

## Notations :-

- \* Vectors are denoted by lower case letters with a tilde below.
- \* Matrices are denoted by upper case with a tilde below
- \* Scalars are denoted using lower case alphabets

→  $\tilde{x}$  is a n-dimensional vector:-

$$\tilde{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

eg:- ① Sequence of numbers can represent 'n' measurements of a feature like % Urbanization of various countries, heights of students in class

② These vectors can also represent displacements, velocity fields, electron density, pressure fields on different grid pts in a domain

→  $\tilde{A}$  (m rows, n columns)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{m1} & \dots & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

③ Incidence matrix

④ Adjacency matrix

② Discretization of PDEs in a chosen basis can give rise to matrices

Eg:- Finite Element method, Finite difference method, Finite volume etc.

Matrix - vector multiplication :-

$$* \quad b = Ax ; \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$$

$$b \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$$

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j$$

$$\text{Eg:- } A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \times 8 + 3 \times 9 \\ 2 \times 8 + 4 \times 9 \\ 3 \times 8 + 7 \times 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 43 \\ 52 \\ 61 \end{pmatrix}$$

By rows :-

Inner product of rows of A with vector x

Defn:-  $\underline{x} \rightarrow A\underline{x}$  is a linear map  
 i.e for any vectors  $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
 and any scalar  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

$$A(\underline{x} + \underline{y}) = A\underline{x} + A\underline{y}$$

$$A(\alpha \underline{x}) = \alpha A\underline{x}$$

By columns:-

$$A\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{A} \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{\underline{x}} \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} = 8 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + 9 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

You are viewing  $A\underline{x}$  as a linear combination of  $\underline{a}_1$  and  $\underline{a}_2$ , the two

columns of  $A$

$$A\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \underline{a}_1 & \underline{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \underline{a}_1 + x_2 \underline{a}_2$$

Fundamental operation of Linear Algebra

$$\underline{b} = A\underline{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \underline{a}_j$$

This will allow us to define range(A)

## Range of a matrix A

Defn:  $\text{range}(A) = \{ \underline{y} \mid \underline{y} = A \underline{x} \text{ for some } \underline{x} \}$

Key idea is to take all combinations of columns of  $A$  and the set of infinitely many output vectors  $A \underline{x}$  forms the range of  $(A)$ .

The space spanned by the columns of  $A$  is  $\text{range}(A)$   $\hookrightarrow$  column space  $(A)$

## Null-space :-

$$\text{Null}(A) = \{ \underline{x} \mid A \underline{x} = \underline{0} \}$$

i.e. set of all vectors  $\underline{x}$  that maps to a zero vector via  $A$

$$\rightarrow \text{If } \underline{x} \in \text{Null}(A) \\ A \underline{x} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow x_1 a_1 + x_2 a_2 \\ + \dots + x_n a_n = \underline{0}$$

If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are linearly independent  
then  $x_i = 0$

## Rank of a matrix

Column Rank of  $\underline{A}$  :- Maximum number of linearly independent columns of  $\underline{A}$

[Dimension of space spanned by its columns]

Row rank of  $\underline{A}$  :- Maximum number of linearly independent rows of  $\underline{A}$

[Dim of space spanned by rows]

Result:- Row rank of a matrix equals column rank of a matrix and is called rank of a matrix.

$\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is said to have a full rank if it has the maximal rank i.e.  $\text{rank } (\underline{A}) = \min(m, n)$

$$\text{Eg:- } \underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \quad m \geq n$$

If such a matrix  $\underline{A}$  has a full rank

it must have ' $n$ ' linearly independent columns,  $\text{rank}(A) = n$

Thm 1: A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$  maps no two distinct vectors to the same vector if and only if  $A$  is a full rank.

$$\rightarrow \underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2 (\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2)$$

then  $\underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2$  if and only if  $A$  is full rank

Pf:-

To show

$\underline{x}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \underline{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2$

$\underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2$  then  $\underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2 \Rightarrow A$  is full rank

Proof by contradiction

Let us assume  $A$  is not full rank it has a non-trivial null space, let that vector be  $\underline{c} \neq 0$  i.e  $\underline{A} \underline{c} = 0$

$$\underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; \underline{x}_2 = \underline{x}_1 + \underline{c}$$

$$\underline{y}_2 = \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{A} (\underline{x}_1 + \underline{c}) = \underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1$$

i.e. a contradiction,  $\underline{A}$  is full rank.

