Topics in Analysis and Linear Algebra

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Chapter 4. Topics in linear algebra

What is a vector space?

1. $\mathbb{R}^n$
2. Polynomials of order at most n:

$$\{a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n | a_i \in \mathbb{R},\ i = 1, \cdots, n\}$$

3. The set of $m \times n$ matrices.
4. The set of continuous functions on $[0,1]$, i.e., $C([0,1])$.
5. The set of functions on $[0,1]$ having nth continuous derivatives, i.e., $C^n([0,1])$.

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Def. Let V be a nonempty set of objects with two operations: vector addition and scalar multiplication.

Then V is called a ***vector space*** if it satisfies the following:

Axioms of Addition
and
Axioms of Scalar Multiplication.

The elements of V are called ***vectors***.

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Axioms of addition

A1. V is closed under addition.
$\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \vec{u} + \vec{v} \in V$

A2. Addition is commutative.
$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$ for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$.

A3. Addition is associative.
$(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$ for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$.

A4. Existence of an additive identity.
There exists an element $\vec{0}$ in V so that $\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u}$ for all $\vec{u} \in V$.

A5. Existence of an additive inverse.
For each $\vec{u} \in V$ there exists an element $-\vec{u} \in V$ so that $\vec{u} + (-\vec{u}) = 0$.

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Axioms of scalar multiplication

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$\vec{v} \in V$ and $k \in \mathbb{R}, \implies k\vec{v} \in V$.

S2. Scalar multiplication distributes over vector addition.
$a(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = a\vec{u} + a\vec{v}$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$.

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$$\vec{u} - \vec{v} = \vec{u} + (-\vec{v})$$

(where $-\vec{v}$ is the additive inverse of $\vec{v}$).

Thm Let V be a vector space, $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$, and $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Examples

E.g.1 Let $V = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$, with addition $\oplus$ and scalar multiplication $\odot$ defined as follows:

For $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in V$, and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$:

Addition: $(x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2 + 1)$.

Scalar multiplication: $a \odot (x_1, y_1) = (ax_1, ay_1 + a - 1)$.

Show that V, with addition and scalar multiplication as defined, is a vector space.

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Show that V, with addition and scalar multiplication as defined, is a vector space.

Sol. It is clear that V is closed under $\oplus$ and $\odot$, since both operations produce ordered pairs of real numbers.

1. It is routine to verify that $\oplus$ is commutative and associative.
2. What is the additive identity?
3. What is the additive inverse of $(x, y) \in V$?
4. Verify that $(a + b) \odot (x_1, y_1) = (a \odot (x_1, y_1)) \oplus (b \odot (x_1, y_1))$.
5. Verify that $a \odot ((x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2)) = (a \odot (x_1, y_1)) \oplus (a \odot (x_2, y_2))$.
6. Verify that $a \odot (b \odot (x_1, y_1)) = (ab) \odot (x_1, y_1)$.
7. Verify that $1 \odot (x, y) = (x, y)$. $\square$

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E.g.2 Let $\mathbb{R}_+$ be the set of positive reals.

Let the addition $\oplus$ and the scalar multiplication $\odot$ defined as follows:

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}_+$, and $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

Addition: $x \oplus y = xy$.

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Prove that $\mathbb{R}_+$ equipped with $\oplus$ and $\odot$ is a vector space.

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E.g.3 Let $C([0,1])$ be the set of continuous functions defined on $[0,1]$ equipped with usual addition and scalar multiplication. Prove that $C([0,1])$ is a vector space.

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E.g.5 The set of $m \times n$ matrices M_{mn}.

E.g.6 Polynomials of degree n.

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E.g.6 Polynomials of degree n.

E.g. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ has two eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 5$ with corresponding eigenvectors

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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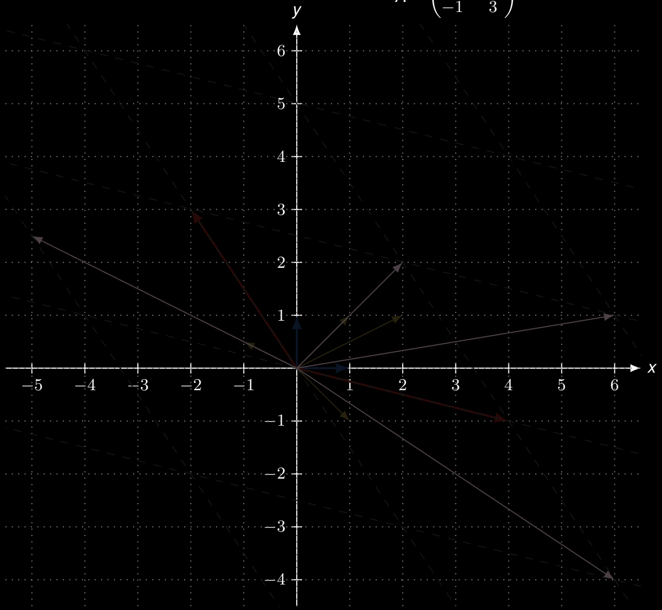

