

ROB 101 - Computational Linear Algebra

Recitation #5

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1 Linear Independence and Dependence (review + pro tips)

Definition: The set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is **linearly dependent** if there exist real numbers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m \in \mathbb{R}$ NOT ALL ZERO yielding a linear combination of vectors that adds up to the zero vector, that is:

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_m v_m = 0_{n \times 1}$$

Conversely, the set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is **linearly independent** if the **only** real numbers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m \in \mathbb{R}$ yielding a linear combination of vectors that adds up to the zero vector

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_m v_m = 0_{n \times 1}$$

are zeros: $\alpha_1 = 0, \alpha_2 = 0, \dots, \alpha_m = 0$

Pro Tip: The following statements regarding linear independence are equivalent:

- The set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.
- The $m \times m$ matrix $A^T \cdot A$ is invertible. That is, it is possible to find $(A^T \cdot A)^{-1}$
- $\det(A^T \cdot A) \neq 0$.
- For any LU Factorization $P \cdot (A^T \cdot A) = L \cdot U$ of $A^T \cdot A$, the $m \times m$ upper triangular matrix U has no zeros on its diagonal.

2 Subspaces

Definition: A subspace of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying the following conditions:

- **Non-emptiness:** The zero vector is in V
- **Closure under addition:** If vectors u and v are in V , then $u + v$ is also in V
- **Closure under scalar multiplication:** If vector v is in V and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then cv is also in V

Remark 1: The last two requirements can be combined to give rise to a property known as **closure under linear combination**, that if vectors u and v are in V , then $\alpha u + \beta v$ is also in V where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

Remark 2: The set \mathbb{R}^n is a subspace of itself: it contains the zero vector, and is closed under linear combination (you can take the linear combination of any vectors in the set and form a new vector still in the set).

Subsets versus Subspaces: A subset of \mathbb{R}^n is any collection of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n whatsoever. For instance, the set of vectors defined by the unit circle $c = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ is a subset of \mathbb{R}^2 but it is not a subspace. A subspace is a subset that happens to satisfy the above three additional defining properties. Verify for yourself that the unit circle is in fact not a subspace using the properties. A subspace of \mathbb{R}^n is necessarily a subset of \mathbb{R}^n by definition, but a subset of \mathbb{R}^n is not necessarily a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

2.1 Null Space of a Matrix

Definition: The null space of an $n \times m$ matrix A is:

$$\text{null}(A) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid Ax = 0_{n \times 1}\}$$

or the set of all solutions $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ that result in Ax equalling the zero vector or "null vector".

Remark: $\text{null}(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m

Question? What is a null space of a matrix and why is it important?

Source: FAQ Questions <https://umich.instructure.com/courses/475066/files/folder/HW/HW%2006>

2.2 Span of a Set of Vectors

Definition: The span of a set of vectors $S \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is:

$$\text{span}(S) := \{\text{all possible linear combinations of elements in } S\}$$

The span operation is useful for generating a subspace from an arbitrary set vectors in \mathbb{R}^n by the definition of the span (contains zero vector and is closed under linear combination). That is, the result of $\text{span}(S)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

2.3 Column Span of a Matrix

Definition: The column span of an $n \times m$ matrix A is:

$$\text{col}(A) := \text{span}(\{a_1^{\text{col}}, a_2^{\text{col}}, \dots, a_m^{\text{col}}\})$$

i.e., take the columns of matrix A and form a set S containing m vectors in \mathbb{R}^n ($\{a_1^{\text{col}}, a_2^{\text{col}}, \dots, a_m^{\text{col}}\}$) to perform the $\text{span}(S)$ operation.

Remark: $Ax = b$ has a solution if, and only if, b is a linear combination of the columns of A . A more elegant way to write this is $Ax = b$ has a solution if, and only if,

$$b \in \text{col}(A)$$

2.4 Basis Vectors

Definition: Suppose that V is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ is a basis for V if

- the set $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ is linearly independent
- $\text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} = V$

The dimension of V is k , the number of basis vectors.

Remark: Basis vectors provide a simple means to generate all vectors in a vector space or a subspace by forming linear combinations from a finite list of vectors. The three vectors commonly seen in vector calculus physics $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$ are orthonormal basis vectors!

3 QR factorization & Gram Schmidt Process

3.1 The Gram Schmidt Process

Motivation: Applying Gram-Schmidt to the columns of a matrix yields the QR Factorization, which is one of the most advanced numerical methods for solving systems of linear equations.

Suppose that the set of vectors $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$ is linearly independent. You can generate a new set of orthonormal vectors by

$$\begin{aligned}v_1 &= u_1 \\v_2 &= u_2 - \left(\frac{u_2 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} \right) v_1 \\v_3 &= u_3 - \left(\frac{u_3 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} \right) v_1 - \left(\frac{u_3 \cdot v_2}{v_2 \cdot v_2} \right) v_2 \\&\vdots \\v_k &= u_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{u_k \cdot v_i}{v_i \cdot v_i} \right) v_i\end{aligned}$$

Then the set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is

- orthogonal, meaning for $i \neq j \rightarrow v_i \cdot v_j = 0$
- span preserving, meaning that, for all $1 \leq k \leq m$, $\text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} = \text{span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$
- and linearly independent

We have now made an orthonormal basis!

3.2 QR Factorization

Suppose that A is an $n \times m$ matrix with linearly independent columns. Then there exists an $n \times m$ matrix Q with orthonormal columns and an upper triangular, $m \times m$, invertible matrix R such that $A = Q \cdot R$.

Q and R are constructed as follows:

- Let $\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ be the columns of A with their order preserved so that

$$A = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_m]$$

- Q is constructed by applying the Gram-Schmidt Process to the columns of A and normalizing their lengths to one,

$$\begin{aligned}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\} &\xrightarrow[\text{Process}]{\text{Gram-Schmidt}} \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\} \\Q &:= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|} & \frac{v_2}{\|v_2\|} & \dots & \frac{v_m}{\|v_m\|} \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

- Because $Q^T Q = I_m$, it follows that $A = Q \cdot R \leftrightarrow R = Q^T \cdot A$.

Questions from HW 06 FAQ

<https://umich.instructure.com/courses/475066/files/folder/HW/HW%2006>

1. Orthogonality: Why is it important?
2. What's the difference between orthogonal and orthonormal Matrices?