# Module 9: Linear Algebra III Operational math bootcamp



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## Outline

### Spectral theory and matrix decompositions:

- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- Algebraic and geometric multiplicity of eigenvalues
- Jordan canonical form
- Singular value decomposition
- LU and QR decompositions



## **Orthogonality and Gram-Schmidt**

#### Definition

Two vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  are called *orthogonal* if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ , denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ . We call them *orthonormal* if additionally the vectors are normalized, i.e.  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{y}\| = 1$ . A basis  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  of V is called *orthonormal basis* (ONB), if the vectors are pairwise orthogonal and normalized.



## Proposition

Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in V$  be orthonormal. Then the system of vectors is linearly independent.

Proof.



## Proposition (Orthogonal Decomposition)

Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  with  $\mathbf{y} \neq 0$ . Then, there exist  $c \in F$  and  $\mathbf{z} \in V$  such that  $\mathbf{x} = c\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}$  with  $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{z}$ .

Given a basis we can obtain an ONB from it using the Gram-Schmidt algorithm by reiterating the orthogonal decomposition from above.



## Proposition (Gram-Schmidt Algorithm)

Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in V$  be a system of linearly independent vectors. Define  $\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1/\|\mathbf{x}_1\|$ . For i = 2, ..., n define  $\mathbf{y}_i$  inductively by

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \frac{\mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_k \rangle \mathbf{y}_k}{\|\mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_k \rangle \mathbf{y}_k\|}.$$

Then the  $y_1, \ldots, y_n$  are orthonormal and

$$\mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n\}=\mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{y}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{y}_n\}.$$

The proof is omitted but can be found in the book.



## Recall: connection between matrices and linear maps

## Multiplication by a matrix defines a linear map

Let  $A \in M_{m \times n}$  be a fixed matrix. Then, we can define a linear map  $T_A \colon \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$  via  $T_A(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v}$ , where we recall matrix vector multiplication  $(A\mathbf{v})_i = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} v_k$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ .

## Given a bases for U and V, $T: U \rightarrow V$ can be written as a matrix

Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(U, V)$  where U and V are vector spaces. Let  $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_n$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_m$  be bases for U and V respectively. The matrix of T with respect to these bases is the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathcal{M}(T)$  with entries  $A_{ij}$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ ,  $j = 1, \ldots, n$  defined by

$$T\mathbf{u}_k = A_{1k}\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + A_{mk}\mathbf{v}_m.$$



## **Eigenvalues**

#### Definition

Given an operator  $A \colon V \to V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $\lambda$  is called an *eigenvalue* of A if there exists a non-zero vector  $\mathbf{v} \in V \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$  such that

$$A\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}$$
.

We call such  $\mathbf{v}$  an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . We call the set of all eigenvalues of A spectrum of T and denote it by  $\sigma(T)$ .

Motivation in terms of linear maps: Let  $T: V \to V$  be a linear map, where V is a vector space. We would like to describe the action of this linear map in a particularly "nice" way: such that T acts only by scaling, i.e.  $T\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$  where  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{F}$  for  $i=1,\ldots,n$ .



## Finding eigenvalues

- Rewrite  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$  as
- Thus, if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue, we can find the corresponding eigenvectors by finding the null space of  $A - \lambda I$ .
- The subspace null( $A \lambda I$ ) is called the *eigenspace*
- To find the eigenvalues of A, one must find the scalars  $\lambda$  such that null $(A \lambda I)$ contains non-trivial vectors (i.e. not **0**)
- Recall: We saw that  $T \in \mathcal{L}(U, v)$  is injective if and only if null  $T = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .
- Thus  $\lambda$  is an eigenvector if and only if  $A \lambda I$  is not invertible.
- Recall:  $|A| \neq 0$  if and only if A is invertible.
- Thus  $\lambda$  is an eigenvector if and only if



## Theorem

The following are equivalent

- $\mathbf{0} \ \lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  is an eigenvalue of A,
- **2**  $(A \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = 0$  has a non-trivial solution,
- **3**  $|A \lambda I| = 0$ .



## Characteristic polynomial

#### Definition

If A is an  $n \times n$  matrix,  $p_A(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I|$  is a polynomial of degree n called the characteristic polynomial of A.

To find the eigenvectors of A, one needs to find the roots of the characteristic polynomial.



## **E**xample

Find the eigenvalues of

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}.$$



## Multiplicity

#### Definition

The multiplicity of the root  $\lambda$  in the characteristic polynomial is called the *algebraic* multiplicity of the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . The dimension of the eigenspace null( $A - \lambda I$ ) is called the *geometric multiplicity* of the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .



## Definition (Similar matrices)

Square matrices A and B are called *similar* if there exists an invertible matrix S such that

$$A = SBS^{-1}$$
.

Similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomials and hence the same eigenvalues (see exercise).



#### Theorem

Suppose A is a square matrix with distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ . Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n$  be eigenvectors corresponding to these eigenvalues. Then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  are linearly independent.

## Proof







## Corollary

If a  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  has n distinct eigenvalues, then A is diagonalizable. That is there exists an invertible matrix  $S \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  such that  $A = SDS^{-1}$ , where D is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of A in the diagonal.



