if  $A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$  then  $f: \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$  is a linear map.

## Gaussian Elimination

To solve the system  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ , we can use Gaussian Elimination and backward substitution.

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \rightarrow \underbrace{(A|\vec{b})}_{\text{aug. matrix}} \xrightarrow{\text{E.R.O.}} \underbrace{(U|\vec{c})}_{\text{upper } \Delta} \rightarrow \underbrace{\vec{x} = U^{-1}\vec{c}}_{\text{backward substitution}}$$

We use elementary row operations to do Gaussian Elimination

- Add a multiple of a row to another
- Exchange two rows
- Multiply a row by a non-zero scalar

## Elementary Matrices

•  $E_{ij}(\alpha)$ : add  $\alpha$  times row  $j$  to row  $i$ ,  $i \neq j$

•  $E_{ij}$ : exchange row  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $i \neq j$

•  $E_i(\alpha)$ : multiply row  $i$  by  $\alpha \neq 0$

Each elementary matrix is invertible and the inverse is of the same type

$$\bullet E_{ij}(\alpha)^{-1} = E_{ij}(-\alpha)$$

$$\bullet E_{ij}^{-1} = E_{ij}$$

$$\bullet E_i(\alpha)^{-1} = E_i(\frac{1}{\alpha})$$

## LU Factorization

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, invertible and can be transformed into an upper-triangular matrix  $U$  using only elementary row operations of type I

$$E_k \dots E_2 E_1 A = U \Rightarrow A = LU, \quad L = (E_k \dots E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} \dots E_k^{-1}$$

To solve a linear system using LU factorization, we have

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \Leftrightarrow LU\vec{x} = \vec{b} = \begin{cases} L\vec{y} = \vec{b} & \text{forward sub.} \\ U\vec{x} = \vec{y} & \text{back. sub.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{We also get } \det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^n u_{ii}$$

Proposition: Let  $A$  be invertible. If  $A = LU$  then this decomposition is unique.

## Pivoting and Permutation

Definition: A matrix obtained from  $I$  by any row interchanges is called a permutation matrix

Equivalent Definition:  $A$  is a permutation matrix if each row and each column has exactly one 1, all the other entries being 0.

Proposition: Let  $P$  be a permutation matrix, then  $P$  is invertible and  $P^{-1} = P^T$ .

Theorem: Any invertible matrix  $A$  has a permuted LU factorization, namely  $PA = LU$

$P$ : permutation matrix

$L$ : lower unitriangular matrix

$U$ : Upper triangular matrix

We use the permuted LU factorization because sometimes row interchanges are necessary if the pivot is 0

## Partial Pivoting

Even if not needed, it is a good idea to use row interchanges

Let  $A^{(k-1)}$  be the matrix at step  $k$  of Gaussian elimination

Pick  $j$  s.t.  $|a_{jk}^{(k-1)}| = \max_{k \leq i \leq n} |a_{ik}^{(k-1)}|$  and do

$$R_j \leftrightarrow R_k$$

## LDV Factorization

Let  $A$  be invertible and assume  $A = LU$

$$A = LU = LDV \quad D = \text{diag}(u_{11}, u_{22}, \dots, u_{nn}) \quad V = D^{-1}U \text{ (upper uni-}\Delta\text{)}$$

Remark: i) If  $A = LDV$ , then  $A^T = (LDV)^T = V^T D^T L^T$

ii) If  $A^T = A$ , then  $A = LDL^T = V^T D V$

If  $A = LDV$  then

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \Leftrightarrow LDV\vec{x} = \vec{b} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} L\vec{y} = \vec{b} & \text{forward substitution} \\ D\vec{z} = \vec{y} & \text{'rescaling' } z_i = \frac{1}{d_i} y_i \\ V\vec{x} = \vec{z} & \text{backward substitution} \end{cases}$$

For permuted LDV factorization, we have  $PA = LDV$

## General Linear Systems

We can generalize LU decomposition to general matrix  $A$

$L$  is square lower unitriangular

$U$  is in row echelon form where:

