

Linear Algebra Review

- Objects

- Scalars $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} , Vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (column), Matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- Components: $(x)_i = x_i$, $(A)_{ij} = a_{ij}$, columns of A : $a_{.j}$, rows of A : a_i .

- Actions

- Transpose: $(A^T)_{ij} = (A)_{ji}$
- Scalar Product: $(\alpha x)_i = \alpha(x)_i$, $(\alpha A)_{ij} = \alpha(A)_{ij}$
- Inner or Dot Product: $x \cdot y = x^T y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$
Vectors x and y are *orthogonal* if $x \cdot y = 0$.
- Matrix-Vector Product: $(Ax)_i = a_i \cdot x = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$
- Matrix-Matrix Product: $(AB)_{ij} = a_i \cdot b_{.j} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$
Number of columns of A must be the same as number of rows of B
Typically $AB \neq BA$
- Identity Matrix: $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (or I_n); $(I)_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$ where $\delta_{ij} = 1$ if $i = j$, 0 otherwise; columns are e_j
- Outer or Tensor Product: $(xy^T)_{ij} = (x \otimes y)_{ij} = x_i y_j$
 $(I + xy^T)z = z + (xy^T)z = z + x(y^T z) = z + (y \cdot z)x$

- Sets of Vectors: $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^m$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- Linear Combination: $v = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i x_i$
- Convex Combination: same as LC but, $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_i \alpha_i = 1$
- Span: set of all linear combinations
- Convex Hull: set of all convex combinations
- Linearly Independent: if $\sum_i \alpha_i x_i = 0$ if and only if $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i ; Linearly Dependent otherwise
If $m > n$ then they must be linearly dependent
- Basis: if linearly independent they form a basis for the span, i.e. every vector in the span has a unique representation in the form $\sum_i \alpha_i x_i$
If $m = n$ and linearly independent, the span is \mathbb{R}^n and the vectors form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n
If the vectors are non-zero, pairwise orthogonal, i.e. $x_i \cdot x_j = 0$ if $i \neq j$, then they are linearly independent and form an *orthogonal basis*
If, in addition, $x_i \cdot x_i = 1$, they form an *orthonormal basis*

- Norms

- Vector Norm: for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, length or norm of x is denoted by $\|x\|$
It has the following properties
 1. $\|x\| \geq 0$ for all x and $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$
 2. $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$ for all x and α
 3. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ for all x and y

Examples: $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$, $\|x\|_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$, $\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$

Theorem: All vector norms on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent, i.e. there are constants c_1 and c_2 such that $c_1\|x\| \leq \|x\|' \leq c_2\|x\|$ for all x

Property: For non-zero $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the angle θ between these vectors is defined by

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2}$$

– Matrix Norm: Same notation and same properties as vector norm. May add the condition that $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$

Example: $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} a_{ij}^2}$ (Frobinius Norm)

Induced or Subordinate Matrix Norm: based on a vector norm, we have

$$\|A\| = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}$$

Also has the property that $\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$

Examples: $\|A\|_\infty = \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}|$, $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\text{largest eigenvalue of } A^T A}$

• Linear Systems: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, find $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $Ax = b$

– When $m > n$ (overdetermined system); typically no solution; solve instead least-squares problem:

Find $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which minimizes $\|Ax - b\|_2^2$; the solution satisfies the normal equations $A^T Ax = A^T b$

– When $m < n$ (underdetermined system); typically a family of solutions; solve instead by adding additional condition like solution must be of minimum norm, i.e. $\|x\|_2$ is as small as possible

– When $m = n$; typically one unique solution (when A is invertible, non-singular, $\det A \neq 0$, A has full rank, $Ax = 0$ has only $x = 0$ as a solution, or other conditions)

Solution is $x = A^{-1}b$, but except in the 2×2 case, we never compute x this way, instead we use some computationally stable method like Gaussian Elimination to solve the system $Ax = b$

• Eigenvalue and Eigenvectors

– For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $v \neq 0$, if $Av = \lambda v$ then λ is an eigenvalue of A and v is a corresponding eigenvector

If v is an eigenvector for λ , then so is αv for any $\alpha \neq 0$

– Eigenvalues: A has n eigenvalues which are the roots of the polynomial $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

– Eigenvector: for λ , solve $(A - \lambda I)v = 0$ for the eigenvector v

– Symmetry: A is symmetric if $A^T = A$; if A is symmetric then all the eigenvalues are real and the eigenvectors can be chosen in such a way that they form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n

• Quadratic Form: From $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, A symmetric, $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we form the quadratic form

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - x^T b + c$$

$$x^T Ax = \sum_{ij} a_{ij} x_i x_j$$

$\hat{x} = A^{-1}b$ is a minimizer of ϕ if and only if all the eigenvalues of A are positive (i.e. A is positive definite)