Numerical Linear Algebra

1 Matrices, Vectors, and Norms

1.1 Matrix-Vector Multiplication

Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the matrix-vector product $Ax = b \in \mathbb{C}^m$ is defined as:

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m$$

where a_{ij} are the entries of the matrix A.

Observation

The transformation $x \mapsto Ax$ is a linear transformation from \mathbb{C}^n to \mathbb{C}^m , i.e., it satisfies:

$$A(x+y) = Ax + Ay$$
, $A(\alpha x) = \alpha Ax$, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

1.1.1 A Matrix times a Vector

$$b = Ax = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j a_j$$

where a_j is the j-th column of A.

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + x_n \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Vandermonde Matrix

A Vandermonde matrix is defined as:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 & \cdots & x_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$$

Observation

Let fix the sequence $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$. If p and q are polynomials of degree at most n-1 and α is a scalar, then:

- 1. (p+q) is a polynomial of degree at most n-1, and so are $\alpha p, \alpha q$.
- 2. $(p+q)(x_i) = p(x_i) + q(x_i)$ for i = 1, ..., m.
- 3. $(\alpha p)(x_i) = \alpha p(x_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$.

Observation

Suppose we have a vector $c \in \mathbb{C}^n$ representing the coefficients of a polynomial $p(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_{n-1} x^{n-1}$. Then

$$p(x_i) = (Ac)_i = c_0 + c_1 x_i + c_2 x_i^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} x_i^{n-1}$$

Any polynomial of degree at most n-1 can be represented as

$$p(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 & \cdots & x^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

1.2 Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

Given matrices $A \in \mathbb{C}^{l \times m}$ and $C \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, the matrix-matrix product $B = AC \in \mathbb{C}^{l \times n}$ is defined as:

$$b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ik} c_{kj}$$
, for $i = 1, \dots, l, j = 1, \dots, n$

So,

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$b_j = Ac_j = \sum_{k=1}^m c_{kj} a_k, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

Example: Outer Product

Given two vectors $u \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}$ and $v \in \mathbb{C}^{1 \times n}$, the outer product $uv^T \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is defined as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1v_1 & u_1v_2 & \cdots & u_1v_n \\ u_2v_1 & u_2v_2 & \cdots & u_2v_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_mv_1 & u_mv_2 & \cdots & u_mv_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

Let $B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be the columns of $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and let $R \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be an upper triangular matrix with all its superdiagonal entries equal to 1 such that

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$b_j = Ar_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j} a_k, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

which is known as the indefinite integral operation.

1.3 Range and Null Space

Theorem

The range of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the space spanned by its columns, i.e. it's column space.

"The set of vectors that can be written as Ax for some $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$."

1.3.1 Null Space and Rank

The null space of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is defined as:

$$\operatorname{span}\{x \in \mathbb{C}^n : Ax = 0\}$$

The rank of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is defined as the dimension of its range:

$$rank(A) = dim(range(A))$$

Theorem

For any matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $m \ge n$, A has full rank if and only if it maps no two distinct vectors to the same vector:

$$Ax = Ay \implies x = y, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n \text{ and } Ax \neq Ay \implies x \neq y, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

1.3.2 Non-singular Matrices

A non-singular matrix, or invertible matrix is a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ that has full rank.

1.3.3 Inverse of a Matrix

The matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is the inverse of Z if and only if:

$$AZ = ZA = I = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & \cdots & e_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where e_i is the *i*-th standard basis vector. Furthermore, the inverse of a matrix is unique and

$$rank(A) = n = rank(Z)$$

Theorem

For $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, the following statements are equivalent:

- 1. A has an inverse A^{-1} .
- 2. A has full rank, i.e. rank(A) = n.
- 3. The columns of A span \mathbb{C}^n , i.e. range $(A) = \mathbb{C}^n$.
- 4. The columns of A are linearly independent, i.e. $null(A) = \{0\}$.
- 5. 0 is not an eigenvalue of A.
- 6. 0 is not a singular value of A.
- 7. $|A| \neq 0$.

1.4 Orthogonal Vectors and Matrices

1.4.1 Complex Conjugate and Conjugate Transpose

Given $z \in \mathbb{C}$, the complex conjugate of z is denoted by \bar{z} or z^* , where if z = x + iy, then $\bar{z} = x - iy$.

