

Linear Algebra TSC

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IIT Bombay

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Table of Contents

- 1 **Matrices**
- 2 EROs, ERMs, RREFs, and more
- 3 Vector spaces
- 4 Ranks of a matrix
- 5 Inner products
- 6 Eigenvectors and eigenvalues
- 7 Normal matrices and Spectral Theorems

Matrices

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We have the **augmented matrix** defined by $A^+ := [A \mid \mathbf{b}]$, which completely captures the whole system.

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Corresponding to each of the operations above, there are obvious row operations that can be performed on A^+ , called the **elementary row operations (EROs)**.

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The matrix above is not in RREF. It violates *both* the conditions.

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It is fairly straightforward to perform EROs to turn A into an REF (and further an RREF).

Application of Gauss to solving linear equations

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Note: The above algorithm does not require prior knowledge that A is invertible. If you perform it on a non-invertible matrix, you'll end up finding out that it is not invertible.

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We write $V = \text{span}\{\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_k\}$ and say that V is **spanned** (or **generated**) by $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_k$.

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Rephrasing slightly, linear independence means that

$$a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow a_1 = \dots = a_k = 0.$$

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The size of B is called the **dimension** of V , denoted $\dim(V)$.

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The above was the *First Fundamental Lemma in linear algebra*.

Table of Contents

- 1 Matrices
- 2 EROs, ERMs, RREFs, and more
- 3 Vector spaces
- 4 Ranks of a matrix**
- 5 Inner products
- 6 Eigenvectors and eigenvalues
- 7 Normal matrices and Spectral Theorems

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Theorem 9

Row rank = Column rank = number of pivots in any REF.

The common quantity above is called the **rank** of A .

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On the other hand, if you are asked to find a basis for the row space, then you pick the nonzero rows from any REF of A .

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What if “infinitely many” is replaced with “unique”?

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An example

Suppose that we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{1} & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \boxed{2} & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that we wish to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ to get the null space. Thus, the equations obtained are

$$2x_3 + 4x_4 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0.$$

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Thus, we get a basis as $\{[-3 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]^T, [1 \ 0 \ -2 \ 1]^T\}$.

An example (continued)

Suppose that we were asked to find the general solution set of

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The general solution now is $\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathcal{N}(A)$. We had already found a basis earlier. Thus, the complete set of solutions is given by

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} : x_2, x_4 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

Determinants

We know what the determinant of a matrix is. Furthermore, we know its basic properties: it is multilinear, alternating, and $\det(\mathbf{I}) = 1$.

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In other words, the rank is the size of the largest square submatrix with nonzero determinant. Note that there may still be *some* $k \times k$ submatrices with zero determinant.

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True/False: Let A be a square matrix such that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has a unique solution, and fix $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{K}^n$. Does $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ also have a unique solution?

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Recall that the **adjugate** of a square matrix A is the transpose of the cofactor matrix, and is denoted by $\text{adj}(A)$. We have $\text{adj}(A)A = \det(A)\mathbf{I}$. If A is invertible, then $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \text{adj}(A)$. In this case, the unique solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{(\text{adj}(A))\mathbf{b}}{\det(A)}.$$

The above is essentially Cramer's rule.

Table of Contents

- 1 Matrices
- 2 EROs, ERMs, RREFs, and more
- 3 Vector spaces
- 4 Ranks of a matrix
- 5 Inner products**
- 6 Eigenvectors and eigenvalues
- 7 Normal matrices and Spectral Theorems

Inner products

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Similarly, one has Pythagoras theorem and Cauchy Schwarz:

$$|\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{v}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}_2\|.$$

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Any orthogonal set of nonzero vectors is linearly independent.

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Any orthogonal set of nonzero vectors is linearly independent.
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Let λ be an eigenvalue of an $n \times n$ matrix A . Let g and m denote the geometric and algebraic multiplicities of λ respectively. Then,

$$1 \leq g \leq m \leq n.$$

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If A satisfies either (and hence, both) condition, then A is said to be **diagonalisable over \mathbb{K}** .

Criteria for diagonalisability

Let $A \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$ be a square matrix, and let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{K}$ be the distinct eigenvalues of A .

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Example: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalisable over \mathbb{C} but not over \mathbb{R} .

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- 1 **normal**; $AA^* = A^*A$,
- 2 **Hermitian**; $A^* = A$,
- 3 **skew-Hermitian**; $A^* = -A$,
- 4 **unitary**; $AA^* = \mathbf{I}$,
- 5 **orthogonal**; A is unitary and real.

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Also note that a diagonal matrix is Hermitian iff it is real.

Similarly, a diagonal matrix is skew-Hermitian iff it is purely imaginary.

Spectral theorem

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The converse of the above is true as well: if A is unitarily diagonalisable (or has an orthonormal eigenbasis), then A is normal.

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Theorem 25

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric. Then, there exists an orthogonal matrix $O \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $O^T A O$ is diagonal.