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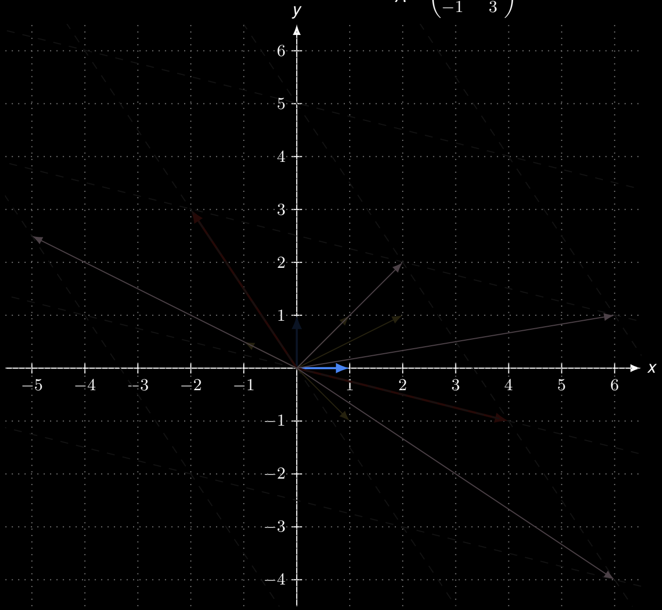

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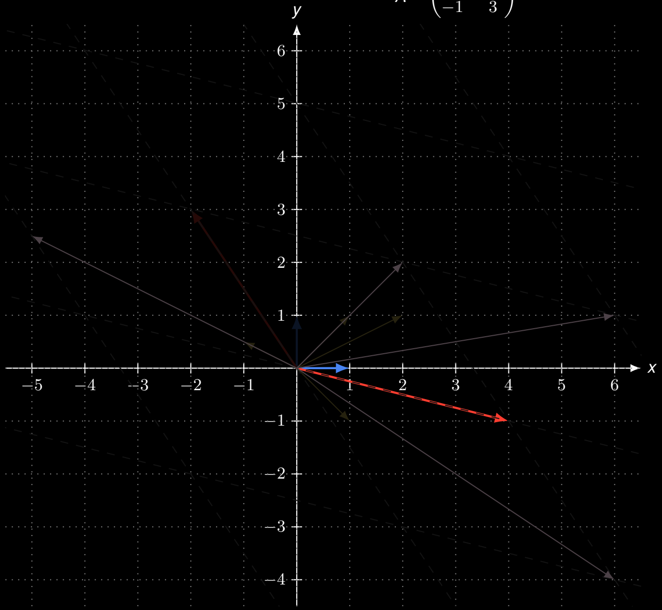

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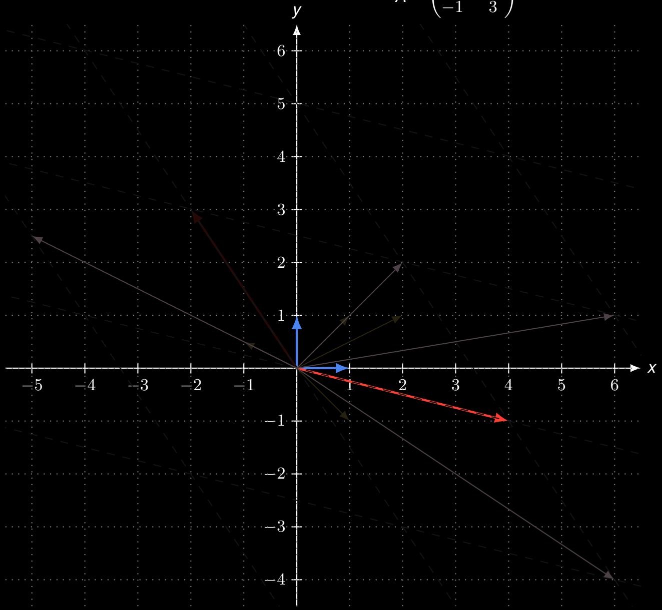

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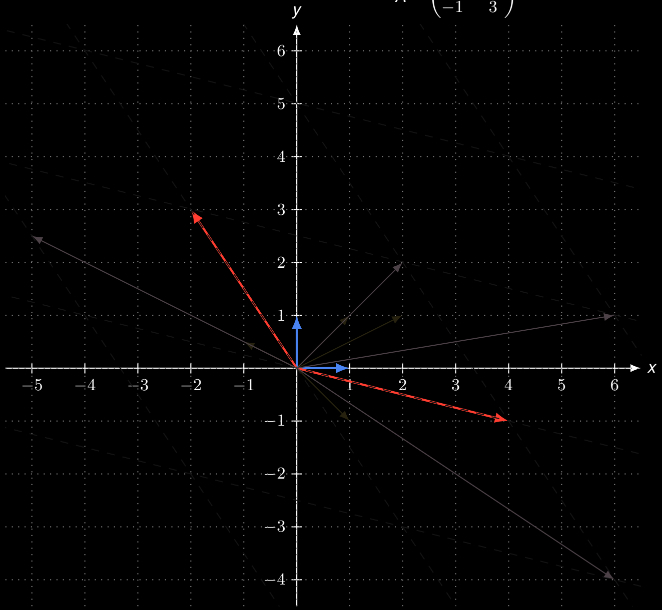