#### Theorem

Let  $A:V\to V$  be an operator with n eigenvalues. A is diagonalizable if and only if for each eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , the geometric multiplicity of  $\lambda$  and the algebraic multiplicity of  $\lambda$  are the same.



## **Example:** a diagonalizable matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 8 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is diagonalizable.



## **Example continued**



## **Example:** a matrix that is not diagonalizable

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is *not* diagonalizable.



#### Theorem

Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be a symmetric matrix. Then, there exists an orthogonal matrix  $O \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $A = ODO^T$ , where D is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of A in the diagonal. Furthermore, all eigenvalues of A are real.

We can also state this for  $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ :

Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a Hermitian matrix. Then, there exists a unitary matrix  $U \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  such that  $A = UDU^*$ , where D is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of A in the diagonal. Furthermore, all eigenvalues of A are real.



## **Block matrices**

## Definition

A block matrix is a matrix that can be broken into sections called blocks, which are smaller matrices.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Definition

A square matrix is called block diagonal if it can be written as a block matrix where the main-diagonal blocks are all square matrices and the off-diagonal blocks are all zero.

The matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is block diagonal.



#### Definition

A vector  ${\bf v}$  is called a *generalized eigenvector* of A corresponding to an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  if there exists  $k \geq 1$  such that

$$(A-\lambda I)^k \mathbf{v}=0.$$

The set of generalized eigenvectors of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  (plus  $\mathbf{0}$ ) is called the *generalized* eigenspace of  $\lambda$ .

### Propositior

The algebraic multiplicity of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is the same as the dimension of the corresponding generalized eigenspace.



## Theorem (Jordan decomposition theorem)

For any operator A there exists a basis such that A is block diagonal with blocks that have eigenvalues on the diagonal and 1s on the upper off-diagonal. In other words, A can be written in the form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & J_k \end{bmatrix}$$

where the blocks J; on the main diagonal are Jordan block of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \text{ etc.}$$

This form is called Jordan canonical form.



Connection to algebraic and geometric multiplicity:

- The algebraic multiplicity of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is the number of times  $\lambda$  appears on the diagonal.
- The geometric multiplicity of  $\lambda$  is the number of Jordan blocks associated with  $\lambda$ .

Why is Jordan form useful?



## Singular value decomposition

- $A^TA$  is symmetric
- therefore it is orthogonally diagonalizable and has real eigenvalues
- In fact, the eigenvalues are non-negative (exercise)

#### Definition

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. Let  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  be the eigenvalues of  $A^T A$ . Then the singular values of A are defined as

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}, \dots, \sigma_n = \sqrt{\lambda_n}.$$



## Theorem (Singular value decomposition)

If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank k, then we can write

$$A = U\Sigma V^T$$

where  $\Sigma$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} D_{k\times k} & 0_{k\times (n-k)} \\ 0_{(m-k)\times k} & 0_{(m-k)\times (n-k)} \end{bmatrix},$$

D is a diagonal matrix with the singular values of A,  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_k$ , on the diagonal and U and V are both orthogonal matrices (of size  $m \times m$  and  $n \times n$ , respectively).



Uses of SVD:

Differences between JCF and SVD:



## **LU-decomposition**

#### Definition

The LU-decomposition of a square matrix A is the factorization of A into a lower triangular matrix L and an upper triangular matrix U as follows:

$$A = LU$$
.

Why is this useful? Consider the linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ 



## Recall: orthonormal basis

#### Definition

Two vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  are called *orthogonal* if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ , denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ . We call them *orthonormal* if additionally the vectors are normalized, i.e.  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{y}\| = 1$ . A basis  $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n$  of V is called *orthonormal basis* (ONB), if the vectors are pairwise orthogonal and normalized.

Starting from a set of linearly independent vectors, we can construct another set of vectors which are orthonormal and span the same space using the **Gram-Schmidt Algorithm**.



## QR-decomposition

## Definition (QR-decomposition)

The QR-decomposition of an  $m \times n$  matrix A with linearly independent column vectors is the factorization of A as follows:

$$A = QR$$

where Q is an  $m \times n$  matrix with orthonormal column vectors and R is an  $n \times n$ invertible upper triangular matrix.



One obtains the factorization by applying the Gram-Schmidt algorithm to the columns of A. Let  $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$  be the column vectors of A. Let  $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$  be the orthonormal vectors obtained by applying Gram Schmidt. Then one can write:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_1 &= \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{q}_1 \rangle \mathbf{q}_1 + \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle \mathbf{q}_2 + \ldots + \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \mathbf{q}_n \\ \mathbf{u}_2 &= \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle \mathbf{q}_2 + \ldots + \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \mathbf{q}_n \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n &= \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \mathbf{q}_n \end{aligned}$$

Thus the orthonormal vectors obtained using Gram-Schmidt form the columns of Q, while R is the terms needed to go between the columns of A and thsoe of Q, i.e.

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{q}_1 \rangle & \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \\ 0 & \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{q}_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{q}_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}.$$



Why use *QR*-decomposition?



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