LINEAR ALGEBRA

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System of linear equations

Example 1

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

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

Definition 2

The following operations on the $M \times N$ 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 $M \times N$ 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 $\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_{ln}X_n = 0$ 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 $M \times N$ 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 $\begin{bmatrix} A & Y \end{bmatrix}$.

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 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_m for $m = 1 \cdots r$.

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Example 8

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

Lemma 9

Every matrix is row equivalent to a row reduced echelon matrix.

Example 10

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

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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 $k \times 1$ list of numbers, typically arranged in a column.

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

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A vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ (Euclidean *k*-dimensional space).

Some concepts

3. A matrix A is a $k \times r$ 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 a_{ij} 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.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } a_i = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1i} & a_{2i} & \cdots & a_{ki} \end{bmatrix}'$$
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \cdots & \alpha_k \end{bmatrix}', \text{ where } \alpha'_j = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{j1} & \alpha_{j2} & \cdots & \alpha_{jr} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

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

 A_{ij} 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 $I_{k}A = A$.

Matrix operations

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

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

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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 $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$, 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 $S(X) = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$.

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

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Trace of matrix

Some properties of trace

1. $tr(cA) = c \cdot tr(A)$ 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 $k \times k$ 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) $(A^{-1})' = (A')^{-1}$
(3) $(AC)^{-1} = C^{-1}A^{-1}$

Some properties

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

Proof.

$$(A + C)(A + C)^{-1} = (A + C)A^{-1}(A^{-1} + C^{-1})^{-1}C^{-1}$$
$$= (A + C)(C(A^{-1} + C^{-1})A)^{-1}$$
$$= (A + C)((CA^{-1} + I)A)^{-1}$$
$$= (A + C)(C + A)^{-1} = I$$

(5) Woodbury Matrix Identity

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

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

Proof.

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

=(A + UCV)[A⁻¹ - A⁻¹U(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹]
=I - U(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹ + UCVA⁻¹
-UCVA⁻¹U(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹
=I + UCVA⁻¹ - (I + UCVA⁻¹)U(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹
=I + UCVA⁻¹ - (U + UCVA⁻¹U)(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹
=I + UCVA⁻¹ - UC(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹
=I + UCVA⁻¹ - UC(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)(C⁻¹ + VA⁻¹U)⁻¹VA⁻¹
=I + UCVA⁻¹ - UCVA⁻¹

Computaton of matrix inverse

How to calculate A^{-1} ?

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

Example 18

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

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Solution

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

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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.

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

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

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Proof.

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

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

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