

## Review of Linear Algebra

Matrix - rectangular array of numbers

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

columns

rows

3x2 matrix

↑ # of rows

↑ # of columns

### Operations

#### Matrix Addition

- only defined for matrices of the same size
- add term for term

#### Scalar Multiplication

- if  $k = \text{constant}$  and  $A = \text{matrix}$

$kA$  obtained by multiplying each entry of  $A$  by  $k$

$$3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 9 & 6 \\ 0 & -3 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Multiplication of Matrices

If  $A$  is an  $m \times r$  matrix and if  $B$  is an  $r \times n$  matrix, then the product

$AB$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix  
order is important

Ex.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 5 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

2x3 matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 8 & 1 \\ 2 & 8 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3x3 matrix

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 3 & 8 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2x3 matrix

$BA = \text{undefined}$

Any linear system of equations can be expressed in terms of matrices

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

⋮

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

The above system is equivalent to:

$$AX = B$$

where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

m x n matrix

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

n x 1 matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

m x 1 matrix

$$\underbrace{\quad \quad \quad}_{AX} = \underbrace{\quad \quad \quad}_B$$

m x 1 matrix      m x 1 matrix

Trace

Defined only for square matrices  
 - sum of the elements on the main diagonal

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 11 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{tr}(A) = 4 + 5 - 2 = 7$$

Transpose

If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix, then  $A^t$  ( $A$  transpose) is an  $n \times m$  matrix obtained by interchanging rows and columns of  $A$ .

Defined for all matrices!

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

$2 \times 3$  matrix

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

$3 \times 2$  matrix

If  $A$  is a matrix with complex entries, then the conjugate transpose of  $A$  denoted by  $A^*$ , is defined by

$$A^* = \bar{A}^t$$

where  $\bar{A}$  is the matrix whose entries are the complex conjugates of the corresponding entries in  $A$ , and  $\bar{A}^t$  is the transpose of  $\bar{A}$

Ex.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & -i & 0 \\ 2 & 3-2i & i \end{bmatrix}$        $\bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & i & 0 \\ 2 & 3+2i & -i \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^* = \bar{A}^t = \begin{bmatrix} 1-i & 2 \\ i & 3+2i \\ 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of transpose with A and B matrices with complex entries and k is any complex number

- a)  $(A^*)^* = A$
- b)  $(A+B)^* = A^* + B^*$
- c)  $(kA)^* = \bar{k} A^*$
- d)  $(AB)^* = B^* A^*$       ← order important

A square matrix A with complex entries is Hermitian if  $A = A^*$

## Determinants

If A is a square matrix. The determinant of A,  $\det(A)$  is defined to be the sum of all signed elementary products from A.

The signed elementary products are obtained from the associated permutation so don't worry about the definition.

To obtain the determinant for a  $2 \times 2$  matrix

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

For  $3 \times 3$  case

$$\begin{aligned} \det \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} &= a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a_{11}(a_{22}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}a_{33} - a_{23}a_{31}) + a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31}) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: If  $A$  is any square matrix that contains a row of zeros, then  $\det(A) = 0$

Theorem: A square matrix  $B$  has an inverse if and only if  $\det(B) \neq 0$

## Vector space

Subspace - A subset  $W$  of a vector space  $V$  is a subspace of  $V$  if  $W$  itself is closed under addition and scalar multiplication.

Closed under addition means:

If  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in W$ ,  $\vec{u} + \vec{v} \in W$   
 $\uparrow$   
 are contained  
 in  $W$

Closed under scalar multiplication means:

If  $\vec{u} \in W, k \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $k\vec{u} \in W$

Def: If  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r$  is a set in  $V$  such that every vector in  $V$  is a linear combination of  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r$ , then we say that  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r$  span  $V$ . For every  $\vec{u} \in V$  there exists  $k_1, \dots, k_r$   

$$\vec{u} = k_1 \vec{v}_1 + k_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + k_r \vec{v}_r$$

Def  $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r\}$  are linearly independent if

$\vec{0} = k_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + k_r \vec{v}_r$  has only the trivial solution (i.e.  $k_1 = k_2 = \dots = k_r = 0$  - only solution is zero, therefore this is a unique solution (only one possible!))

$\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r\}$  are linearly dependent if

$\vec{0} = k_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + k_r \vec{v}_r$  has nontrivial solutions. the only

Def If  $V$  is any vector space and  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a set of vectors in  $V$ , then  $S$  is called a basis for  $V$  if the following two conditions hold:

- (a)  $S$  is linearly independent
- (b)  $S$  spans  $V$

### Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors

Def: If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then a nonzero vector  $x$  in  $R^n$  is called an eigenvector of  $A$  if  $Ax$  is a scalar multiple of  $x$ ; that is,

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$$

for some scalar  $\lambda$ . The scalar  $\lambda$  is called an eigenvalue of  $A$ , and  $x$  is said to be an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$

$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$  can also be written

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda \cdot I\vec{x} \quad \text{where } I \equiv \text{identity matrix for } 2 \times 2$$

