

## Discussion 2A/2B Notes

Week 1 : Jan. 10, 12

Notations .  $V$  : a vector space, usually  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $d=1,2,3,\dots$   
(over the field  $\mathbb{R}$ , unless specified)

- For a set  $S$ ,  $|S|$  denotes the number of elements in  $S$ .
- For a set  $S$ ,  $S^m$  denotes the Cartesian product

$$S^m = \underbrace{S \times S \times \dots \times S}_{m\text{-times}} := \{(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m) : s_i \in S \text{ for } i=1, \dots, m\}$$

- For sets  $A, B \subseteq V$ ,  $A \setminus B$  denotes  $A \cap B^c$ .

In particular,  $V \setminus \{0\}$  denotes the set of all nonzero vectors of  $V$ .

## Linear Independence

Def. Let  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subseteq V$ .

If  $\exists (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{0\}$  s.t.  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i v_i = 0$ ,  $S$  is said to be linearly dependent.

$S$  is said to be linearly independent iff it's not linearly dependent.

(That is,  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i v_i = 0$  admits only the trivial solution  $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_m = 0$ .)

Ex. If  $\dim V = d < \infty$  and  $m = |S| > d$ , then  $S$  is always linearly dependent.

In other words, if  $S$  is linearly independent, then  $|S| \leq d$ .

In fact, the above bound is tight. i.e.,  $\exists S \subseteq V$ , lin. indep., with  $|S| = \dim V$ .

e.g. When  $V = \mathbb{R}^d$ , choose  $S = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_d\}$  where

$$(e_i)_j = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases} \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i, j \leq d.$$

(These sequence of vectors  $(e_1, \dots, e_d)$  is called the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .)

In such a case, i.e.,  $|S| = \dim V$  and  $S$  is lin. indep., then

\*  $S$  spans  $V$ .

$$\text{i.e., } \text{span } S := \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^d a_i v_i : (a_1, \dots, a_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d, (v_1, \dots, v_d) \in S \right\} = V.$$

\* Moreover, each vector in  $V$  has a unique representation as a linear combination of  $S$ .

$$\text{i.e., } \forall v \in V, \exists! (a_1, \dots, a_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ s.t. } v = \sum_{i=1}^d a_i v_i.$$



## ⑨ Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

• Let  $A: V \rightarrow V$  be linear

(i.e.,  $\forall x, x' \in V$  and  $\forall c, c' \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $A(cx + c'x') = cAx + c'A x'$ .)

Def If a pair  $(\lambda, v) \in \mathbb{F} \times (V \setminus \{0\})$  <sup>non-zero vectors only!</sup> satisfies  $Av = \lambda v$ ,  
 $v$  is said to be an eigenvector of  $A$ , and  
 $\lambda$  is said to be an eigenvalue of  $A$  (associated with  $v$ .)

Understanding the meaning of eigenvectors/eigenvalues is extremely important (beyond the simple definition " $Av = \lambda v$ ".)

Let  $(\lambda_1, v_1), \dots, (\lambda_d, v_d)$  are eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs for  $A$ .

If  $v_1, \dots, v_d$  are linearly independent, then  $\{v_1, \dots, v_d\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and thus

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad \exists (a_1, \dots, a_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ s.t. } x = \sum_{i=1}^d a_i v_i.$$

$$\text{Then, } Ax = A\left(\sum_{i=1}^d a_i v_i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d a_i (Av_i) \quad (\text{linearity})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^d a_i \lambda_i v_i \quad (\text{eigenvectors})$$

and this is a simple linear combination of  $v_i$ 's, instead of a (possibly) complicated map  $A$ .

Thus, applying  $A$  to  $x$  can be understood as

$$\text{Step ① finding } (a_1, \dots, a_d) \text{ s.t. } x = \sum_{i=1}^d a_i v_i \quad (*)$$

$$\text{Step ② Recovering a lin. comb. } \sum_{i=1}^d a_i \lambda_i v_i.$$

In general step ① is more difficult. However, it is still straight forward, because  $(*)$  means

$$x = Pa, \quad \text{where } P = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_d \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}_{d \times d}, \quad a = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Therefore,  $a$  is simply  $P^{-1}x$ . Then Step ② becomes applying the following map to the coefficients:

$$D: \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 a_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_d a_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Fortunately, this linear transformation can be represented by a very simple matrix:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

Finally, recovering a linear combination is just multiplying  $P$  again because

$$P: \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^d c_i v_i.$$

Thus,  $Ax = P D P^{-1} x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , i.e.,  $A = P D P^{-1}$  and it's called a diagonalization of  $A$ .

Note. If  $A$  is real and symmetric, i.e.,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  and  $A^T = A$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} A \text{ is diagonalizable by orthogonal matrices.} &\Leftrightarrow P \text{ is orthogonal} \Leftrightarrow P^{-1} = P^T \\ &\Leftrightarrow \langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

• Remember that we assumed that  $\{v_1, \dots, v_d\}$  is linearly independent.

Otherwise, we can't find a diagonalization of  $A$  and things can get complicated.

However, the Jordan normal form of  $A$  still always exists:

$$A = P J P^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad J = \text{e.g.} \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{\lambda_1} & & \\ & \boxed{\lambda_1} & \\ & & \boxed{\lambda_2} & \dots \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{a block diagonal matrix,} \\ \text{consists of "Jordan blocks".} \end{array}$$

$$\text{and } P = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ v_1 & \dots & v_d \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } v_i \text{'s are generalized eigenvectors.}$$



## Linear ODEs

First recall that in 1-D, the general solution to a linear ODE

$$f'(x) = c f(x)$$

is  $f(x) = A e^{cx}$ , where  $A$  is a constant determined by other conditions

(e.g. initial condition  $f(x_0)$ ):  $f(x) = f(x_0) e^{c(x-x_0)}$  — (\*)

An analogy can be made in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , too. Consider

$$(**) \quad \dot{x}(t) = A x(t)$$

where  $x: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is a constant matrix.  
 $t \mapsto x(t)$

If  $A$  is diagonalizable,  $A = P D P^{-1}$  and (\*\*) can be re-written with the change of variables  $y(t) := P^{-1} x(t)$ :

$$(***) \quad \dot{y} = D y$$

Unlike (\*), (\*\*\*) is very easy to solve because the system of ODEs (i.e.  $y_i$ 's) is now decoupled:

$$(***) \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \dot{y}_1 = \lambda_1 y_1 \\ \dot{y}_2 = \lambda_2 y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \dot{y}_d = \lambda_d y_d \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow y_i = y_i(0) e^{\lambda_i t} \Leftrightarrow y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{\lambda_d t} \end{bmatrix} y(0)$$

Now, we define the **matrix exponential** for diagonal matrices  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_d \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{\lambda_d t} \end{bmatrix}$  and

write  $y(t) = e^{D t} y(0)$ .

Finally, recover  $x(t)$  by  $P y(t) \Rightarrow x(t) = P e^{D t} P^{-1} x(0)$ .

If we define the matrix exponential by Taylor series:  $e^A := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!}$  for  $A$  where the series converges, then if  $A = P D P^{-1}$ ,  $A^n = P D^n P^{-1}$  and we have  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^n}{n!} = P \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{D^n}{n!} P^{-1} = P e^{D t} P^{-1}$ , and this coincides with the def. of matrix exp. for diagonal matrices.

Moreover, we can also write  $x(t) = e^{A t} x(0)$ , which generalizes (\*).  $\square$