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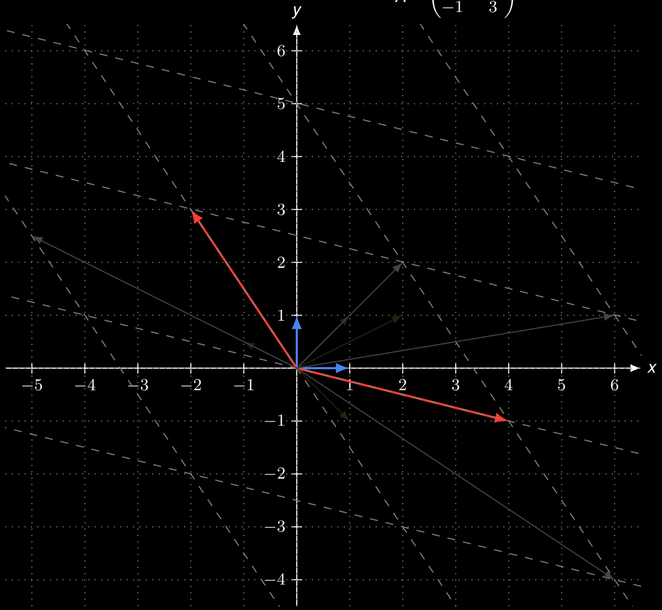

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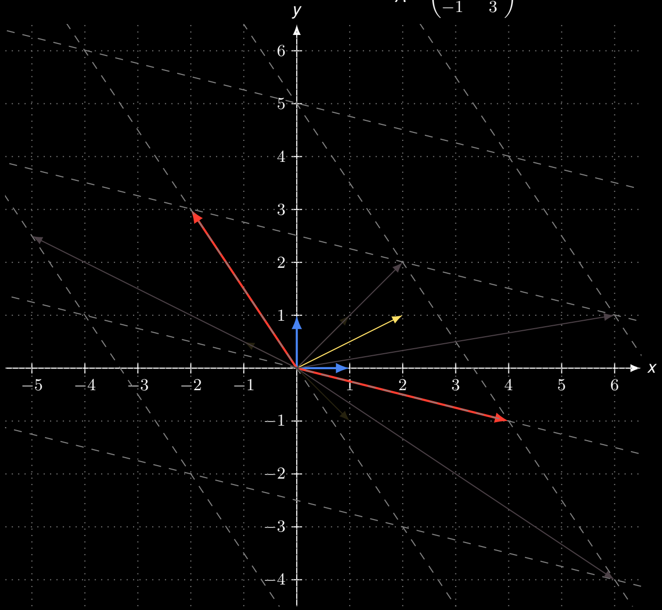

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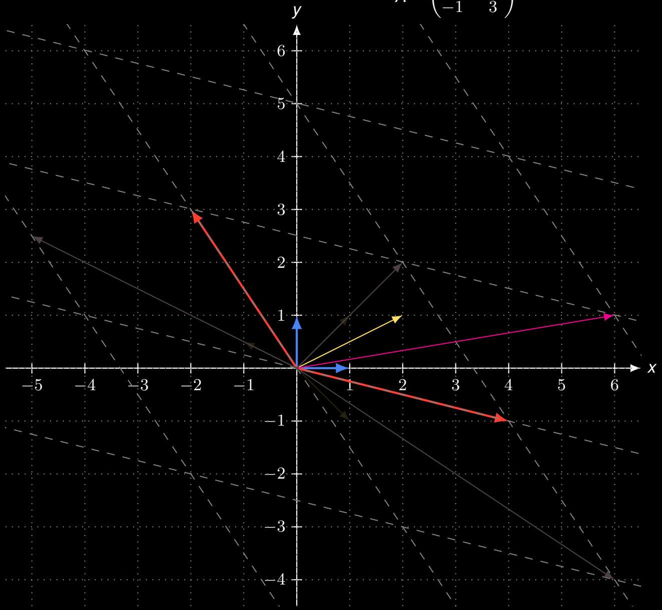

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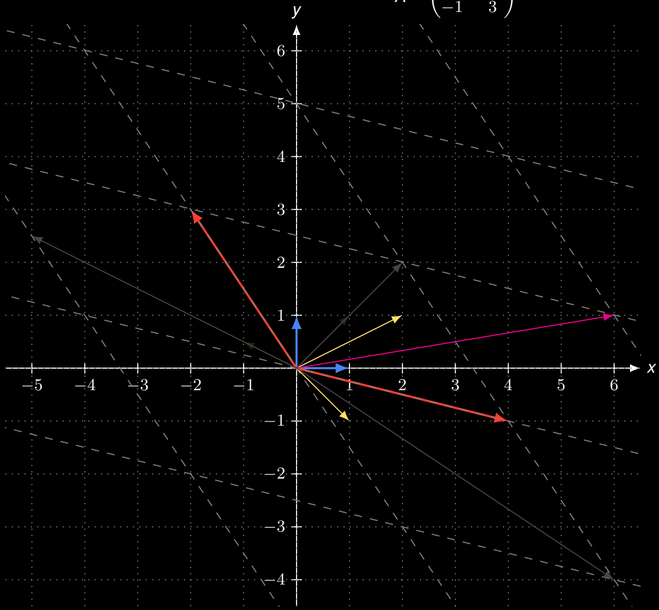

