

# ME 547: Linear Systems

## Review of Matrices and Linear Algebra

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# WHAT IS THE MATRIX?

Figure: source: <https://steemit.com/life/@suraj0651/what-is-the-matrix>

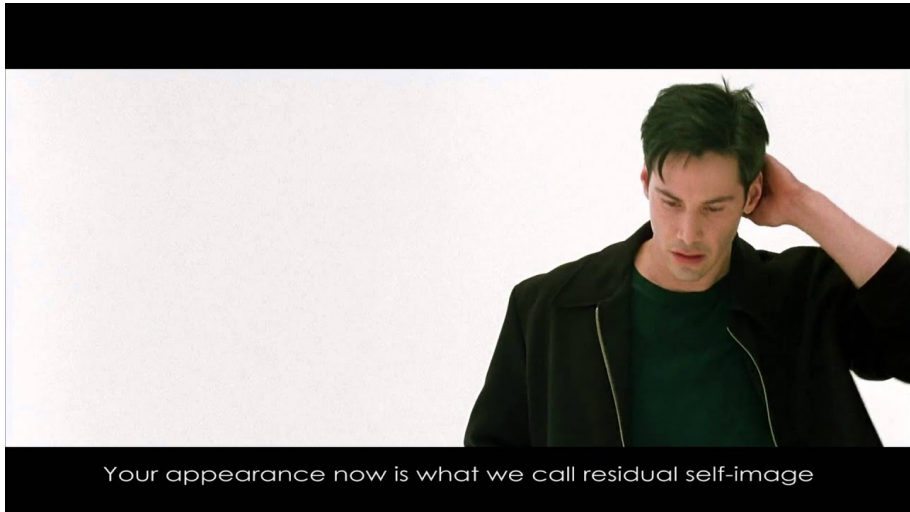


Figure: source: the Matrix film

1. Basic concepts of matrices and vectors
2. Vector space, linear independence, basis, and span
3. Matrix defines linear transformations between vector spaces
4. Matrix properties
5. Matrix and linear equations
6. Eigenvector and eigenvalue
  - Matrix, mappings, and eigenvectors
  - Computation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors
  - Eigenbases and diagonalization
7. Matrix inversion

# Basic concepts of matrices and vectors

A linear equation set

$$\begin{aligned}3x_1 + 4x_2 + 10x_3 &= 6 \\x_1 + 4x_2 - 10x_3 &= 5 \\4x_2 + 10x_3 &= -1\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

can be simply written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 10 \\ 1 & 4 & -10 \\ 0 & 4 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}\tag{2}$$

Imagine using (1) instead of (2) when we have thousands of unknowns...

# Basic concepts of matrices and vectors

Formally, we write an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  as

$$A = [a_{jk}] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \dots & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶  $m \times n$  (reads  $m$  by  $n$ ) is the dimension/size of the matrix.
- ▶ Each element  $a_{jk}$  is an entry of the matrix.
- ▶ If  $m = n$ ,  $A$  is a square matrix.
- ▶ Concepts of diagonal entries, upper triangular matrices, lower triangular matrices, diagonal matrices, and the identity matrix

# Basic concepts of matrices and vectors

Vectors: special matrices whose row or column number is one.

- ▶ A  $1 \times n$  row vector:  $a = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$
- ▶ An  $m \times 1$  column vector:

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix addition and multiplication

- ▶ The **sum** of two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  of the same size:

$$A + B = [a_{jk} + b_{jk}]$$

- ▶ The **product** between an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  and a scalar  $c$ :

$$cA = [ca_{jk}]$$

- ▶ The **matrix product**  $C = AB$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ \boxed{a_{21}} & \boxed{a_{22}} & \boxed{a_{23}} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{b_{11}} & b_{12} \\ \boxed{b_{21}} & b_{22} \\ \boxed{b_{31}} & b_{32} \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ \boxed{c_{21}} & c_{22} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} \\ c_{41} & c_{42} \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 2}$$

where  $c_{21} = a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} + a_{23}b_{31} =$   
"second row of  $A$ "  $\times$  "first column of  $B$ "



# Matrix multiplication is not commutative

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & B & = & C \\ [m \times n] & [n \times p] & & [m \times p] \end{array}$$

$AB$  in general does not equal to  $BA$ , e.g.:

$$ABC = (AB)C = A(BC) \neq BCA$$

## Matrices as combination of vectors

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 \\ a_{41}x_1 + a_{42}x_2 + a_{43}x_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is the}$$

weighted sum of the columns of  $A$ :

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \\ a_{41} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{32} \\ a_{42} \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} a_{13} \\ a_{23} \\ a_{33} \\ a_{43} \end{bmatrix}$$

So for  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 10 \\ 1 & 4 & -10 \\ 0 & 4 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  to have a solution,  $\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

must be a linear combination of the columns of  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 10 \\ 1 & 4 & -10 \\ 0 & 4 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# Matrix transposition

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times m}$$

Properties:

- ▶  $(A^T)^T = A$
- ▶  $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- ▶  $(cA)^T = cA^T$
- ▶  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

$A$  is called *symmetric* if  $A = A^T$ , *skew-symmetric* if  $A = -A^T$ .

