## LINEAR ALGEBRA

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# System of linear equations

Example 1

$$
\begin{cases}\n x_1 + 7x_2 = -57 \\
 12x_1 + 3x_2 = 45\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(1)\n(2)

Step 1: 
$$
\frac{1}{3} \times (2) \Longrightarrow 4x_1 + x_2 = 15
$$
 (2\*)\nStep 2:  $4 \times (1) \Longrightarrow 4x_1 + 28x_2 = -228$  (1\*)\nStep 3:  $(1*) - (2*) \Longrightarrow 27x_2 = -243$ \nStep 4:  $x_2 = -9$ \nStep 5:  $x_1 = 6$ \nLet  $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ , then we can get  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 12 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -57 \\ 45 \end{bmatrix}$ \n $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & \cdot & -57 \\ 12 & 3 & \cdot & 45 \end{bmatrix}$ 

#### Definition 2

The following operations on the *M × N* matrix *A*, are elementary row operations:

- 1. multiply a row of *A* by a non-zero number.
- 2. interchange two rows.
- 3. replace a row by that row plus *c* times another row. where *c* is a non-zero number

#### Definition 3

Suppose *A* and *B* are *M × N* matrices. The matrix *B* is obtained from *A* by a finite sequence of elementary row operations, the *B* and *A* are equivalent.

#### Lemma 4

*If A and B are equivalent, then AX* = 0 *and BX* = 0 *have the same solutions.*

#### Proof.

Operations 1*.* and 2*.*, clearly true Let  $a_m$  be the  $m^{th}$  row of A, Suppose that row m is replaced by row *m* plus *c* times  $k, c \neq 0, k \neq m$ .  $AX = 0 \Longrightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{mn}X_n = 0$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{kn}X_n = 0$ , so that  $\sum_{n=1}^N (a_{mn}X_n + c \times a_{kn})X_n = \sum_{n=1}^N a_{mn}X_n + c \times \sum_{n=1}^N a_{kn}X_n = 0.$ If  $BX = 0$ , the  $\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{n}X_{n} = 0$  for all  $l \neq m$ .  $0 = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (a_{mn} + c \times a_{kn}) X_m = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{mn} X_n + c \times \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{kn} X_n$  $=\sum_{n=1}^{N}a_{mn}X_n=0$ 

Let *A* be an *M × N* matrix, *X* be an *N* dimension vector and *Y* be an *M* dimension vector. The solutions of equation *AX* = *Y* can be obtained from elementary row operations from [ *A Y*] .

#### Definition 5

*A* matrix *B* is row reduced if

- (1) the first non-zero entry in any row is 1.
- (2) each column that contains the first non-zero entry of some row has all its other entries equal to 0.

Example 6

 $\sqrt{ }$  $\mathbf{I}$ 0 1 4 0 0 0 1 0 3 1 is row reduced

#### Definition 7

A matrix is row reduced echelon matrix if

- (1) it is row reduced
- (2) any row of zeros lies below all non-zero rows
- (3) if the non-zero rows are 1 through *r*, and the leading non-zero entry of row *m* is in column *n<sup>m</sup>* for  $m = 1 \cdots r$ .

#### Example 8

 $\sqrt{ }$  $\overline{1}$ 1 0 3 0 1 4 0 0 0 1  $\overline{1}$ 

Lemma 9 *Every matrix is row equivalent to a row reduced echelon matrix.*

Example 10

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 4 & 2 \\ 6 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \\\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{9} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$

Remark 11

*If B is row-reduced echelon matrix, the solutions of BX* = 0 *are obvious.*

Example 12

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

Let  $x_3 = a \Longrightarrow x_2 = -4a$  and  $x_1 = -3a$ .

Theorem 13

*If A is an M*  $\times$  *N* matrix such that  $M < N$ , then  $AX = 0$  has a *non-zero solution.*

#### Some concepts

- 1. A scalar a is single number.
- 2. A vertor a is *k ×* 1 list of numbers, typically arranged in a column.

$$
a = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_k \end{bmatrix}
$$

A vector *a ∈* R *k* (Euclidean *k*-dimensional space).