To show  
 $\underline{A}$  is full rank

$$\Rightarrow \underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1; \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2 \text{ where } \underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2 \text{ then } \underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2$$

$\rightarrow$  Consider  $\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2$  and assume  $\underline{y}_1 = \underline{y}_2 = \underline{y}$

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}, \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y} \Rightarrow \underline{A} (\underline{x}_1 - \underline{x}_2) = \underline{0}$$

$\underline{x}_1 - \underline{x}_2 = \underline{0}$  because  $\underline{A}$  is full rank.

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{x}_1 = \underline{x}_2$$

(again a contradiction)

Matrix-matrix multiplication :-

$$\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m} \quad \underline{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$\underline{B} = \underline{A} \underline{C} \quad \text{i.e. } \underline{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$$

$$B_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m A_{ik} C_{kj}$$

Inner product form :-

$$\underline{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a+3c & 2b+3d \\ 3a+4c & 3b+4d \\ 4a+7c & 4b+7d \end{bmatrix}$$

## Linear combination of columns

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times m} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$$

$B = A C$

Columns of  $B$  can be written as linear combination of columns of  $A$  with column vectors of  $C$  as linear combination coefficients

✓  $b_j = \sum_{k=1}^m c_{kj} a_k$

## Outer-product form:-

$u, v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  outer product of two vectors  
 $u$  and  $v$  as a rank 1 matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$

and  $A := u v^T$

$$B = A C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_A \begin{bmatrix} -x_1^T \\ -x_2^T \\ \vdots \\ -x_m^T \end{bmatrix}_C$$

$i^{th}$  row of  $C$   
matrix is denoted as a column vector  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$B = A C = a_1 x_1^T + a_2 x_2^T + a_3 x_3^T + \dots + a_m x_m^T$$

Sum of 'm' rank 1 matrices

## Four fundamental Subspaces of A

Column space :-  $C(\underline{A}) \rightarrow$  combination of columns of  $\underline{A}$

Row space :-  $C(\underline{A}^T) \rightarrow$  combination of rows of  $\underline{A}^T$

Null space :-  $N(\underline{A}) \rightarrow$  all solutions  $\underline{x}$  to  $\underline{A}\underline{x} = \underline{0}$

Left Null space :-  $N(\underline{A}^T) \rightarrow$  all solutions  $\underline{y}$  to  $\underline{A}^T\underline{y} = \underline{0}$

## Inverse of a matrix :-

A full rank square matrix is invertible

i.e., for  $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $m$  columns of  $\underline{A}$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

$$\leftrightarrow \underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \underline{a}_1 & \underline{a}_2 & \cdots & \underline{a}_m \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m}$$

$\underline{A}$  is a full rank matrix

Hence,

Any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  can be expressed as a linear combination of columns of  $\underline{A}$

$$e_j = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m+1} \quad j^{\text{th}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} e_j &= \sum_{i=1}^m z_{ij} \underline{a}_i \\ &= \underline{A} \underline{z}_j - (*) \end{aligned}$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} e_1 & e_2 & \dots & e_m \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] = I$$

$$I = A Z = A \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{array} \right]$$

This matrix is called the inverse of  $A$ .

$$I = A Z = Z A \quad (\text{Exercise})$$

And this  $Z$  is called inverse of matrix  $A$  and denote as  $A^{-1}$

" Every non-singular square matrix  $A$  has a unique inverse  $A^{-1}$  that satisfies "

$$A A^{-1} = A^{-1} A = I$$

Matrix inverse times vector :-

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  (Full rank);  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ;  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$x = A^{-1} b$$

We can think  $\underline{x}$  as a unique vector satisfying  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$

$$\underline{b} = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i e_i \text{ where } e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow i$$

$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$  are the coefficients of expansion of  $\underline{b}$  in  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$

$$\underline{b} = A\underline{x} = \sum_{j=1}^m x_j a_j \text{ where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\downarrow$   
 $A^{-1}\underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$  are the coefficients of expansion of  $\underline{b}$  in  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$

This means we can think of  $A^{-1}\underline{b}$  as a change of basis operation from

$\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$  to  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$   
 i.e column-space of  $A$

Transpose of a matrix ( $A^T$ ) :-

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  then  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$   
 where  $A_{ij}^T = A_{ji}$

Useful properties of  $\underline{A}^T$  and  $\underline{A}^{-1}$ :

