

Linear Algebra

Week 5

True / False

1. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$. If AB is invertible, then A and B are invertible.

Counterexample:

FALSE

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is invertible but neither } A \text{ nor } B \text{ is.}$$

However: If $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the statement is **TRUE**
 $(\text{rank}(AB) \leq \min\{\text{rank}(A), \text{rank}(B)\})$

Again, the row/column picture is helpful here to see why this holds:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -a_1- \\ \vdots \\ -a_m- \\ \parallel \\ A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ b_1 & \dots & b_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \\ \parallel \\ B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & & & | \\ A'b_1 & \dots & A'b_n \\ | & & & | \\ \parallel \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1B- \\ \vdots \\ -a_mB- \\ \parallel \end{bmatrix}$$

2.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

TRUE

Inverse operation of adding multiple of one row to another is subtracting that multiple again

LU decomposition (continued)

$$\Leftrightarrow E_k \cdots E_1 A = U$$

$$A = (E_k \cdots E_1)^{-1} U$$

$$= E_1^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1} U$$

$$= LU$$

• Row permutations

In some cases it's necessary to swap rows when performing Gauss-Elimination (zeroes in pivot position!).

In these cases we keep track of all row exchanges in a separate matrix P :

$$PA = LU$$

↑
pivot!

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 7/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

" " " "

P A L U

• Solving $Ax = b$

$$Ax = b \Rightarrow PAx = Pb \Rightarrow \underbrace{PLUx}_{=c} = Pb$$

1. Solve $Lc = Pb$ for c
2. Solve $Ux = c$ for x

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

position
of rows

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

solve for $b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$,

$$Pb = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

first and second row swapped

$$1. Lc = Pb$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= 3 \\ c_2 &= 2 \\ 2c_1 + 3c_2 + c_3 &= 1 \\ \Leftrightarrow 6 + 6 + c_3 &= 1 \\ \Leftrightarrow c_3 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

$$2. Ux = c$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= 1 \\ x_2 + 1 &= 2 \Rightarrow x_2 = 1 \\ x_1 + 1 &= 3 \Rightarrow x_1 = 2 \end{aligned} \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why LU decomposition is useful:

We only have to perform elimination once ($O(n^3)$) and can then solve $Ax=b$ for any vector b in $O(n^2)$ by forward/backward elimination.

Vector Spaces

So far we only considered vectors as elements of \mathbb{R}^n . We can define vectors in a more abstract way by describing the properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication:

A **vector space** is a set V over a field F along with two operations

$$\begin{aligned} +: V \times V &\rightarrow V & (\text{vector addition}) \\ \cdot: F \times V &\rightarrow V & (\text{scalar multiplication}) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{vectors} \\ \text{scalars} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{linear combinations} \\ \text{closed under these operations} \end{array}$$

such that the following 8 axioms are true:

Let $u, v, w \in V, \alpha, \beta \in F$.

$$1. v+w = w+v \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{vector addition}$$

$$2. (u+v)+w = u+(v+w)$$

$$3. \text{there is } 0 \in V: v+0=v$$

$$4. \text{there is } -v \in V: v+(-v)=0 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{scalar multiplication}$$

$$5. \text{there is } 1 \in F: 1 \cdot v = v$$

$$6. \alpha(\beta v) = (\alpha\beta)v$$

$$7. \alpha(u+v) = \alpha u + \alpha v \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{both scalar multiplication,} \\ \text{vector addition} \end{array}$$

$$8. (\alpha+\beta)u = \alpha u + \beta u$$

We don't need to memorize these — they are the properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication already familiar to us.

Examples

- \mathbb{Q} over \mathbb{R}

- $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the set of $n \times n$ matrices

- P_n , the set of polynomials of degree $\leq n = \{a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \mid a_n, \dots, a_0 \in \mathbb{R}\}$

↑
for some fixed n

• We consider $V = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \right\}$ with the operations:

$$+ : \left(\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \right) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a+c \\ b+d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\cdot : (\alpha, \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

Is this a vector space? No! Not commutative.