#### Some concepts

3. A matrix *A* is a *k × r* rectangular array of numbers.

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1r} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & \cdots & a_{kr} \end{bmatrix} = [a_{ij}]
$$

By convention *aij* refers to the i-th row, j-th column of *A*. If  $r = 1$  or  $k = 1$ , then *A* becomes a vector.

4. A matrix can be written as a set of column vectors or a set of row vectors.

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{bmatrix}
$$
, where  $a_i = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1i} & a_{2i} & \cdots & a_{ki} \end{bmatrix}'$ 

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \cdots & \alpha_k \end{bmatrix}', \text{ where } \alpha'_j = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{j1} & \alpha_{j2} & \cdots & \alpha_{jr} \end{bmatrix}
$$

- 5. A matrix is square if  $k = r$ .
- 6. A square matrix is symmetric if  $A = A'$ .

$$
(D \times (B \times (B \times (B \times B)) \times B \times (B \times (B \times B)))
$$

#### Some concepts

- 7. A square matrix is diagonal if and only if non-zero elements appear on diagonal, i.e.  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ .
- 8. A square matrix is upper diagonal if all elements below the diagonal equal zero.
- 9. A square matrix is lower diagonal if all elements above the diagonal equal zero.
- 10. The transpose of a matrix, denoted  $B = A'$ , is obtained by flipping the matrix on its diagonal.

$$
B = A' = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{k1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1r} & a_{2r} & \cdots & a_{kr} \end{bmatrix}
$$

### Some concepts

11. A partitioned matrix

$$
\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1r} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{k1} & A_{k2} & \cdots & A_{kr} \end{bmatrix}
$$

*Aij* denote matrices, vectors and/or scalars.

12. An important diagonal matrix is the identity matrix, which has all ones on the diagonal

$$
I_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}
$$
  
If *A* is a  $k \times r$  matrix, then  $AI_r = A$  and  $I_k A = A$ .

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Matrix operations

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \cdots & a_{kr} \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \cdots & b_{kr} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{1r} + b_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} + b_{k1} & \cdots & a_{kr} + b_{kr} \end{bmatrix} \qquad cA = \begin{bmatrix} c_{a_{11}} & \cdots & c_{a_{1r}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{a_{k1}} & \cdots & c_{a_{kr}} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
A \text{ is a } k \times r \text{ matrix, } B \text{ is an } r \times s \text{ matrix, then}
$$

$$
[AB]_{ij} = \sum_{p=1}^r a_{ip}b_{pj}
$$

## Orthogonal vectors and orthogonalmatrix

#### Definition 14

Two vectors *a*, *b* are orthogonal if  $a'b = 0$ , i.e.  $\sum_{k=1}^{K} a_k b_k = 0$ .

#### Definition 15

Suppose *A* is a  $k \times r$  matrix,  $k > r$ , its columns are orthogonal if  $A' A = I_k.$ 

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{bmatrix}
$$

A square matrix  $A$  is orthogonal if  $A^{'}A = I_{k}$ .

### Trace of matrix

#### Definition 16

The trace of a  $k \times k$  square matrix  $A$  is the sum of its diagonal elements

$$
tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ii}
$$

Trace is related to the concept "degree of freedom". Suppose we regress *Y* on *X*, we can get  $\hat{Y} = X\tilde{\beta}$ , it can be written as  $\hat{Y} = S(X)Y$ , where  $S(X)$  is a matrix that depends X.

"degree of freedom" =  $tr(S(X))$ 

 $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$ , then we can get  $\hat{Y} = X(X'X)^{-1}X'Y$  and  $S(X) = X(X|X)^{-1}X$ .

$$
tr[X(X \mid X)^{-1} X] = tr[(X \mid X)^{-1} X \mid X] = tr[I_k] = k
$$

## Trace of matrix

Some properties of trace

- 1. *tr*(*cA*)= *c· tr*(*A*)
- 2.  $tr(A') = tr(A)$
- 3.  $tr(A + B) = tr(A) + tr(B)$
- 4.  $tr(I^k) = k$
- 5. *tr*(*AB*) = *tr*(*BA*)
- $6.$   $tr(ABC) = tr(BCA) = tr(CAB)$

#### Definition 17

A *k × k* matrix *A* has full rank, or is non-singular, if there is no  $c \neq 0$  such that  $Ac = 0$ . In this case, these exists a unique matrix *B* such that  $AB = BA = I_k$ . This matrix is called the inverse of A and denoted *A −*1 .