Ⓐ  $(\underline{A} \underline{B})^T = \underline{B}^T \underline{A}^T$  Ⓑ  $(\underline{A} \underline{B})^{-1} = \underline{B}^{-1} \underline{A}^{-1}$

Ⓒ  $(\underline{A}^T)^{-1} = (\underline{A}^{-1})^T$

If  $\underline{A} = \underline{A}^T$  (Symmetric matrix)

If  $\underline{A} = \underline{A}^H$  (Hermitian matrix)

$\underline{A}^H$  is conjugate transpose of  $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

Inner products:

Let  $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , then inner product of  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  is a scalar  $(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i$$

Euclidean length of a vector  $\underline{x}$  :-

$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{\underline{x}^T \underline{x}} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

Angle between vectors  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  is  $\alpha$

then  $\cos \alpha = \frac{\underline{x}^T \underline{y}}{\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\|}$

Useful properties of inner products:

Ⓐ  $(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2, \underline{y}) = (\underline{x}_1, \underline{y}) + (\underline{x}_2, \underline{y})$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_1 + \underline{y}_2) = (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_1) + (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_2)$$

$$\textcircled{c} \quad (\alpha \underline{x}, \beta \underline{y}) = \alpha \beta (\underline{x}, \underline{y})$$

Orthogonality :-

(a) Orthogonal vectors  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  :- Angle b/w vectors is  $90^\circ$  i.e.  $\cos 90^\circ = 0 \Rightarrow (\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = 0$   
 $\text{or } \underline{x}^T \underline{y} = 0$

(b) Orthogonal basis for a subspace :-  
 $S = \{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$  is said to be  
 an orthogonal basis spanning a n-dimensional  
 space if every pair of vectors in  $S$   
 is orthogonal i.e.  $\underline{v}_i^T \underline{v}_j = 0$

orthonormal basis  $\rightarrow$  In addition to  
 orthogonality,  $\underline{v}_i^T \underline{v}_i = 1$  (lengths of  
 each vector is 1)

Result: Vectors in a orthogonal  
 set  $S$  are linearly independent  
 Pf :- exercise

Components of vector :- Consider  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $n$ -dimensional space  $V^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  spanned by an orthonormal set  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$

(Note:-  $n \leq m$ )

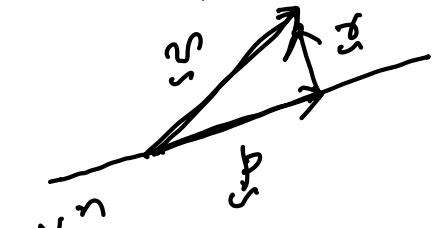
Let us decompose

Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and

$$v = p + \tilde{v} \text{ where } p \in V^n$$

the space spanned by  $Q$

and  $\tilde{v}$  is orthogonal to  $V^n$



Since  $p \in V^n$ ,  $p = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i q_i$  —  $\star$

$$v = p + \tilde{v} \Rightarrow q_j^T v = q_j^T p + q_j^T \tilde{v}$$

$$\Rightarrow q_j^T v = q_j^T \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i q_i \right)$$

$i \neq j$  will vanish

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha_j = q_j^T v}$$

$$\Rightarrow v = p + \sum_{i=1}^n (q_i^T v) q_i$$

If  $m=n$  then  $v = \sum_{i=1}^m (q_i^T v) q_i$

i.e. Sum of coefficients of  $\underline{q}_i^T \underline{v}$  times basis vectors  $\underline{q}_i$

$$\text{Also } \underline{v} = \sum_{i=1}^m q_i (\underline{q}_i^T \underline{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \underbrace{(\underline{q}_i \underline{q}_i^T)}_{\sum P_i} \underline{v}$$

i.e. Sum of orthogonal projections of  $\underline{v}$  onto various directions  $\underline{q}_i$

(c) Orthogonal matrices :-

A square matrix  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is called orthogonal matrix if  $\underline{Q}^T = \underline{Q}^{-1}$

i.e. 
$$\boxed{\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \underline{Q}^T = I}$$
 ( $AZ = ZA = I$ )

$$\underline{Q} = \left[ \underline{q}_1 \mid \underline{q}_2 \mid \dots \mid \underline{q}_m \right]$$

$$\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \underline{q}_1^T & & & \\ \hline \underline{q}_2^T & & & \\ \hline \vdots & & & \\ \hline \underline{q}_m^T & & & \end{array} \right] \left[ \underline{q}_1 \mid \underline{q}_2 \mid \dots \mid \underline{q}_m \right] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & \end{bmatrix} = I$$

