# MA1522 Linear Algebra for Computing

AY 24/25 Sem 1 — github/omgeta

# 1. Vector Spaces

A vector space V is a nonempty set of vectors with the following properties for all vectors  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$  and for all scalars c and d:

i. 
$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} \in V$$

ii. 
$$c\vec{u} \in V$$

iii. 
$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$$

iv. 
$$(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$$

v. 
$$\vec{0} \in V$$
 such that  $\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u}$ 

vi. 
$$c(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c\vec{u} + c\vec{v}$$

vii. 
$$(c+d)\vec{u} = c\vec{u} + d\vec{u}$$

viii. 
$$c(d\vec{u}) = (cd)\vec{u}$$

ix. 
$$1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$$

A subspace W of a vector space V is a subset with the following properties for all vectors  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in W$  and for all scalars c:

i. 
$$0 \in W$$
 (Includes zero vector)  
ii.  $\vec{u} + \vec{v} \in W$  (Closure over addition)  
iii.  $c\vec{u} \in W$  (Closure over multiplication)

A linear map from V to W is a function  $T: V \to W$  with the following properties for linear maps R, S, T and for all scalars c, d for which the following are defined:

i. 
$$S+T=T+S$$
 (Commutative)

ii.  $(R+S)+T=R+(S+T)$  (Associative)

iii.  $T+\mathbf{0}=T$  (Additive Identity)

iv.  $T+(-T)=\mathbf{0}$  (Additive Inverse)

v.  $c(dT)=(cd)T$  (Distributive)

vii.  $c(S+T)=cS+cT$  (Distributive)

viii.  $R(ST)=(RS)T$  (Associative)

ix.  $R(S+T)=RS+RT$  (Distributive)

x.  $(S+T)R=SR+TR$  (Distributive)

xi.  $c(ST)=(cS)T=S(cT)$  (Associative)

xii.  $TI=IT=T$  (Identity)

### 2. Vectors

For some vector  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

### **Linear Combinations**

For vectors  $\vec{v}_1, \ldots, \vec{v}_p \in V$  and scalars  $c_1, \ldots, c_p$ , the vector  $\vec{y}$  given by:

$$\vec{y} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \ldots + c_p \vec{v}_p$$

is a linear combination of  $\vec{v}_1, \ldots, \vec{v}_p$  with weights  $c_1, \ldots, c_p$ 

## Linear Span

For a set of vectors  $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\} \subseteq V$ ,  $\operatorname{Span}(S) \subseteq V$  denotes the set of all linear combinations of  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$  and is given by:

$$Span(S) = \{ \sum_{i=1}^{p} c_i \vec{v}_i | \vec{v}_i \in S, c_i \in K \}$$

## Linear Dependence

For a set of non-zero vectors  $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\} \subseteq V$ , S is linearly dependent if and only if some vector  $\vec{v}_i$  is a linear combination of the others. Any set  $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is linearly dependent if p > n.

A linearly independent set of vectors forms a matrix with a pivot position in every column.

### Basis

For a set of non-zero vectors  $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\} \subseteq V$ , S is a basis for  $W \subseteq V$  if:

- i. S is a linearly independent set, and
- ii. Span(S) = W

### 3. Matrices

For some matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , where  $a_{11}, \ldots, a_{mn} \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

For some matrices  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ :

$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b_1} & \cdots & \vec{b_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A\vec{b_1} & \cdots & A\vec{b_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

$$row_i(AB) = row_i(A) \cdot B$$

Additional properties:

- i.  $AB \neq BA$  in general (Not commutative)
- ii.  $\exists A, B \neq 0, AB = 0$  (Zero divisor)
- iii. A0 = 0A = 0 (Zero matrix)
- iv. A has zero row  $\implies AB$  has zero row
- v. B has zero column  $\implies AB$  has zero column

## Transpose

For some matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the transpose  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  is given by:

$$A_{ij}^T = A_j i$$
$$row_i(A^T) = column_i(A)$$

Properties:

i. 
$$(A^T)^T = A$$

ii. 
$$(cA)^T = cA^T$$

iii. 
$$(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

iv. 
$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

$$v. A^T A = 0 \iff A = 0$$

## Systems of Linear Equations

Systems of linear equations of the form:

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_n$$

can be expressed in the matrix-vector form,  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is the coefficient matrix and  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the solution vector:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

By finding the RREF of the augmented matrix, we can find the solution set for the original system.