Some properties

(1) 
$$
AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_k
$$

$$
(2) (A^{-1})' = (A')^{-1}
$$

 $(AC)^{-1} = C^{-1}A^{-1}$ 

Some properties

(4) 
$$
(A + C)^{-1} = A^{-1}(A^{-1} + C^{-1})^{-1}C^{-1}
$$
  
Proof.

$$
(A + C)(A + C)^{-1} = (A + C)A^{-1}(A^{-1} + C^{-1})^{-1}C^{-1}
$$
  
= (A + C)(C(A<sup>-1</sup> + C<sup>-1</sup>)A)<sup>-1</sup>  
= (A + C)((CA<sup>-1</sup> + I)A)<sup>-1</sup>  
= (A + C)(C + A)<sup>-1</sup> = I

(5) Woodbury Matrix Identity

 $(A + UCV)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}$ Special case:  $U = V = I$  $(A + C)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}(C^{-1} + A^{-1})^{-1}A^{-1}$ 

 $\Box$ 

$$
= (A + UCV)[A^{-1} - A^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}]
$$
  
\n
$$
= I - U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1} + UCVA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
-UCVA^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
= I + UCVA^{-1} - (I + UCVA^{-1})U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
= I + UCVA^{-1} - (U + UCVA^{-1}U)(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
= I + UCVA^{-1} - UC(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
= I + UCVA^{-1} - UCVA^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
= I
$$
  
\n
$$
= I - UCVA^{-1}
$$

Proof.

 $(A + UCV)(A + UCV)^{-1}$ 

Inverse of a matrix

Computaton of matrix inverse

How to calculate *A −*1 ?

$$
\begin{bmatrix} A & \vdots & I \end{bmatrix}
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} I & \vdots & A^{-1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

Example 18

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -6 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{-1}
$$
?

Solution

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
-6 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_2 - R_1}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
-6 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_3 + 6R_1}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 - 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & -4 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 1\n\end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\xrightarrow{R_3 + 4R_2}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 - 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 4 & 1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_3}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 - 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -4 & -1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_2 + R_3}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 - 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -4 & -1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_1 + R_2}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n1 & 0 & 0 & -2 & -3 & -1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & -3 & -3 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -4 & -1\n\end{bmatrix}\n\xrightarrow{R_2 + R_3}\n\begin{bmatrix}\n-2 & -3 & -1 \\
-3 & -3 & -1 \\
-2 & -4 & -1\n\end{bmatrix}
$$

Example 19

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

Is A invertible?

Inversion of partitioned matrix

$$
\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} & -E^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ -D^{-1}CE^{-1} & F^{-1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

Where  $E = A - BD^{-1}C$  and  $F = D - CA^{-1}B$ . E and F are Schur complement.

$$
E^{-1} = (A - BD^{-1}C)^{-1} = A^{-1} + A^{-1}BF^{-1}CA^{-1}
$$
  

$$
F^{-1} = (D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} = D^{-1} + D^{-1}CE^{-1}BD^{-1}
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nA & B & \vdots & I & 0 \\
C & D & \vdots & 0 & I\n\end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nA & B & \vdots & I & 0 \\
D^{-1}C & I & \vdots & 0 & D^{-1}\n\end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nA - BD^{-1}C & 0 & \vdots & I & -BD^{-1} \\
D^{-1}C & I & \vdots & 0 & D^{-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
D^{-1}C & I & \vdots & 0 & D^{-1}\n\end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nI & 0 & \vdots & E^{-1} & -E^{-1}BD^{-1} \\
D^{-1}C & I & \vdots & 0 & D^{-1}\n\end{bmatrix}
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 & \vdots & E^{-1} & -E^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ 0 & I & \vdots & -D^{-1}CE^{-1} & F^{-1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

Then we can get

$$
\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} & -E^{-1}BD^{-1} \\ -D^{-1}EC^{-1} & F^{-1} \end{bmatrix}
$$