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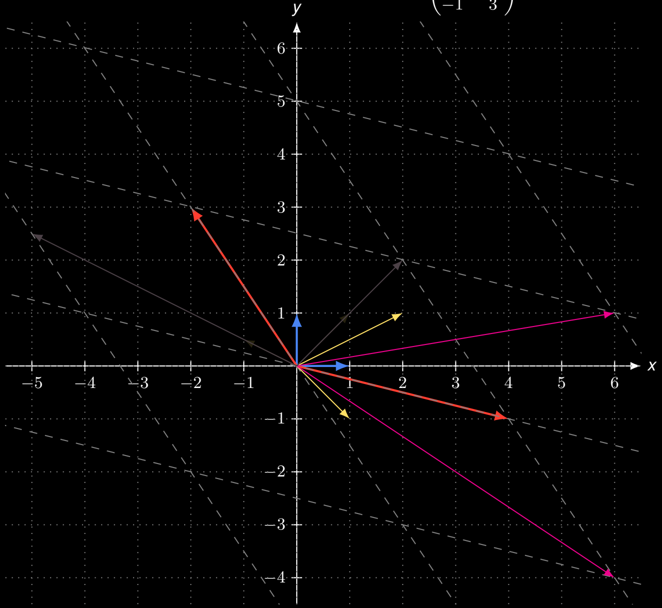

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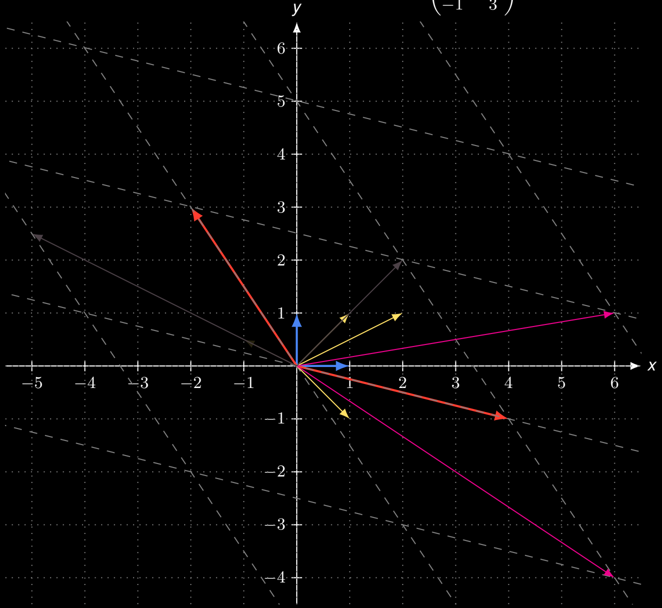

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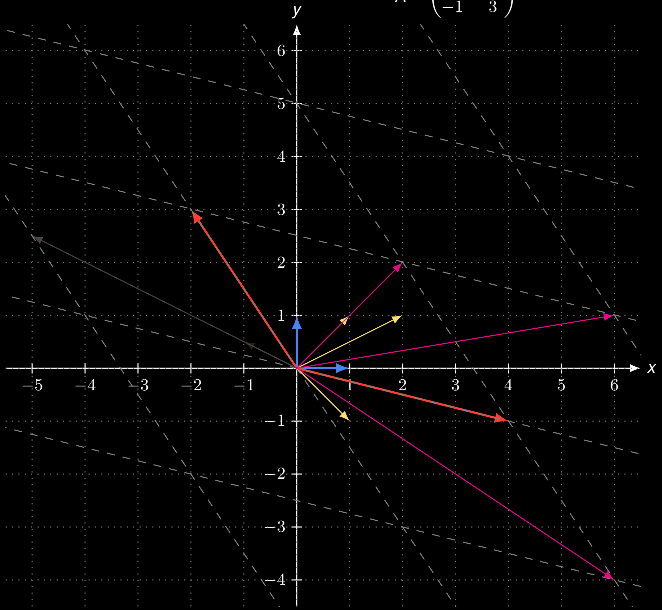

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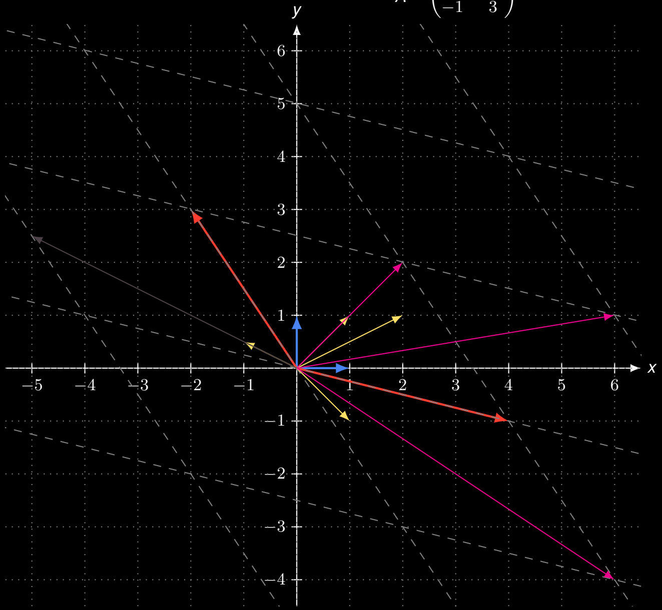