• all nonzero rows are above zero rows

• for each nonzero row, the leading entry is strictly on the right of the leading entries of rows above it

Example:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is in row echelon form

## Inner Product

Let  $V$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . A map  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  is said to be an inner product if

$$i) \langle \alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle = \alpha \langle \vec{u}, \vec{w} \rangle + \beta \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle$$

$$\forall \vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$$

$$ii) \langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = \overline{\langle \vec{v}, \vec{u} \rangle} \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$$

$$iii) \langle \vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall \vec{u} \in V$$

$$\langle \vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle = 0 \text{ iff } \vec{u} = \vec{0}$$

From i) and ii), we get

$$\langle \vec{w}, \alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v} \rangle = \overline{\alpha \langle \vec{w}, \vec{u} \rangle + \beta \langle \vec{w}, \vec{v} \rangle}$$

## Vector Norm

Let  $V$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . A map  $\|\cdot\|: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be a norm if

$$i) \|\vec{u}\| \geq 0 \quad \forall \vec{u} \in V \text{ and } \|\vec{u}\| = 0 \text{ iff } \vec{u} = \vec{0}$$

$$ii) \|\alpha \vec{u}\| = |\alpha| \|\vec{u}\| \quad \forall \vec{u} \in V \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$$

$$iii) \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\| \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$$

Any inner product induce a norm

$$\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle}, \quad \vec{u} \in V$$

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: Let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  be an inner product on  $V$  and let  $\|\cdot\| = \sqrt{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle}$ . Then,

$$|\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle| \leq \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$$

p-norm: Let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . The p-norm on  $\mathbb{F}^n$  is defined by

$$\bullet \text{ if } p < \infty: \|\vec{x}\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}, \quad \vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

$$\bullet \text{ if } p = \infty: \|\vec{x}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i|$$

## Matrix Norm

Frobenius norm: Let  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$

$$\|A\|_F = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

Induced Matrix Norm: Let  $\|\cdot\|_a$  and  $\|\cdot\|_b$  be norms on  $\mathbb{F}^m$  and  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , respectively. Then

$$\|A\|_{a,b} = \sup_{\substack{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n \\ \|\vec{x}\|_a = 1}} \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|_b}{\|\vec{x}\|_a} = \sup_{\|\vec{x}\|_a = 1} \|A\vec{x}\|_b$$

Proposition: For any induced matrix norm, we have

$$i) \|A\vec{x}\| \leq \|A\| \|\vec{x}\| \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$$

$$ii) \|\vec{I}_n\| = 1$$

$$iii) \|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\| \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times k} \quad \forall B \in \mathbb{F}^{k \times n}$$

p-norm: let  $A \in \mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$  then

$$\forall 1 \leq p \leq \infty, \|A\|_p = \sup_{\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}} \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|_p}{\|\vec{x}\|_p}$$

Special cases for  $p=1$  and  $p=\infty$

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

$$\|A\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

## Conditioning

Let  $\|\cdot\|$  denote the vector norm and its induced matrix norm. Then for any nonsingular matrix  $A$  we define

$$\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$$

the condition number of  $A$

Properties:

$$\bullet \kappa(A) \geq 1$$

$$\bullet \forall A \in \mathbb{F}, \alpha \neq 0 \quad \kappa(\alpha A) = \kappa(A)$$

If  $\kappa(A) \gg 1$ , we say  $A$  is ill-conditioned (well-conditioned if  $\kappa(A)$  "close" to 1)

$\kappa(A)$  depends on norm:  $\kappa_1(A)$ ,  $\kappa_2(A)$ ,  $\kappa_\infty(A)$