The conjugate transpose of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is denoted by A^* , where $A^* = \bar{A}^T$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \implies A^* = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{a}_{11} & \bar{a}_{21} & \bar{a}_{31} \\ \bar{a}_{12} & \bar{a}_{22} & \bar{a}_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

1.4.2 Hermitian Matrices and Skew-Hermitian Matrices

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called Hermitian if $A^* = A$. (Or $A = A^T$ if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.) A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called Skew-Hermitian if $A^* = -A$. (Or $A = -A^T$ if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.)

1.4.3 Inner Product and Norm

Given two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the inner product is defined as:

$$\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i x_i$$

The norm of a vector $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is defined as:

$$||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2}$$

The modulus of a complex number $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is defined as:

$$|z| = \sqrt{z\overline{z}} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
 where $z = x + iy$

The angle θ between two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is defined as:

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

Observation

The inner product is bilinear, which means:

1.
$$\langle x_1 + x_2, y \rangle = \langle x_1, y \rangle + \langle x_2, y \rangle$$

2.
$$\langle x, y_1 + y_2 \rangle = \langle x, y_1 \rangle + \langle x, y_2 \rangle$$

3.
$$\langle \alpha x, \beta y \rangle = \alpha \bar{\beta} \langle x, y \rangle$$
 for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$

For all vectors or matrices A, B of compatible dimensions, we have:

$$(AB)^* = B^*A^*$$

1.4.4 Orthogonal Vectors

Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are orthogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Observation

If x and y are orthogonal, then they are perpendicular.

With $x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and $y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$, x and y are orthogonal if and only if:

$$\langle x_i, y_j \rangle = 0, \quad \forall i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

1.4.5 Orthonormal Vectors

A set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ is orthonormal if:

$$\langle x_i, x_j \rangle = 0$$
 for $i \neq j$ and $\langle x_i, x_i \rangle = ||x_i||^2 = 1$

Observation

The vectors in an orthogonal set are linearly independent.

1.4.6 Orthogonal and Unitary Matrices

A matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal if its columns form an orthonormal set, i.e. $Q^TQ = QQ^T = I$. A matrix $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary if its columns form an orthonormal set, i.e. $U^*U = UU^* = I$.

Observation

If $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary, then $U^{-1} = U^*$ and

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1^* \\ u_2^* \\ \vdots \\ u_n^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which implies that $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta, i.e. $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$.

2 Vector Spaces

A vector space $\mathcal V$ over a field $\mathbb F$ (usually $\mathbb R$ or $\mathbb C$) is a set of objects called vectors, along with two operations: vector addition and scalar multiplication, satisfying the following axioms for all $u,v,w\in\mathcal V$ and $\alpha,\beta\in\mathbb F$:

- 1. (Closure under addition) $u + v \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2. (Commutativity) u + v = v + u
- 3. (Associativity) (u+v)+w=u+(v+w)
- 4. (Existence of additive identity) There exists an element $0 \in \mathcal{V}$ such that u + 0 = u
- 5. (Existence of additive inverses) For each $u \in \mathcal{V}$, there exists an element $-u \in \mathcal{V}$ such that u + (-u) = 0
- 6. (Closure under scalar multiplication) $\alpha u \in \mathcal{V}$
- 7. (Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to vector addition) $\alpha(u+v) = \alpha u + \alpha v$
- 8. (Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to field addition) $(\alpha + \beta)u = \alpha u + \beta u$
- 9. (Associativity of scalar multiplication) $\alpha(\beta u) = (\alpha \beta)u$
- 10. (Existence of multiplicative identity) 1u = u where 1 is the multiplicative identity in \mathbb{F}

2.1 Linear Subspaces

A subset W of a vector space V is a subspace if W is itself a vector space under the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on V:

- 1. (Closure under addition) $u + v \in \mathcal{W}$
- 2. (Closure under scalar multiplication) $\alpha u \in \mathcal{W}$

2.2 Linear Independence

A set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} \subset \mathcal{V}$ is linearly independent if the only solution to

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k = 0$$

is $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \cdots = \alpha_k = 0$. If there exists a non-trivial solution, the set is linearly dependent.