## Row Equivalence

Two matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  are row equivalent if one can be changed to the other by a sequence of elementary row operations, that is:

$$B = E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_1 A \iff A \sim B$$

Elementary row operations:

- i. Add a multiple of a row to another row  $(R_n + cR_m)$
- ii. Scale a row by a nonzero constant  $(cR_n)$
- iii. Interchange two rows  $(R_n \leftrightarrow R_m)$

## **Row Echelon Forms**

A matrix is in row echelon form (REF) if:

- i. All nonzero rows are above all zero rows
- ii. Each pivot is to the right of the pivot of the row above it
- iii. All entries below a pivot are zeros

A matrix is in reduced row echelon form (RREF) if:

- i. All pivots are 1
- ii. All other entries in the pivot column are 0

#### Inverse

For some square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , A is invertible/nonsingular if there exists the inverse  $A^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that:

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$$

For matrix 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ 

Using row reduction, we can solve for  $A^{-1}$  by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & | & I \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{RREF} \begin{bmatrix} I & | & A^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties:

- i.  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$
- ii.  $(cA)^{-1} = c^{-1}A^{-1}$
- iii.  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- iv.  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- v.  $AB = AC \implies B = C$
- vi.  $BA = CA \implies B = C$

### Invertible Matrix Theorem

Let A be a  $n \times n$  matrix. The following statements are equivalent:

- i. A is invertible
- ii.  $A^T$  is invertible
- iii. A has a left inverse, C, such that CA = I
- iv. A has a right inverse, D, such that AD = I
- v. RREF of A is I
- vi. Columns of A form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- vii.  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$  has only the trivial solution
- viii.  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution,  $\forall \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- ix.  $Nul(A) = \{\mathbf{0}\} \iff nullity(A) = 0$
- x.  $Col(A) = \mathbb{R}^n \iff rank(A) = n$
- xi.  $det(A) \neq 0$
- xii. 0 is not an eigenvalue

#### Determinant

For some square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , the determinant  $\det(A)$  or |A| is given by:

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1 \text{ or } i=1}^{n} a_{ij} A_{ij}$$

where  $A_{ij}$  is the (i, j) cofactor of A given by:

$$A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij})$$

where  $M_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1)\times(n-1)}$  is the (i,j) matrix minor of A obtained by deleting the *i*th row and *j*th column of A.

For matrix 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\det(A) = ad - bc$ 

Properties:

- i.  $det(A^T) = det(A)$
- ii. det(AB) = det(A) det(B)
- iii.  $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$
- iv.  $det(cA) = c^n det(A)$
- v. If A is triangular, det(A) is the product of the entries on the main diagonal of A

For the elementary matrix  $E \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\det(A)$  is given by the type of elementary row operation:

- i.  $R_n + cR_m \implies \det(E) = 1$
- ii.  $cR_n \implies \det(E) = c$
- iii.  $R_n \leftrightarrow R_m \implies \det(E) = -1$

## Cramer's Rule

Let an invertible matrix A and any  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the unique solution of  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has it's entries given by:

$$x_i = \frac{\det(A_i(\vec{b}))}{\det(A)}$$

where  $A_i(\vec{b})$  is the matrix obtained by replacing column<sub>i</sub>(A) with  $\vec{b}$ .

## Adjoint

For some square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , the adjoint  $\operatorname{adj}(A)$  is given by:

$$\operatorname{adj}(A) = (A_{ij})^T = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & \cdots & A_{n_1} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{n_2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1n} & A_{2n} & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties:

- i.  $A \cdot \operatorname{adj}(A) = \det(A) \cdot I$
- ii. A is singular  $\iff$  adj(A) is singular
- iii. adj(AB) = adj(B) adj(A)
- iv.  $\det(\operatorname{adj}(A)) = \det(A)^{-1}$
- v.  $adj(cA) = c^{n-1} adj(A)$
- vi.  $adj(A^{-1}) = adj(A)^{-1}$
- vii.  $adj(adj(A)) = (det(A))^{n-2}A$

## Change of Basis

For bases  $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b_1}, \dots, \vec{b_n}\}$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\vec{c_1}, \dots, \vec{c_n}\}$  of a vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , there is a unique change of basis matrix  $P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{C}} = P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$
$$(P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}})^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{C}} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$
$$\implies (P_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}})^{-1} = P_{\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}}$$

where  $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  and  $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{C}}$  are the vector  $\vec{x}$  represented in the coordinate system used by the bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and mcC respectively.