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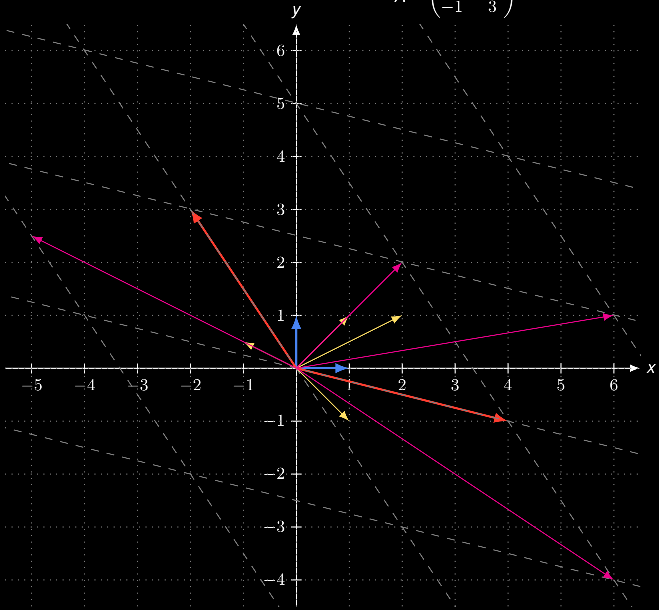

Def. Let A be a 2×2 matrix and L a line in $\mathbb{R}^2$ through the origin. Then L is said to be A-invariant if the vector $A\vec{x}$ lies in L whenever $\vec{x}$ lies in L,

i.e., $A\vec{x}$ is a scalar multiple of $\vec{x}$,
i.e., $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ for some scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$,
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Def. Let $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ be a nonzero vector in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Then $L_{\vec{v}}$ is the set of all scalar multiples of $\vec{v}$, i.e.,

$$L_{\vec{v}} = \mathbb{R}\vec{v} = \{t\vec{v} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Thm Let A be a 2×2 matrix and let $\vec{v} \neq 0$ be a vector in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Then $L_{\vec{v}}$ is A-invariant if and only if $\vec{v}$ is an eigenvector of A.

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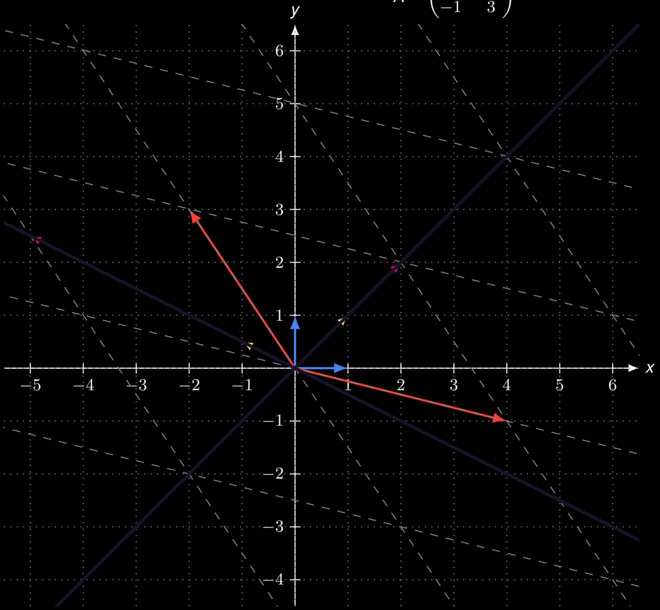

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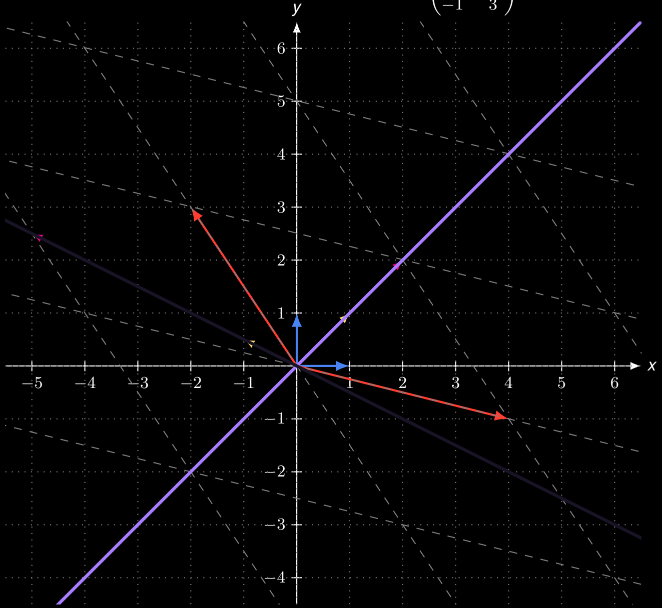