This means  $\underline{q}_i^T \underline{q}_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$

If  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  then  $\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \underline{Q}^T = I$

then  $\underline{Q}$  is called unitary matrix

We saw  $\underline{A}\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{A}^{-1}\underline{b}$  interpretations

$\underline{A} \rightarrow \underline{Q}$   
i.e.  $\underline{Q}\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{Q}^{-1}\underline{b} \Rightarrow \underline{Q}^T\underline{b}$

$\underline{Q}^T\underline{b}$  can be thought of change  
of basis from  $\{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_m\}$  to  
orthogonal basis  $\{\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2, \dots, \underline{q}_m\}$   
i.e. columns of  $\underline{Q}$

(i) Orthogonal matrices preserves inner products

$$(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) := \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$$

$$(\underline{Q}\underline{x}, \underline{Q}\underline{y}) = (\underline{Q}\underline{x})^T (\underline{Q}\underline{y}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} \underline{y} = \underline{x}^T \underline{y} = (\underline{x}, \underline{y})$$

(ii) Orthogonal matrices  
preserves length

$$\|\underline{Q}\underline{x}\| = \|\underline{x}\| \quad (\text{verify?})$$

(iii)  $\det \underline{Q} = \pm 1 \quad [\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = I]$

(iv) Action of  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  on a vector is  
a rigid rotation (if  $\det \underline{Q} = 1$ ) or  
reflection (if  $\det \underline{Q} = -1$ )



## Notations :-

- \* Vectors are denoted by lower case letters with a tilde below.
- \* Matrices are denoted by upper case with a tilde below
- \* Scalars are denoted using lower case alphabets

→ \*

$\underline{x}$  is a n-dimensional vector:-

$$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

eg:- (1) Sequence of numbers can represent 'n' measurements of a feature like % Urbanization of various countries, heights of students in class

(2) These vectors can also represent displacements, velocity fields, electron density, pressure fields on different grid pts in a domain

→  $\underline{A}$  (m rows, n columns)

$$\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{m1} & \dots & & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

Eg:- ① In data science, these can be collection of different features.

② Discretization of PDEs in a chosen basis can give rise to matrices  
Eg:- Finite element method, Finite difference method, Finite volume etc.

Matrix - vector multiplication :-

$$* \quad \underline{b} = \underline{A} \underline{x}; \quad \underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$$

$$\underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$$

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j$$

Eg:-  $\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \quad \underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\underline{A} \underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \times 8 + 3 \times 9 \\ 2 \times 9 + 4 \times 9 \\ 3 \times 8 + 7 \times 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 43 \\ 54 \\ 69 \end{pmatrix}$$

By rows :-

Inner product of rows of  $\underline{A}$  with vector  $\underline{x}$

Defn:-  $\underline{x} \rightarrow A\underline{x}$  is a linear map

i.e for any vectors  $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

and any scalar  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

$$A(\underline{x} + \underline{y}) = A\underline{x} + A\underline{y}$$

$$A(\alpha \underline{x}) = \alpha A\underline{x}$$

By columns:-

$$A\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{A} \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{x} \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} = 8 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + 9 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

You are viewing  $A\underline{x}$  as a linear combination of  $\underline{a}_1$  and  $\underline{a}_2$ , the two

columns of  $A$

$$A\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \underline{a}_1 & \underline{a}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \underline{a}_1 + x_2 \underline{a}_2$$

Fundamental operation of Linear Algebra

$$\underline{b} = A\underline{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \underline{a}_j$$

This will allow us to define range(A)

## Range of a matrix A

Defn:  $\text{range}(A) = \{ \underline{y} \mid \underline{y} = A\underline{x} \text{ for some } \underline{x} \}$

Key idea is to take all combinations of columns of  $A$  and the set of infinitely many output vectors  $A\underline{x}$  forms the range of  $(A)$ .