$U \subseteq V$ is a **subspace** of V if it is a vector space

We can check this as follows:

1. U is non-empty: $0 \in U$

2. U is closed under vector addition

For any $u, v \in U$: $u + v \in U$

this is how we usually prove U is a subspace

scalar multiplication

For any $u \in U, \alpha \in F$: $\alpha u \in U$

Examples

• $\{0\}, V$: always subspaces of a vector space V

• $\{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\}$ is **not** a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2

→ not closed under vector addition,
scalar multiplication

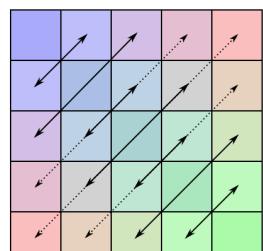
Exercises

Find a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{2x} that contains $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

but not $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ → e.g. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

Remark:

If $A = A^T$ we call A **symmetric**



If $A = -A^T$ we call A **skew-symmetric**

skew-symmetric

Claim: $V = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid \overbrace{A = -A^T} \}$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Proof:

We check the two properties 1. V is non-empty 2. V is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication.

$$1. 0 = -0^T \Rightarrow 0 \in V$$

$$2. \text{Let } A, B \in V, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\oplus: A + B = -A^T - B^T = -(A + B)^T \Rightarrow A + B \in V$$

$$\odot: \alpha A = \alpha(-A^T) = \alpha((-1)A^T) = (\alpha(-1))A^T = -\alpha A^T \in V$$

Hence V is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

$B = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\} \subseteq V$ is a basis of V if:

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

Every vector in V can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination of vectors from B .

The dimension of V , denoted $\dim V$ is the cardinality (size) of any basis of V .

Examples

There are usually many choices for a basis (infinitely many)

- $\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\}$ is the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^2 but as you saw in the first exercise sheet $\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\}$ is a basis as well!

- $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$
- $\dim P_n(x) = n+1$ with the standard basis $\{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$
- \mathbb{C} over \mathbb{R} forms a vector space of dimension 2 with basis $\{1, i\}$
- \mathbb{C} over \mathbb{C} : dimension 1, basis is $\{1\}$
- $\dim \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = n^2$

Exercise Find a basis of $U = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \mid A = -A^T\}$

$$\text{Let } A \in U. A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = -A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & -c \\ -b & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{This gives us: } a = -a \xrightarrow{+a} 2a = 0 \xrightarrow{:2} a = 0$$

$$d = -d \Rightarrow d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -c \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix} = c \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad \text{Hence a potential basis is } B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

General approach:

→ To find basis of subspace, consider the definition of that subspace. # free variables = dim. We can form an equation with all free variables and then set one free variable to 1, all others to 0. Doing this for each free variable gives us a basis of the subspace:

Dimension of subspaces of (skew) symmetric matrices

$$\cdot \dim \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid A = -A^T\} = \frac{n^2 - n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

n^2 entries, diagonal is 0 \Rightarrow n options less. lower triangle determines upper triangle \rightarrow we can choose half the entries left

$$\cdot \dim \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid A = A^T\} = \frac{n^2 - n}{2} + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

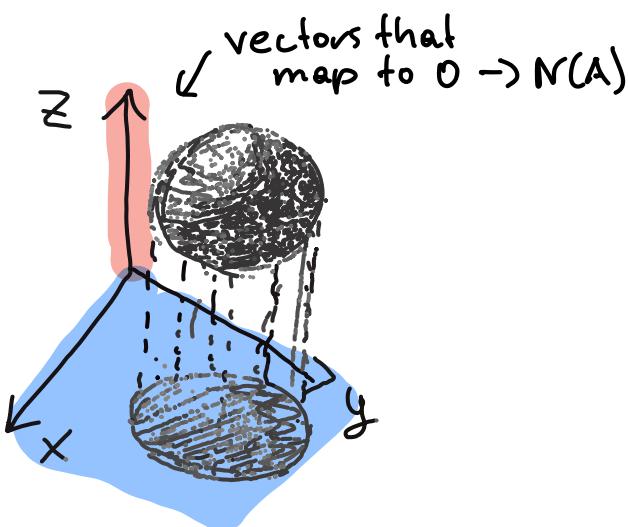
↑
we can choose the diagonal entries

Two important subspaces: $C(A)$ and $N(A)$

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$: (or $A: V \rightarrow W$)

column space,
image or
range — $C(A) = \{ Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$

nullspace
or Kernel — $N(A) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$



Claim: $C(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m

1. $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow A \cdot 0 = 0 \in C(A)$

2. Let $u, v \in C(A)$

$$\Rightarrow Ax = u, Ay = v \text{ for } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
$$u + v = Ax + Ay = A(x + y) \in C(A)$$

$$\alpha u = \alpha Ax = A(\alpha x) \in C(A)$$

Hence the claim holds.

Claim: $N(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n

1. $A \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow 0 \in N(A)$

2. Let $u, v \in N(A)$

$$\Rightarrow Au = Av = 0$$

$$Au + Av = A(u + v) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (u + v) \in N(A)$$

Hence the claim holds.

References

Previous iteration of the course for some of the examples

Sergey Treil, Linear Algebra Done Wrong, https://www.math.brown.edu/streil/papers/LADW_LADW_2021_01-11.pdf (example on page 2)

Also shoutout to Sergey Prokudin, my TA from last year, for his great exercise sessions