## Example (Matrix and quadratic forms)

We can use matrices to express general quadratic functions of vectors. For instance

$$f(x) = x^T Ax + 2bx + c$$

is equivalent to

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} A & b \\ b^T & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Vector space, linear independence

Given nonzero vectors  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$  with the same size,

- ▶  $k_1 a_1 + k_2 a_2 + \dots + k_m a_m$  is a linear combination of the vectors.
- ▶  $a_1$  is *linearly dependent* on  $a_2, a_3, \dots, a_m$  if  $\exists k_2, \dots, k_m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a_1 = k_2 a_2 + k_3 a_3 + \dots + k_m a_m$ .
  - ▶ The set  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  is then a linearly dependent set.
- ▶ Why is linear independence important? - getting the smallest “truly essential” set in a possibly large set of vectors.
- ▶ the concept of a vector space

## Span and basis

- ▶ The *span* of the  $n$  vectors: all the possible linear combinations of these vectors.
- ▶ A *basis* of  $V$  is a set  $B$  of vectors in  $V$ , such that any  $v \in V$  can be uniquely expressed as a finite linear combination of vectors in  $B$ .

### Example

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a linearly independent set and forms a basis.

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

is not a linearly independent set.

# Matrix defines linear transformations between vector spaces

## Example (A person with two ID cards)

General Info:	Company 1	Company 2
name,		
height,	$x_1 = X$	$y_1 = X$
birthday	$x_2 = 6.0$ (ft)	$y_2 = 6019901201$
	$x_3 = 19901201$	$y_3 = 182.88$ (cm)

The two ID cards are related by

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 10^9 & 1 \\ 0 & 30.48 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

To shift data base, just perform a matrix multiplication.

# Matrix defines linear transformations between vector spaces

## Example (Rotation matrix)

A vector  $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$  is rotated by an angle of  $\theta$  in the 2-dimensional vector space. Let  $x_1 = r \cos \alpha$  and  $x_2 = r \sin \alpha$ . The rotated vector has the following representation

$$y_1 = r \cos(\theta + \alpha) = r \cos \theta \cos \alpha - r \sin \theta \sin \alpha$$

$$y_2 = r \sin(\theta + \alpha) = r \sin \theta \cos \alpha + r \cos \theta \sin \alpha$$

namely,

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Matrix properties

- ▶ *Rank*: the maximum number of linearly independent row or column vectors

## Example (Dyad)

$A = uv^T$  is called a dyad, where  $u$  and  $v$  are vectors of proper dimensions. It is a rank 1 matrix, as can be seen that  $A = uv^T$  is formed by linear combinations of the vector  $u$ , where the weights of the combinations are coefficients of  $v$ .

- ▶ *Range space*  $\mathcal{R}(A)$ : the span of all the column vectors
- ▶ *Null space*  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ :  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = 0\}$
- ▶ *Nullity*: the dimension of the null space

# Determinants

- ▶  $2 \times 2$  matrices:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$$

- ▶  $3 \times 3$  matrices:

$$\begin{aligned} \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & k \end{bmatrix} &= a \det \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ h & k \end{bmatrix} - b \det \begin{bmatrix} d & f \\ g & k \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad + c \det \begin{bmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \\ &= aek + bfg + cdh - gec - bdk - ahf \end{aligned}$$

# Determinants

## Theorem

The determinant of  $A$  is nonzero if and only if  $A$  is full rank.

## Definition

A linear transformation is called *singular* if the determinant of the corresponding transformation matrix is zero.

- ▶ If  $A$  and  $B$  are square matrices, then

$$\det(AB) = \det(BA) = \det A \det B$$

$$\det(A^T) = \det(A)$$

## Matrix and linear equations

Consider again, using now concepts in range and null spaces of matrices, the linear equations

$$Ax = y \quad (4)$$

- ▶ *Existence* of solutions requires that  $y \in \mathcal{R}(A)$
- ▶ *Solutions*, if exist, are constructed from

$$x = x_0 + z : Az = 0 \quad (5)$$

where  $x_0$  is any (fixed) solution of (4) and  $z$  runs through all vectors in the null space of  $A$ .

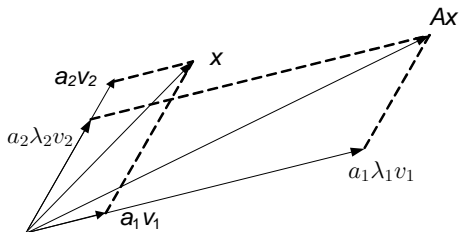
- ▶ *Uniqueness* of a solution: if  $\mathcal{N}(A) = \emptyset$ , the solution is unique.
- ▶ If  $A$  is square and singular,  $Az = 0$  has infinite many solutions.