Using row reduction, we can solve for  $P_{C \leftarrow B}$  by:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{c_1} & \cdots & \vec{c_n} & | & \vec{b_1} & \cdots & \vec{b_n} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{RREF} \begin{bmatrix} I & | & P_{C \leftarrow B} \end{bmatrix}$$

When converting from a basis  $\mathcal{B}$  to the standard basis  $\mathcal{E} = \{\vec{e_1}, \dots, \vec{e_n}\}$ , change of basis matrix  $P_{\mathcal{B}}$  is given by  $P_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b_1} \cdots \vec{b_n} \end{bmatrix}$  such that:

$$\vec{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} \left[ \vec{x} \right]_{\mathcal{B}}$$
$$(P_{\mathcal{B}})^{-1} \vec{x} = \left[ \vec{x} \right]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

## 4. Subspaces

## **Null Space**

For any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the null space  $\operatorname{Nul}(A) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the solution space to the homogenous equation  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$  given by:

$$Nul(A) = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n | A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \}$$

## Column Space

For any matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a_1} & \cdots & \vec{a_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the column space  $\operatorname{Col}(A) \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the set of all linear combinations of the columns of A given by:

$$\operatorname{Col}(A) = \operatorname{Span}(\{\vec{a_1}, \dots, \vec{a_n}\})$$
$$= \{\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m : A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \text{ for some } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

# Row Space

For any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the row space  $\text{Row}(A) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all linear combinations of the rows of A given by:

$$Row(A) = Col(A^T)$$

## Dimension

If a vector space V is spanned by a finite set, V is finite-dimensional and the dimension  $\dim(V)$  is the number of vectors in any basis for V.

$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = \dim(\operatorname{Col}(A)) = \dim(\operatorname{Row}(A))$$

$$= \operatorname{number} \text{ of pivot columns}$$

$$= \operatorname{number} \text{ of pivot rows}$$

$$\operatorname{nullity}(A) = \dim(\operatorname{Nul}(A))$$

$$= \operatorname{number} \text{ of free variables}$$

## Rank-Nullity Theorem

Rank and nullity of any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  satisfy the equation:

$$rank(A) + nullity(A) = number of columns in A$$

## 5. Eigenvectors

For some square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , the nonzero eigenvector  $\vec{x}$  and its corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$  satisfy the equation:

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$$

For some eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , the corresponding eigenvectors are found as the nontrivial solutions to  $(A - \lambda I) = 0$  as elements of the corresponding eigenspace of A.

A scalar  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue if and only if  $\lambda$  satisfies the characteristic equation:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

### 6. Dot Product

Dot product of two vectors,  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is given by:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \cdots & u_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= u_1 v_1 + \cdots + u_n v_n$$
$$= \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$ .

Length of  $\vec{v}$  is given by:

$$||v|| = \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$
  
 $||v||^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}$ 

Distance between  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  is given by:

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

Properties:

i. 
$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$$

ii. 
$$(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

iii. 
$$(c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = \vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{v})$$

iv. 
$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \ge 0$$
, and  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \iff \vec{u} = \vec{0}$ 

# 7. Orthogonality

Let  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be orthogonal vectors. The following statements are equivalent:

i. 
$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

ii. 
$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

iii. 
$$\operatorname{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \operatorname{dist}(\vec{u}, -\vec{v})$$

A set of vectors is orthogonal if all vectors are mutually orthogonal.

A set of vectors is orthonormal if it is orthogonal and every vector is a unit vector.

## **Orthogonal Basis**

An orthogonal set of nonzero vectors is linearly independent and a basis for the subspace it spans.

Any orthonormal set is automatically an orthonormal basis for the subspace it spans.

For any orthogonal basis  $S = \{\vec{u_1}, \dots, \vec{u_n}\}$  of subspace V:

$$\vec{v} = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u_1}}{\|u_1\|^2} \vec{u_1} + \dots + \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u_n}}{\|u_n\|^2} \vec{u_n}$$
$$[\vec{v}]_S = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u_1} / \|u_1\|^2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u_n} / \|u_n\|^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Orthogonal Matrix

For some square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , A is orthogonal if it has orthonormal columns (and equivalently rows) or:

$$A^T A = I$$
$$A^T = A^{-1}$$

Properties:

i. 
$$||U\vec{x}|| = ||\vec{x}||$$

ii. 
$$(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

iii. 
$$(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = 0 \iff \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$$

## Projection

For any two vectors  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the projection of  $\vec{y}$  onto  $\vec{x}$ , proj $_{\vec{x}}\vec{y}$ , is given by:

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\vec{x}} \vec{y} = (\vec{y} \cdot \hat{x})\hat{x}$$
$$= \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{x}}{\|\vec{x}^2\|} \vec{x}$$