The space spanned by the columns of  $A$  is  $\text{range}(A)$

↳ column space  $(A)$

## Null-space :-

$\text{Null}(A) = \{ \underline{x} \mid A\underline{x} = \underline{0} \}$

i.e. set of all vectors  $\underline{x}$  that maps to a zero vector via  $A$

→ If  $\underline{x} \in \text{Null}(A)$   
 $A\underline{x} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow x_1 \underline{a}_1 + x_2 \underline{a}_2 + \dots + x_n \underline{a}_n = \underline{0}$

If  $\underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_2, \dots, \underline{a}_n$  are linearly independent  
then  $x_i = 0$

## Rank of a matrix

Column Rank of  $\underline{A}$  : $\rightarrow$  Maximum number of linearly independent columns of  $\underline{A}$   
[Dimension of space spanned by its columns]

Row rank of  $\underline{A}$  : $\rightarrow$  Maximum number of linearly independent rows of  $\underline{A}$   
[Dim of space spanned by rows]

Result:- Row rank of a matrix equals column rank of a matrix  
and is called rank of a matrix.

$\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is said to have a full rank if it has the maximal rank i.e.  $\text{rank } (\underline{A}) = \min(m, n)$

Eg:-  $\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \quad m \geq n$

If such a matrix  $\underline{A}$  has a full rank

it must have ' $n$ ' linearly independent columns,  $\text{rank}(A) = n$

Thm 1: A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$  maps no two distinct vectors to the same vector if and only if  $A$  is a full rank.

$\rightarrow A \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; A \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2 (\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2)$   
then  $\underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2$  if and only if  $A$  is full rank

Pf: Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  maps no two distinct vectors to the same vector.

$\underline{x}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \underline{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2$   
 $A \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; A \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2 \Rightarrow \underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2$

Now we need to show  $A$  is full rank.

$\rightarrow$  Let us assume  $A$  is not full rank it has a non-trivial null space, let that vector be  $\underline{c} \neq 0$  i.e  $A \underline{c} = 0$

$$A \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1 ; \underline{x}_2 = \underline{x}_1 + \underline{c}$$

$$\underline{y}_2 = \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{A}(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{c}) = \underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}$$

i.e. a contradiction,  $\underline{A}$  is full rank.

Now we need to show if  $\underline{A}$  is full rank

$$\underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}_1; \underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}_2 \text{ where } \underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2 \Rightarrow \underline{y}_1 \neq \underline{y}_2$$

$\rightarrow$  Consider  $\underline{x}_1 \neq \underline{x}_2$  i.e.  $\underline{A} \underline{x}_1 = \underline{y}$  and  $\underline{A} \underline{x}_2 = \underline{y}$

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{A}(\underline{x}_1 - \underline{x}_2) = \underline{0}$$

$\underline{x}_1 - \underline{x}_2 = \underline{0}$  because  $\underline{A}$  is full rank.

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{x}_1 = \underline{x}_2$$

(again a contradiction)

Matrix-matrix multiplication :-

$$\begin{array}{c} \underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m} \\ \underline{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \end{array} \quad \underline{B} = \underline{A} \underline{C} \quad \text{i.e. } \underline{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$$

$$B_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m A_{ik} C_{kj}$$

Inner product form :-

$$\underline{B} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}}_C = \begin{bmatrix} 2a+3c & 2b+3d \\ 3a+4c & 3b+4d \\ 4a+7c & 4b+7d \end{bmatrix}$$

### Linear combination of columns

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{l \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{l \times m} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$$

$\underbrace{B}_{l \times n} = \underbrace{A}_{l \times m} \underbrace{C}_{m \times n}$

Columns of  $\underline{B}$  can be written as linear combination of columns of  $\underline{A}$  with column vectors of  $\underline{C}$  as linear combination coefficients

$$\checkmark b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m c_{kj} a_k$$

### Outer-product form:-

$\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  outer product of two vectors

$\underline{u}$  and  $\underline{v}$  as a rank 1 matrix  $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$

and  $\underline{A} := \underline{u} \underline{v}^T$

$$\underline{B} = \underline{A} \underline{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_A \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_1^T \\ \underline{x}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{x}_m^T \end{bmatrix}_C$$

$i^{th}$  row of  $\underline{C}$  matrix is denoted as a column vector  $\underline{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$\underline{B} = \underline{A} \underline{C} = a_1 \underline{x}_1^T + a_2 \underline{x}_2^T + a_3 \underline{x}_3^T + \dots + a_m \underline{x}_m^T$$

Sum of 'm' rank 1 matrices

### Four fundamental Subspaces of $\underline{A}$

Column space :-  $C(\underline{A}) \rightarrow$  combination of columns

Row space :-  $C(\underline{A}^T) \rightarrow$  combination of rows  
of  $\underline{A}$