## System Perturbation

$$\text{Exact system: } A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \quad (*)$$

$$\text{Perturbed system: } A\vec{x} = \vec{b} + \vec{\delta b} \quad (**)$$

Theorem: Let  $\vec{x}$  be the solution to  $(*)$  with  $\vec{b} \neq \vec{0}$  and let  $\vec{x}'$  be the solution to  $(**)$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{\kappa(A)} \frac{\|\vec{\delta b}\|}{\|\vec{b}\|} \leq \frac{\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} \leq \kappa(A) \frac{\|\vec{\delta b}\|}{\|\vec{b}\|}$$

## Positive Definite Matrices

A symmetric matrix  $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is said to be positive definite if

$$\vec{x}^T K \vec{x} > 0 \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$$

Theorem: Any inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is of the form

$$\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \vec{x}^T K \vec{y}$$

for some symmetric positive definite matrix  $K$

Remark:  $K$  positive definite  $\Rightarrow \det(K) > 0$

## Quadratic Forms

A function  $q: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of the form

$$q(\vec{x}) = q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} x_i x_j$$

is called a quadratic form.

Proposition: For any quadratic form on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists a unique symmetric matrix  $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  s.t.  $q(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T K \vec{x}$

## Determine Positive Definite

Method 1: Complete the square

Let  $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be symmetric

Then take its quadratic form  $q(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T K \vec{x}$  and expand it. Then complete the square.

If the quadratic form is strictly greater than 0 for all  $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$  and 0 for  $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ , then  $K$  is positive definite.

## Continued:

For a general  $2 \times 2$  matrix, let

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

Then  $K$  is positive definite iff  $a > 0$  and  $c - \frac{b^2}{a} > 0$

Method 2:  $LDL^T$  factorization

Theorem: A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric positive definite if and only if  $A = LDL^T$  with  $L$  lower uni  $\Delta$  and  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$  with  $d_{ii} > 0 \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$

## Conjugate Transpose

Definition: Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ . The conjugate transpose of  $A$ , written  $A^H$ , is

$$A^H = (\bar{A})^T \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$$

$$A = (a_{ij}), \quad A^H = (\bar{a}_{ji})$$

Properties:

$$\bullet (A+B)^H = A^H + B^H$$

$$\bullet (\alpha A)^H = \bar{\alpha} A^H$$

$$\bullet (A^H)^H = A$$

$$\bullet (AB)^H = B^H A^H$$

Definition: A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is said to be Hermitian if  $A^H = A$

If  $A = A^H$

$$\bullet a_{ii} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\bullet \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

Positive Definite Matrices: Complex Case  
Definition: A Hermitian matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is said to be positive definite if

$$\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} > 0 \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n, \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$$

For any inner product on  $\mathbb{C}^n$   $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  can be written  $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \vec{x}^T K \vec{y}$  for some  $K$  SPD

$A$  is HPD if  $A = LDL^H$ ,  $L$  lower unitriangular,  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $d_{ii} > 0$

## Cholesky Factorization

If  $A$  is HPD, then we can get the following decomposition:

$$A = LDL^H = (L\sqrt{D})(\sqrt{D}L^H) = MM^H$$

where  $M = L\sqrt{D}$ ,  $\sqrt{D} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{d_1}, \dots, \sqrt{d_n})$

This is called the Cholesky factorization

In practice, we don't go through Gaussian Elimination to get  $MM^H$

We can find  $m_{ij}$  using this algorithm

for  $j = 1, \dots, n$  do

$$m_{jj} = \sqrt{a_{jj} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} m_{jk} \overline{m_{jk}}}$$

for  $i = j+1, \dots, n$  do

$$m_{ij} = \frac{1}{m_{jj}} \left( a_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} m_{ik} \overline{m_{jk}} \right)$$

end for

end for

## Orthogonal and Orthonormal Basis

$V$  vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  inner product,  $\|\cdot\| = \sqrt{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle}$

Definition: we say that  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$  are orthogonal if  $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = 0$

we say that a set  $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$  is

• orthogonal if  $\langle \vec{v}_i, \vec{v}_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$

• orthonormal if  $\langle \vec{v}_i, \vec{v}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$

Proposition: If  $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$  is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors, then they are linearly independent