2.3 Basis and Dimension

A basis of a vector space \mathcal{V} is a set of linearly independent vectors that spans \mathcal{V} . The dimension of \mathcal{V} , denoted dim(\mathcal{V}), is the number of vectors in any basis of \mathcal{V} .

2.4 Inner Product and Norms

An inner product on a vector space \mathcal{V} over \mathbb{F} is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \to \mathbb{F}$. The standard inner product on \mathbb{C}^n is defined as:

$$\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}_i x_i$$

A norm on a vector space \mathcal{V} is a function $\|\cdot\|:\mathcal{V}\to\mathbb{R}$ satisfying:

- 1. (Non-negativity) $||v|| \ge 0$
- 2. (Definiteness) ||v|| = 0 if and only if v = 0
- 3. (Homogeneity) $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v \in \mathcal{V}$
- 4. (Triangle inequality) $||u+v|| \le ||u|| + ||v||$ for all $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$

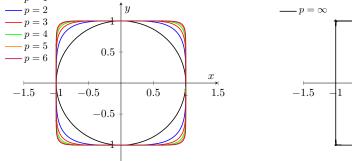
The *p*-norm on \mathbb{C}^n is defined as:

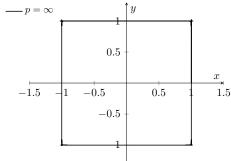
$$||x||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

for $1 \le p < \infty$, and the ∞ -norm is defined as:

$$||x||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i|$$

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2.4.1 Lemma

Let $\|\cdot\|_{\alpha}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\beta}$ be two norms on a finite-dimensional vector space \mathcal{V} . Then there exist positive constants c_1 and c_2 such that for all $v \in \mathcal{V}$:

$$c_1 \|v\|_{\alpha} \le \|v\|_{\beta} \le c_2 \|v\|_{\alpha}$$

 $\|\cdot\|_{\alpha}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\beta}$ are said to be equivalent norms. In \mathbb{R}^n :

$$||x||_{2} \le ||x||_{1} \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_{2}$$
$$||x||_{\infty} \le ||x||_{2} \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_{\infty}$$
$$||x||_{\infty} \le ||x||_{1} \le n ||x||_{\infty}$$

3 Matrix Norms

A matrix norm is a function $\|\cdot\|:\mathbb{C}^{m\times n}\to\mathbb{R}$ satisfying:

- 1. (Non-negativity) $||A|| \ge 0$
- 2. (Definiteness) ||A|| = 0 if and only if A = 0
- 3. (Homogeneity) $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$
- 4. (Triangle inequality) $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$ for all $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$
- 5. (Sub-multiplicativity) $||AB|| \le ||A|| ||B||$ for all $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$

3.1 Frobenius Norm

The Frobenius norm of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is defined as:

$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{trace}(A^*A)}$$

3.2 Induced Norms

The induced norm (or operator norm) of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is defined as:

$$||A|| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||}{||x||} = \sup_{||x|| = 1} ||Ax||$$

3.3 Consistent Norms

Let $\|\cdot\|_{m\times n}$, $\|\cdot\|_{n\times p}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{m\times p}$ be three matrix norms on $\mathbb{C}^{m\times n}$, $\mathbb{C}^{n\times p}$ and $\mathbb{C}^{m\times p}$ respectively. They are said to be consistent if:

$$||AB||_{m \times p} \le ||A||_{m \times n} ||B||_{n \times p}, \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$$

3.4 Properties of Induced Norms

1.
$$||Ax|| \le ||A|| ||x||$$
 for all $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$

2.
$$\|AB\| \le \|A\| \|B\|$$
 for all $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$

3.
$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$$
 (maximum absolute row sum)

4.
$$||A||_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|$$
 (maximum absolute column sum)

5.
$$||A||_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^*A)}$$
 (with λ_{\max} the largest eigenvalue)

6.
$$||A||_2 = ||A^T||_2$$

7.
$$||A||_2 = \max |\lambda_i(A)|$$
 if A is normal (i.e. $A^*A = AA^*$)

8.
$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\operatorname{trace}(A^*A)}$$

So, in general,

$$||A||_{\alpha} = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||_{\alpha}}{||x||_{\alpha}} = \max_{||x||_{\alpha} = 1} ||Ax||_{\alpha}$$

The Frobenius norm is consistent with the euclidean vector norm, but it is not an induced norm.