Null space :-  $N(\underline{A}) \rightarrow$  all solutions  $\underline{x}$  to  $\underline{A}\underline{x} = \underline{0}$

Left Null space :-  $N(\underline{A}^T) \rightarrow$  all solutions  $\underline{y}$  to  $\underline{A}^T\underline{y} = \underline{0}$

### Inverse of a matrix :-

A full rank square matrix is invertible

i.e., for  $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $m$  columns of  $\underline{A}$  form  
a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

$$\Leftrightarrow \underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \underline{a}_1 & \underline{a}_2 & \dots & \underline{a}_m \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m}$$

$\underline{A}$  is a full rank matrix

Hence,

Any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  can be expressed as  
a linear combination of columns of  $\underline{A}$

$$\underline{e}_j = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{m+1} \quad j^{\text{th}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{e}_j &= \sum_{i=1}^m z_{ij} \underline{a}_i \\ &= \underline{A} \underline{z}_j - (*) \end{aligned}$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 & | & e_2 & | & \dots & | & e_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & \dots & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & \dots & | & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & \dots & | & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & | & \vdots & | & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$I = A Z = A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & 1 \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_m \\ 1 & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix is called the inverse of  $A$ .

$$I = A Z = Z A \quad (\text{Exercise})$$

And this  $Z$  is called inverse of matrix  $A$  and denote as  $A^{-1}$

" Every non-singular square matrix  $A$  has a unique inverse  $A^{-1}$  that satisfies "

$$\boxed{A A^{-1} = A^{-1} A = I}$$

Matrix inverse times vector :-

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \text{ (Full rank)}; b \in \mathbb{R}^m; x \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\boxed{x = A^{-1} b}$$

We can think  $\underline{x}$  as a unique vector

satisfying  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$

$$\underline{b} = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \underline{e}_i \text{ where } \underline{e}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{i}$$

$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$  are the coefficients of expansion  
of  $\underline{b}$  in  $\{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_m\}$

$$\underline{b} = A\underline{x} = \sum_{j=1}^m x_j \underline{a}_j \text{ where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \underline{a}_1 & \underline{a}_2 & \dots & \underline{a}_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Downarrow$

$A^{-1}\underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$  are the coefficients of expansion  
of  $\underline{b}$  in  $\{\underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_2, \dots, \underline{a}_m\}$

This means we can think of  $A^{-1}\underline{b}$  as  
a change of basis operation from

$\{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_m\}$  to  $\{\underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_2, \dots, \underline{a}_m\}$   
i.e columns-space

of  $A$

Transpose of a matrix ( $A^T$ ) :-

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  then  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$   
where  $A^T_{ij} = A_{ji}$

Useful properties of  $\underline{A}^T$  and  $\underline{A}^{-1}$ :

(a)  $(\underline{A} \underline{B})^T = \underline{B}^T \underline{A}^T$  (b)  $(\underline{A} \underline{B})^{-1} = \underline{B}^{-1} \underline{A}^{-1}$   
(c)  $(\underline{A}^T)^{-1} = (\underline{A}^{-1})^T$

If  $\underline{A} = \underline{A}^T$  (Symmetric matrix)

If  $\underline{A} = \underline{A}^H$  (Hermitian matrix)

$\underline{A}^H$  is conjugate transpose of  $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

Inner products:

Let  $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , then inner product of  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  is a scalar  $(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i$$

Euclidean length of a vector  $\underline{x}$  :-

$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{\underline{x}^T \underline{x}} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

Angle between vectors  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  is  $\alpha$

then  $\cos \alpha = \frac{\underline{x}^T \underline{y}}{\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\|}$

Useful properties of inner products:

(a)  $(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2, \underline{y}) = (\underline{x}_1, \underline{y}) + (\underline{x}_2, \underline{y})$

$$(b) (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_1 + \underline{y}_2) = (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_1) + (\underline{x}, \underline{y}_2)$$

$$(c) (\alpha \underline{x}, \beta \underline{y}) = \alpha \beta (\underline{x}, \underline{y})$$

Orthogonality :-

(a) Orthogonal vectors  $\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{y}$  :- Angle b/w vectors is  $90^\circ$  i.e.  $\cos 90^\circ = 0 \Rightarrow (\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = 0$   
 or  $\underline{x}^T \underline{y} = 0$