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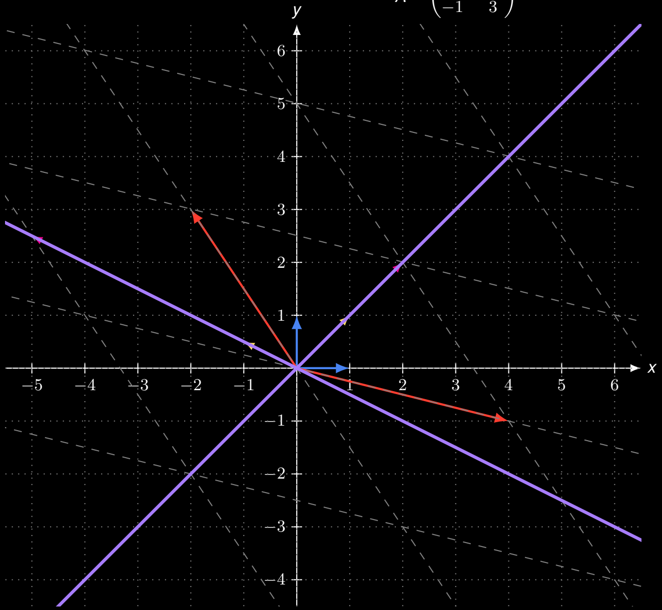
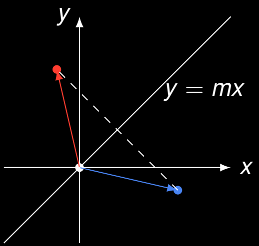


E.g. Let $m \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider the linear transformation $Q_m : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$, i.e., reflection in the line $y = mx$.

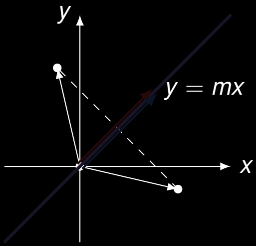


Recall that this is a matrix transformation induced by

$$A = \frac{1}{1+m^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1-m^2 & 2m \\ 2m & m^2-1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find the lines that pass through origin and are A-invariant. Determine corresponding eigenvalues.

Sol.



Let $\vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}$. Then $L_{\vec{x}_1}$ is A-invariant, that is, $\vec{x}_1$ is an eigenvector. Since the vector won't change, its eigenvalue should be 1. Indeed, one can verify that

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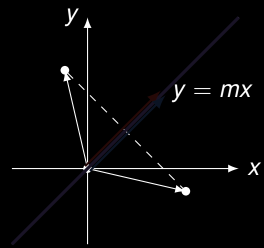

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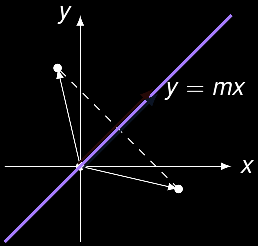

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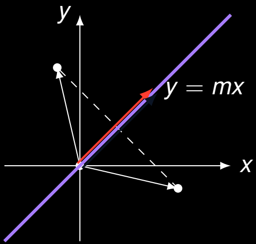

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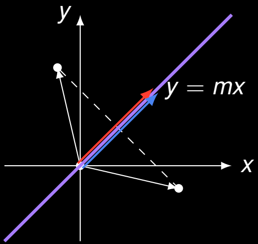

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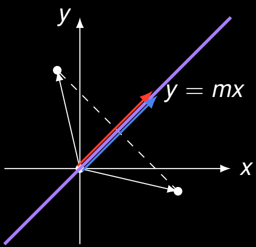

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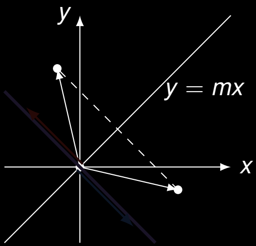
Sol. (Continued)



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Since the vector won't change the size, only flip the direction, its eigenvalue should be -1. Indeed, one can verify that

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$\square$

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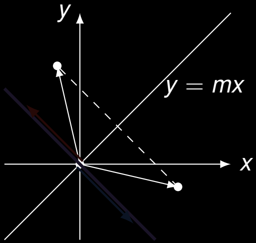

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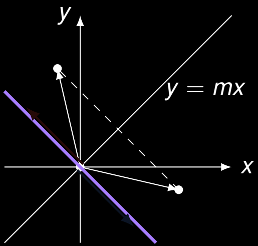

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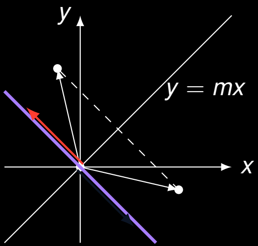
Sol. (Continued)