For any vector  $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and subspace  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  with orthogonal basis  $\{\vec{v_1}, \dots, \vec{v_p}\}$ , the projection of  $\vec{y}$  onto W, proj<sub>w</sub>  $\vec{y}$  or  $\hat{y}$ , is given by:

$$\operatorname{proj}_{w} \vec{y} = \hat{y} = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{v_{1}}}{\|\vec{v_{1}}\|^{2}} \vec{v_{1}} + \dots + \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{v_{p}}}{\|\vec{v_{p}}\|^{2}} \vec{v_{p}}$$

#### Gram-Schmidt Process

Let  $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_p\}$  be a basis for a nonzero subspace  $W \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$v_1 = x_1$$

$$v_2 = x_2 - \frac{\vec{x_2} \cdot \vec{v_1}}{\|v_1\|^2} v_1$$

:

$$v_p = x_p - \frac{\vec{x_p} \cdot \vec{v_1}}{\|v_1\|^2} v_1 - \frac{\vec{x_p} \cdot \vec{v_2}}{\|v_2\|^2} v_2 - \dots - \frac{\vec{x_p} \cdot \vec{v_{p-1}}}{\|v_{p-1}\|^2} v_{p-1}$$

Then  $X' = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  is an orthogonal basis for W

## **Least Squares Approximation**

For any matrix equation  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , the vector  $\hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the least-squares solution such that:

$$\|\vec{b} - A\hat{x}\| \le \|\vec{b} - A\vec{x}\|, \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

with the least squares solution  $\hat{x}$  given by the solution set of:

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

### 8. Factorisations

#### LU Factorisation

Suppose matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  can be reduced to row echelon form U without row interchanges, then A can be factorised as:

$$A = LU$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ * & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ * & * & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} * & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$$

where upper triangular matrix  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is given by:

$$U = REF(A)$$
, without row interchanges  
=  $E_k ... E_1 A$ 

and unit lower triangular matrix  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is constructed from unit pivot columns of A (and additional columns of I if there are insufficient pivot columns) such that:

$$E_k \dots E_1 L = I$$

## **QR** Factorisation

Suppose matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has linearly independent columns (full column rank), then A can be factorised as:

$$A = QR$$

where orthogonal matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is constructed from orthonormal basis vectors for Col(A) given by:

Orthonormal Basis A' = Gram-Schmidt on A

$$Q = \left[ \vec{a_1'} \cdots \vec{a_n'} \right]$$

and invertible upper triangular matrix  $R = P_{A \to Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with positive diagonals given by:

$$R = Q^T A$$

ensuring R has positive diagonals by multiplying columns of Q by -1 as needed.

### Diagonalisation

Suppose matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  has n linearly independent eigenvectors  $\{\vec{v_1}, \dots, \vec{v_n}\}$ , then A can be diagonalised as:

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

where invertible change of basis matrix  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is constructed from the linearly independent eigenvectors of A such that:

$$P = \left[ \vec{v_1} \cdots \vec{v_n} \right]$$

and diagonal matrix  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is constructed from the corresponding eigenvalues of the eigenvectors chosen for the columns of P in the same order:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

## Orthogonal Diagonalisation

Suppose matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric, then A is orthogonally diagonalisable as:

$$A = PDP^T$$

where invertible change of basis matrix  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is also orthogonal.

A is symmetric  $\iff$  A is orthogonally diagonalisable.

# Spectral Theorem

A symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  has the following properties:

- i. A has n real eigenvalues, counting multiplicities
- ii. Dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue  $\lambda$  equals the multiplicity of  $\lambda$  as a root of the characteristic equation
- iii. Eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal, such that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal
- iv. A is orthogonally diagonalisable

## Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with rank r can be decomposed as:

$$A = U\Sigma V^T$$

where "diagonal" matrix  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is constructed with the decreasing r singular values  $\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}$  of A, for eigenvalues  $\sigma$  of the symmetric matrix  $A^T A$ , such that:

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} D & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \dots \ge \sigma_r$$

and orthogonal matrix  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is constructed with the corresponding right singular vectors of A, given by the corresponding unit eigenvectors  $\{\vec{v_1}, \dots, \vec{v_n}\}$  of  $A^T A$ , such that:

$$V = \left[ \vec{v_1} \cdots \vec{v_n} \right]$$

and orthogonal matrix  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is constructed with the corresponding left singular vectors of A, such that:

$$\vec{u_i} = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A \vec{v_i}$$

$$U = [\vec{u_1} \cdots \vec{u_m}]$$

During construction of U and V, if there are insufficient singular vectors to form an orthogonal matrix, additional orthonormal vectors can be formed from the Gram-Schmidt process.