# MA-110 Linear Algebra and Differential Equations

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#### Gram-Schmidt Process

By induction,

$$\begin{aligned} w_r &:= v_r - \operatorname{proj}_{\mathsf{Span}\{w_1, \dots w_{r-1}\}}(v_r) = \\ v_r - \operatorname{proj}_{w_1}(v_r) - \operatorname{proj}_{w_2}(v_r) - \dots - \operatorname{proj}_{w_{r-1}}(v_r) \\ &= v_r - \frac{w_1^T v_r}{\|w_1\|^2} w_1 - \frac{w_2^T v_r}{\|w_2\|^2} w_2 - \dots - \frac{w_{r-1}^T v_r}{\|w_{r-1}\|^2} w_{r-1} \end{aligned}$$

Now take  $q_1 = \frac{w_1}{\|w_1\|}$ ,  $q_2 = \frac{w_2}{\|w_2\|}$ , ...,  $q_r = \frac{w_r}{\|w_r\|}$ . Then  $\{q_1,\ldots,q_r\}$  is an orthonormal set and

 $W = \text{Span}\{v_1, \dots, v_r\} = \text{Span}\{w_1, \dots, w_r\} = \text{Span}\{q_1, \dots, q_r\}.$ 

In particular,  $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_r\}$  is an orthonormal basis for W.

**Exercise:** Show that if  $\{w_1, \ldots, w_r\}$  is an orthogonal set, then

$$\mathsf{proj}_{\mathsf{Span}\{w_1, \dots w_{i-1}\}}(v_i) = \mathsf{proj}_{w_1}(v_i) + \mathsf{proj}_{w_2}(v_i) + \dots + \mathsf{proj}_{w_{i-1}}(v_i).$$

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#### Gram-Schmidt Method: Example

Q: Let 
$$S = \left\{ v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -5 \\ 1 \\ 5 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix}, v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$
 and  $W =$ 

Span(S). Find an orthonormal basis for W.

**Exercise:** First verify that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  are linearly independent. (Check that rank of  $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{pmatrix}$  is 3). Hence S is a basis of W.

Use Gram-Schmidt method: 
$$w_1 = v_1$$
,  $w_2 = v_2 - \left(\frac{w_1^T v_2}{\|w_1\|^2}\right) w_1$ 

$$\Rightarrow w_2 = v_2 - \left(\frac{-15 + 1 - 5 - 21}{9 + 1 + 1 + 9}\right) w_1 = v_2 - \left(\frac{-40}{20}\right) w_1 = v_2 + 2w_1$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^T.$$

Observe:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2 \in \text{Span}\{w_1, w_2\}$ ,  $w_1$ ,  $w_2 \in \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2\} \Rightarrow \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2\} = \text{Span}\{w_1, w_2\}$ .

### Gram-Schmidt Method: Example (Contd.)

Recall 
$$w_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}^T$$
,  $w_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^T$ , and  $v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 8 \end{pmatrix}^T$ . (Check  $w_1^T w_2 = 0$ ).

Now  $w_3 = v_3 - \left(\frac{w_1^T v_3}{\|w_1\|^2}\right) w_1 - \left(\frac{w_2^T v_3}{\|w_2\|^2}\right) w_2 = v_3 - \left(\frac{3+1+2+24}{20}\right) w_1 - \left(\frac{1+3-6-8}{20}\right) w_2$ 

$$\Rightarrow w_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Check  $w_1^T w_3 = 0 = w_2^T w_3$  and  $Span\{v_1, v_2, v_3\} = Span\{w_1, w_2, w_3\}$ . Hence  $\{w_1, w_2, w_3\}$  is an orthogonal basis of W. An orthonormal basis for W is  $\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{20}}w_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{20}}w_2, \frac{1}{\sqrt{20}}w_3\right\}$ .

## Diagonalizing Symmetric Matrices: Example

Example: Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Then 
$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \text{ and }$$
 
$$\det(A - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)[(1 - \lambda)^2 - 1] - 1[1 - \lambda - 1] + 1[1 - (1 - \lambda)]$$
 
$$= (3 - \lambda)\lambda^2 \quad \text{Eigenvalues: } \lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = 0, \lambda_3 = 0.$$
 To find  $N(A - 3I)$ , solve  $A - 3I = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$   $N(A)$  is the plane  $x + y + z = 0$ . Hence, the associated eigenvectors are  $v_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$ ,  $v_2 = (-1, 0, 1)^T$  and

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 $v_3 = (0, -1, 1)^T$ .