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Since the vector won't change the size, only flip the direction, its eigenvalue should be -1. Indeed, one can verify that

$$A\vec{x}_2 = \frac{1}{1+m^2}\begin{bmatrix} 1-m^2 & 2m \\ 2m & m^2-1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} -m \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \cdots = \begin{pmatrix} m \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = -\vec{x}_2.$$

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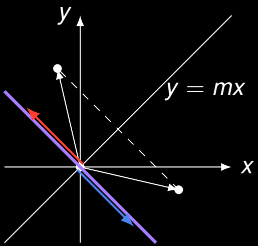

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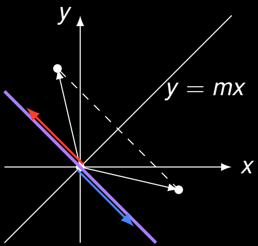

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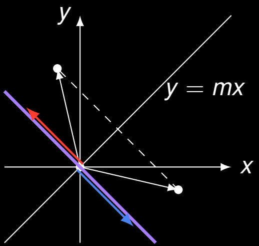

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E.g. Let θ be a real number, and $R_\theta : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ rotation through an angle of θ, induced by the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

Claim A has no real eigenvalues unless θ is an integer multiple of π, i.e., $\pm\pi, \pm2\pi, \pm3\pi$, etc.

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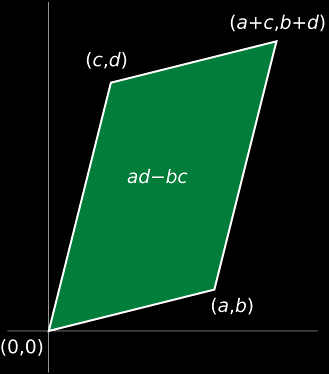
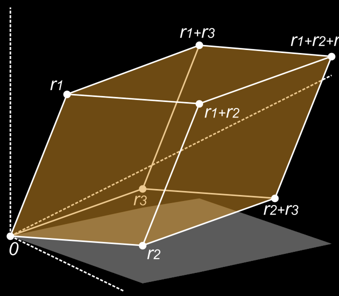
§ 4.1 Abstract vector spaces

§ 4.2 Geometric Interpretation of Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

§ 4.3 Determinant



$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = \text{signed area of parallelogram}$$



$$\det\begin{pmatrix}\vec{r}_1 & \vec{r}_2 & \vec{r}_3\end{pmatrix} = \text{signed volume of the parallelepipe}$$

Cofactor and cofactor expansion

Def. Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be an $n \times n$ matrix.

– The sign of the (i, j) position is $(-1)^{i+j}$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + & \cdots \\ - & + & - & \cdots \\ + & - & + & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Let A_{ij} denote the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained from A by deleting row i and column j. The (i,j)-cofactor of A is

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

- The determinant of A is defined as

$$\det A = a_{11}c_{11}(A) + a_{12}c_{12}(A) + a_{13}c_{13}(A) + \cdots + a_{1n}c_{1n}(A)$$

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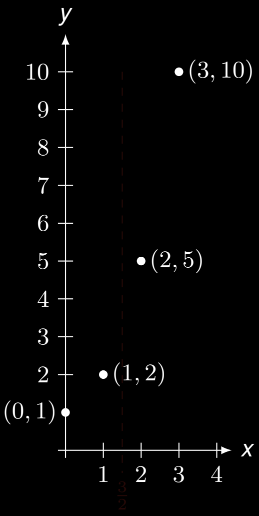
Problem Given data points $(0,1)$, $(1,2)$, $(2,5)$ and $(3,10)$, find an interpolating polynomial $p(x)$ of degree at most three, and then estimate the value of y corresponding to $x = 3/2$.



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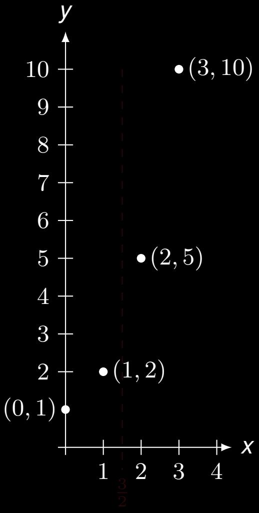

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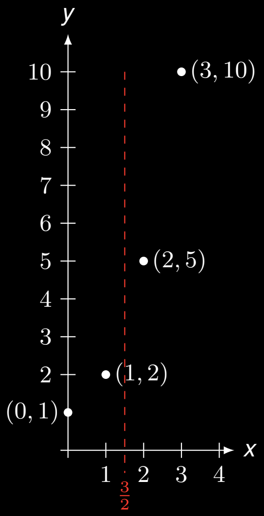

Sol. We want to find the coefficients r_0, r_1, r_2 and r_3 of

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + r_3 x^3$$

so that $p(0) = 1$, $p(1) = 2$, $p(2) = 5$, and $p(3) = 10$.

$$\begin{aligned}
p(0) &= r_0 = 1 \\
p(1) &= r_0 + r_1 + r_2 + r_3 = 2 \\
p(2) &= r_0 + 2r_1 + 4r_2 + 8r_3 = 5 \\
p(3) &= r_0 + 3r_1 + 9r_2 + 27r_3 = 10
\end{aligned}$$

Solve this system of four equations in the four variables r_0, r_1, r_2 and r_3.