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

now  $A\vec{x} - \lambda I\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

$$(A - \lambda I)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$\text{or } (\lambda I - A)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

For existence of nontrivial solutions

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

Ex.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda I - A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & 0 \\ -1 & \lambda - 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 5) - (-1)(0) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2 \quad \lambda_2 = 5 \quad \text{eigenvalues}$$

To find corresponding eigenvectors - substitute eigenvalues into  $\lambda I - A$  and find basis for null space

Def: The Nullspace of  $A$  is the solution space of  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

For above example

$$\lambda_1 = 2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-2 & 0 \\ -1 & 2-5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-x_1 - 3x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = -3x_2$$

$$\text{let } x_2 = t$$

$$x_1 = -3t$$



$$[x] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

now,  $\lambda_2 = 5$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5-2 & 0 \\ -1 & 5-5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{1st} + (3)\text{2nd}]{\text{row reduce}} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(\frac{1}{3})\text{1st}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 0 \\ x_2 &= t \end{aligned}$$

$$[x] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

now,  $\vec{v}_1$  and  $\vec{v}_2$  form a basis for nullspace

If  $k$  is a positive integer,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , and  $\vec{x}$  is a corresponding eigenvector, then  $\lambda^k$  is an eigenvalue of  $A^k$  and  $\vec{x}$  is a corresponding eigenvector.

Example

$$A^2 \vec{x} = A(A\vec{x}) = A(\lambda \vec{x}) = \lambda(A\vec{x}) = \lambda(\lambda \vec{x}) = \lambda^2 \vec{x}$$

true for all  $k$

# Determining Eigenvectors

From Class



2/9/93

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} 1 \rightarrow & 1 \rightarrow & 1 \rightarrow & 1 \rightarrow \\ \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \end{array}$$

Looking at the inner 2 by 2 matrix

$$A = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cc} 1 \rightarrow & 1 \rightarrow \\ \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \end{array}$$

Now, solve for eigenvalues as done previously

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 1 & -1 \\ -1 & \lambda - 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 1) - (-1)(-1) = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda = 0$$

$$\lambda(\lambda - 2) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 0, 2$$

are eigenvalues

Now, to get eigenvectors substitute eigenvalues back into matrix  $(\lambda I - A)$  or  $(A - \lambda I)$  and solve matrix

For  $\lambda = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{1st} - \text{2nd}]{\text{row reduce}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(-1) \text{ 1st}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} | + \rightarrow | - + \rightarrow \\ | + \rightarrow | - + \rightarrow \end{matrix}$$

now, the solution for the nullspace  $A|\lambda=0\rangle = \vec{0}$  is

$$| + \rightarrow \rangle + | - + \rangle = 0$$

$$| + \rightarrow \rangle = - | - + \rangle$$

if we let  $| - + \rangle = s$

then  $| + \rightarrow \rangle = -s$

where:

\*  $s$  is some arbitrary value

\* note: We are solving  $| + \rightarrow \rangle$  in terms of  $| - + \rangle$

We could also do this

the other way. This

is just the arbitrary

phase.

Thus, the solution is

For  $\lambda = 0$

$$|\lambda=0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} | + \rightarrow \rangle \\ | - + \rangle \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

now, note that the value obtained is not normalized:  
 $\sqrt{(-1)^2 + (1)^2} = \sqrt{2} \neq 1$

therefore, divide by total length  $\sqrt{2}$

$$|\lambda=0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} | + \rightarrow \rangle \\ | - + \rangle \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\lambda=0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-| + \rightarrow \rangle + | - + \rangle) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (| + \rightarrow \rangle - | - + \rangle)$$

phase difference between the two vectors

Similarly, for  $\lambda = 2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{1^{\text{st}} + 2^{\text{nd}}} \begin{bmatrix} 1+ & 1- \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1+ \rightarrow = 1- \rightarrow$$

$$\text{let } 1- \rightarrow = 5$$

$$1+ \rightarrow = 5$$

$$|\lambda=2\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1+ \rightarrow \\ 1- \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

normalizing

$$|\lambda=2\rangle = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\lambda=2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1+ \rightarrow + 1- \rightarrow)$$

Now, let's show the original matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is

orthogonally diagonalizable. We need to show that there exists an orthogonal matrix  $P$  such that  $P^{-1}AP = D$  where  $D$  is a diagonal matrix whose entries are the eigenvalues of matrix  $A$ .

From my previous Linear Algebra handout  $\vec{v}_1$  and  $\vec{v}_2$  form a basis for nullspace

Using  $\vec{v}_1$  and  $\vec{v}_2$  as column vectors (we already made them orthonormal) \* note: the order of the column vectors is not important because the eigenvalue placement is arbitrary

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{(ad-bc)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

then 
$$P^{-1} = \frac{1}{(-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2})} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

now  $P^{-1}AP$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  because  $\lambda = 0, 2$  are eigenvalues of  $A$

$\therefore A$  is orthogonally diagonalizable