(b) Orthogonal basis for a subspace :-  
 $\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$  is said to be  
 an orthogonal basis spanning a  $n$ -dimensional space if every pair of vectors in  $\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$  is orthogonal i.e.  $\underline{v}_i^T \underline{v}_j = 0$

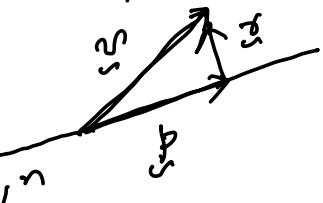
orthonormal basis  $\rightarrow$  In addition to orthogonality,  $\underline{v}_i^T \underline{v}_i = 1$  (Length of each vector is 1)

Result: Vectors in a orthogonal set  $\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$  are linearly independent  
Pf :- exercise

Components of vector :- Consider  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $n$ -dimensional space  $V^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  spanned by an orthonormal set  $\mathcal{Q} = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$  (Note:  $n \leq m$ )

Let us decompose

Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and let us decompose  
 $v = p + \perp$  where  $p \in V^n$   
 the space spanned by  $\mathcal{Q}$   
 and  $\perp$  is orthogonal to  $V^n$



Since  $p \in V^n$ ,  $p = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i q_i$  —  $\textcircled{*}$

$$v = p + \perp \Rightarrow q_j^T v = q_j^T p + q_j^T \perp$$

$$\Rightarrow q_j^T v = q_j^T \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i q_i \right)$$

$i \neq j$  will vanish

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha_j = q_j^T v}$$

$$\Rightarrow v = p + \sum_{i=1}^n (q_i^T v) q_i$$

$$\text{If } m=n \text{ then } v = \sum_{i=1}^m (q_i^T v) q_i$$

i.e. Sum of coefficients of  $\underline{q}_i^T \underline{v}$  times basis vectors  $\underline{q}_i$

$$\text{Also } \underline{v} = \sum_{i=1}^m q_i (q_i^T \underline{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^m (\underbrace{q_i q_i^T}_{\sum P_i} \underline{v})$$

i.e. Sum of orthogonal projections of  $\underline{v}$  onto various directions  $\underline{q}_i$

(c) Orthogonal matrices :-

A square matrix  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is called orthogonal matrix if  $\underline{Q}^T = \underline{Q}^{-1}$

i.e. 
$$\boxed{\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \underline{Q}^T = \underline{I}}$$
 ( $\underline{A} \underline{Z} = \underline{Z} \underline{A} = \underline{I}$ )

$$\underline{Q} = \left[ \underline{q}_1 \mid \underline{q}_2 \mid \dots \mid \underline{q}_m \right]$$

$$\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{q}_1^T \\ \underline{q}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{q}_m^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{q}_1 & \underline{q}_2 & \dots & \underline{q}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & \underline{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

This means  $\underline{q}_i^T \underline{q}_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$

If  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  then  $\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \underline{Q}^T = \underline{I}$

then  $\underline{Q}$  is called unitary matrix

We saw  $\underline{A}\underline{x}$  and  $\underline{A}^{-1}\underline{b}$  interpretations

$$\underline{A} \rightarrow \underline{Q}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \underline{Q}\underline{x} \text{ and } \underline{Q}^{-1}\underline{b} \Rightarrow \underline{Q}^T\underline{b}$$

$\underline{Q}^T\underline{b}$  can be thought of change

of basis from  $\{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_m\}$  to  
orthogonal basis  $\{\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2, \dots, \underline{q}_m\}$   
i.e. columns of  $\underline{Q}$

(i) Orthogonal matrices preserves inner products

$$(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) := \underline{x}^T \underline{y}$$

$$(\underline{Q}\underline{x}, \underline{Q}\underline{y}) = (\underline{Q}\underline{x})^T (\underline{Q}\underline{y}) = \underline{x}^T \underline{Q}^T \underline{Q}\underline{y} \\ = \underline{x}^T \underline{y} = (\underline{x}, \underline{y})$$

(ii) Orthogonal matrices preserves length

$$\|\underline{Q}\underline{x}\| = \|\underline{x}\| \quad (\text{verify?})$$

(iii)  $\det \underline{Q} = \pm 1 \quad [\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{I}]$

(iv) Action of  $\underline{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  on a vector is  
a rigid rotation (if  $\det \underline{Q} = 1$ ) or  
reflection (if  $\det \underline{Q} = -1$ )