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 & 10 \end{array}\right] \to \cdots \to \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right]$$

Therefore, $r_0 = 1$, $r_1 = 0$, $r_2 = 1$, $r_3 = 0$, and so

$$p(x) = 1 + x^2.$$

Finally, the estimate is

$$y = p\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 1 + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{13}{4}.$$

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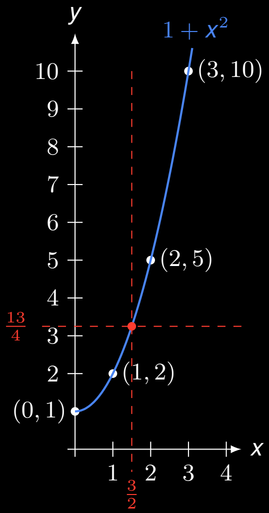

y
$1 + x^2$
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
$\frac{13}{4}$
$(3, 10)$
$(2, 5)$
$(1, 2)$
$(0, 1)$
x
1
2
3
4
$\frac{3}{2}$

Thm (Polynomial Interpolation)

Given n data points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ with the x_i distinct, there is a unique polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

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To find $p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$, set up a system of n linear equations in the n variables $r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_{n-1}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
r_0 + r_1 x_1 + r_2 x_1^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1} x_1^{n-1} &= y_1 \\
r_0 + r_1 x_2 + r_2 x_2^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1} x_2^{n-1} &= y_2 \\
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\vdots \qquad\qquad & \vdots \quad \vdots \\
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The coefficient matrix for this system is

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Let $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ be real numbers, $n \geq 2$. The corresponding Vandermonde determinant is

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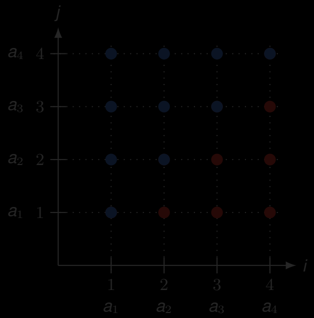

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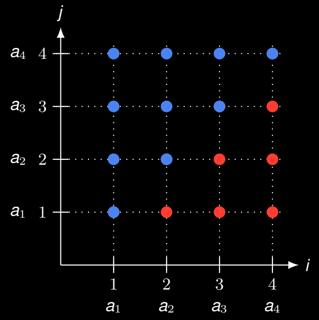

Proof. We will prove this by induction. It is clear that when $n = 2$,

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_1 \\ 1 & a_2 \end{pmatrix} = a_2 - a_1 = \prod_{1 \le j < i \le 2} (a_i - a_j).$$

Assume that it is true for $n - 1$. Now let's consider the case n. Denote

$$p(x) := \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \\ 1 & x & x^2 & \cdots & x^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Because $p(a_1) = \cdots = p(a_{n-1}) = 0$ (why?), $p(x)$ has to take the following form:

$$p(x) = c(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \cdots (x - a_{n-1}).$$

To identify the constant c, notice that c is the coefficient for x^{n-1}. By cofactor expansion of the determinant along the last row,

$$\begin{aligned} c &= (-1)^{n+n} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & a_2 & a_2^2 & \cdots & a_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{n-1} & a_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & a_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \prod_{1 \le j < i \le n-1} (a_i - a_j). \end{aligned}$$

Because $p(a_1) = \cdots = p(a_{n-1}) = 0$ (why?), $p(x)$ has to take the following form:

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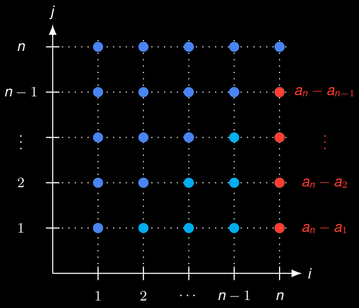
Hence,

$$p(a_n) = \left(\prod_{1 \le j < i \le n-1} (a_i - a_j) \right) \times (a_n - a_1)(a_n - a_2) \cdots (a_n - a_{n-1})$$



$$p(a_n) = \prod_{1 \le j < i \le n} (a_i - a_j).$$

$\square$

E.g. In our earlier example with the data points $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 5)$ and $(3, 10)$, we have

$$a_1 = 0, \quad a_2 = 1, \quad a_3 = 2, \quad a_4 = 3$$

giving us the *Vandermonde* determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 & 27 \end{vmatrix}$$

According to the previous theorem, this determinant is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} &(a_2 - a_1)(a_3 - a_1)(a_3 - a_2)(a_4 - a_1)(a_4 - a_2)(a_4 - a_3) \\ =&(1 - 0)(2 - 0)(2 - 1)(3 - 0)(3 - 1)(3 - 2) \\ =&2 \times 3 \times 2 \\ =&12. \end{aligned}$$

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Corr. The Vandermonde determinant is nonzero if $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ are distinct.

This means that given n data points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ with distinct x_i, then there is a unique interpolating polynomial

$$p(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + \cdots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}.$$

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