#### Example: $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$

A has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1=3, \lambda_2=0, \lambda_3=0$  with associated eigenvectors  $v_1=(1,1,1)^T, \ v_2=(-1,0,1)^T$  and  $v_3=(0,-1,1)^T.$  Note that  $v_2$  and  $v_3$  are linearly independent in N(A). Observe  $v_1^Tv_2=0=v_1^Tv_3.$ 

How do we get an orthogonal Q such that  $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ , where  $\Lambda$  is diagonal with entries 3, 0, 0 on the diagonal?

**Steps:** 1. Let  $u_1 = v_1/||v_1||$ .

- 2. Start with the basis  $\{v_2, v_3\}$  of N(A), and apply the Gram-Schimdt process to get an orthonormal basis  $\{u_2, u_3\}$  for N(A). Note that  $u_2$  and  $u_3$  are eigenvectors of A associated to  $\lambda=0$ , and are linearly independent since they are non-zero orthogonal vectors.
- 3. Then  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \end{bmatrix}$  is orthogonal, and  $Q^{-1}AQ = \Lambda$ .
- 4. Since  $Q^{-1} = Q^{T}$ ,  $A = Q\Lambda Q^{T}$ .

## Diagonalizing Symmetric Matrices

Let A be a symmetric matrix, which is diagonalizable. Then there is an orthogonal matrix Q, and a diagonal matrix  $\Lambda$  such that  $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ .

Observe: Eignevectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

*Proof.* Let  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  be distinct eigenvalues of A with associated eigenvectors v and w repectively. Now,

$$\lambda(v^T w) = (\lambda v)^T w = (Av)^T w = v^T (A^T w) = v^T (Aw) = \mu(v^T w).$$
  
Since  $\lambda \neq \mu$ , this imples  $v^T w = 0$ , proving the result.

Step 1: Find the eigenvalues and the respective eigenvectors.

Step 2: Use Gram-Schmidt process to get an orthogonal basis for each eignespace.

Theorem: (Real Spectral Theorem)

Every symmetric matrix (with real entries) is diagonalizable, and hence decomposes as above.

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#### **QR** Factorization

Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 & \cdots & v_r \end{pmatrix}$  be an  $n \times r$  matrix of rank r. Then  $v_1, \ldots, v_r$  are linearly independent vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . By the Gram-Schmidt method, we get an orthonormal basis  $\{q_1, \ldots, q_r\}$  of C(A), where  $q_i = \frac{w_i}{\|w_i\|}$  and  $w_1 = v_1$ , and for k > 1,

$$w_k = v_k - \left(\frac{w_1^T v_k}{\|w_1\|^2}\right) w_1 - \dots - \left(\frac{w_{k-1}^T v_k}{\|w_{k-1}\|^2}\right) w_{k-1}.$$

Let 
$$Q = (q_1 \dots q_r)$$
. How are  $A$  and  $Q$  related?

Note that  $\text{Span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = \text{Span}\{w_1, \dots, w_k\} = \text{Span}\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}$  for all k. If  $v_k = c_1q_1 + \dots + c_kq_k$ , then  $c_1 = q_1^T v_k, \quad c_2 = q_2^T v_k, \quad \dots, \quad c_k = q_k^T v_k$ . Thus Hence  $v_k = (q_1^T v_k)q_1 + \dots + (q_k^T v_k)q_k$ .

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## QR factorization (Contd.)

$$v_k = (q_1^T v_k)q_1 + \ldots + (q_k^T v_k)q_k$$
 for each  $k$ .

Therefore

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_r \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_r \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_1^T v_1 & q_1^T v_2 & & q_1^T v_r \\ 0 & q_2^T v_2 & & q_2^T v_r \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & & q_r^T v_r \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e. A = QR, where the columns of Q form an orthonormal set and R is an invertible  $r \times r$  matrix. Q: Why is R invertible? This is called QR-factorization of A.

• If A is invertible  $n \times n$ , then A = QR, where Q is an orthogonal matrix and R is an invertible upper triangular matrix, both are  $n \times n$  matrices.

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