# Matrix, mappings, and eigenvectors

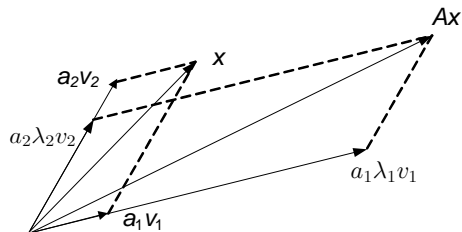
- ▶  $A$  defines a linear operator:  $x \mapsto Ax$ , e.g., 1D projection:

$$A_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A_0 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ eigenvectors: “special directions/vectors” for  $A$  such that  $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ :  $Av_i$  is aligned with the original vector  $v_i$ , scaled by the eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ .
- ▶ turns out that if  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , then any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$  can be written as  $x = a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2$
- ▶ thus  $Ax = a_1 Av_1 + a_2 Av_2 = a_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + a_2 \lambda_2 v_2$ :



# Matrix, mappings, and eigenvectors



- ▶ Knowing  $\lambda_i$  and  $v_i$  thus can directly tell us how  $Ax$  looks like. More important, we have decomposed  $Ax$  into small modules that are handy for analyzing the system properties.
- ▶ *Eigenvalues* are also called *characteristic values* of a matrix. The set of all the eigenvalues of  $A$  is called the *spectrum* of  $A$ . The largest of the *absolute* values of the eigenvalues of  $A$  is called the *spectral radius* of  $A$ .

# Computation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors

For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $A$  is one for which

$$Ax = \lambda x \quad (6)$$

has a nonzero solution  $x \neq 0$ .

- ▶ (6) is equivalent to  $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$
- ▶ As  $x \neq 0$ , the matrix  $A - \lambda I$  must be singular. So

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \quad (7)$$

- ▶ If an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  has  $n$  eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , it must be that  $\det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda_1 - \lambda) \cdots (\lambda_n - \lambda)$ .

## Example

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

# Computation of eigenvalue and eigenvectors

## Theorem (Eigenvalue and determinant)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then

$$\det A = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$

## Proof.

Letting  $\lambda = 0$  in the characteristic polynomial

$$p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda_1 - \lambda)(\lambda_2 - \lambda) \dots$$

gives

$$\det(A) = p(0) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$





# Matrix inversion

The inverse  $A^{-1}$  of a square nonsingular matrix  $A$  satisfies

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$$

If  $A^{-1}$  exists,

- ▶  $\det A \neq 0$
- ▶  $A$  is nonsingular
- ▶  $Ax = b$  has one unique solution

# Matrix inversion

- ▶ the method of adjugate / adjoint matrix:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \text{adj}(A)^T$$

- ▶  $2 \times 2$  example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} (-1)^{1+1} d & (-1)^{1+2} b \\ (-1)^{2+1} c & (-1)^{2+2} a \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix inversion

- ▶  $3 \times 3$  example:

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & k \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & k \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ h & k \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ e & f \end{vmatrix} \\ -\begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & k \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ g & k \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} a & c \\ d & f \end{vmatrix} \\ \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} & -\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ d & e \end{vmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶  $|\cdot|$  denotes the determinant.
- ▶ the row 1 column 2 element  $-\begin{vmatrix} b & c \\ h & k \end{vmatrix}$  is obtained via

$$(-1)^{2+1} \det \left( A \text{ with } [d, e, f], \begin{bmatrix} a \\ d \\ g \end{bmatrix} \text{ removed} \right)$$

# Matrix inversion

## Example

Find the inverse matrices of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Theorem

*Inverse of products of matrices can be obtained from inverses of each factor:*

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

*and more generally*

$$(AB \dots YZ)^{-1} = Z^{-1}Y^{-1} \dots B^{-1}A^{-1} \quad (8)$$

# Eigenbases and diagonalization

## Theorem (Diagonalization of a Matrix)

Let an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  have a basis of eigenvectors  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ , associated to its  $n$  distinct eigenvalues  $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n\}$ . Then

$$A = XDX^{-1} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^{-1} \quad (9)$$

Also,  $A^m = XD^mX^{-1}$ , ( $m = 2, 3, \dots$ ).

## Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ Compute } A^{3000}.$$

## Theorem (Spectral Mapping Theorem)

Take any  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  and a polynomial function  $f(\cdot)$  (more generally, analytic functions). Then

$$\text{eig}(f(A)) = f(\text{eig}(A))$$

## Example (Compute the eigenvalues)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 99.8 & 2000 \\ -2000 & 99.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} A = 99.8I + 2000 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} &\Rightarrow \lambda(A) = 99.8 + 2000\lambda \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \\ &= 99.8 \pm 2000i \end{aligned}$$