

# Cheat Sheet for MATH461

Here is the stuff you really need to remember for the exams.

## 1 Linear systems $Ax = b$

### Problem:

We consider a linear system of  $m$  equations for  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ :

For a given matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and a vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  we want to find all vectors  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $Ax = b$ .

### Algorithms:

**Gaussian elimination:** This gives the decomposition  $\begin{bmatrix} \text{row } p_1 \text{ of } A \\ \vdots \\ \text{row } p_m \text{ of } A \end{bmatrix} = LU$  where

- the **row echelon form**  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has  $r$  nonzero rows and  $r$  nonzero pivots in columns  $q_1, \dots, q_r$ . The variables  $x_{q_1}, \dots, x_{q_r}$  are called **basic variables**, the remaining variables are called **free variables**.
- the matrix  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is lower triangular: the diagonal elements are 1, below the diagonal are the multipliers used in the elimination
- the permutation vector  $p$  contains the numbers  $1, \dots, m$  in a scrambled order

For given  $L, U, p$

- **find basis for range  $A$ :** Use columns  $q_1, \dots, q_r$  of  $A$
- **find basis for null  $A$ :** Set one of the free variables to 1 and the others to zero. Then use  $Ux = \vec{0}$  and back substitution to find the basic variables  $x_{q_r}, \dots, x_{q_1}$ . This gives vectors  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n-r)}$ .
- **find basis for range  $A^\top$ :** Use rows  $1, \dots, r$  of  $U$
- **find basis for null  $A^\top$ :** For  $j = 1, \dots, m-r$ : Solve  $L^\top u = e^{(r+j)}$  by forward substitution. Then let  $\begin{cases} w_{p_1} := u_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_{p_m} := u_m \end{cases}$ . This gives  $m-r$  basis vectors  $w^{(1)}, \dots, w^{(m-r)}$ . Here  $e^{(k)} := [0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0]^\top$ .

For given  $L, U, p$  and right hand side vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  **find general solution of linear system  $Ax = b$ :**

- solve  $Ly = \begin{bmatrix} b_{p_1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{p_m} \end{bmatrix}$  by forward substitution
- find particular solution  $x_{\text{part}}$  of  $Ux = y$ : Set all free variables to 0. Then use back substitution to find the basic variables  $x_{q_r}, \dots, x_{q_1}$ .
- Find a basis  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n-r)}$  for null  $A$  using  $U$  (see above)
- The general solution is  $x = x_{\text{part}} + c_1 v^{(1)} + \dots + c_{n-r} v^{(n-r)}$  where  $c_1, \dots, c_{n-r} \in \mathbb{R}$  are arbitrary

**Subspace**  $V = \text{span} \{v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(k)}\}$  with given vectors  $v^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

• **find basis for  $V$ :**

- Let  $A$  have the rows  $v^{(1)\top}, \dots, v^{(k)\top}$ , then  $V = \text{range} A^\top$
- Find row echelon form  $U$  (we don't need  $L, p$ )
- use rows  $1, \dots, r$  of  $U$

• **find basis for orthogonal complement  $V^\perp$ :**

- since  $V^\perp = \text{null} A$ : use row echelon form  $U$  to find basis for  $\text{null} A$

**Important facts to remember:**

- $\text{range} A$  and  $\text{range} A^\top$  have both dimension  $r$
- $\text{null} A$  and  $\text{range} A^\top$  are orthogonal complements in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\dim \text{null} A = n - r$
- $\text{null} A^\top$  and  $\text{range} A$  are orthogonal complements in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\dim \text{null} A^\top = m - r$   
Hence:  $Ax = b$  has a solution  $\iff b$  is orthogonal on basis vectors of  $\text{null} A^\top$  (we have  $m - r$  solvability conditions)

**Case of square matrix**  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

- If  $r = \text{rank} A < n$  we say that  $A$  is **singular**. If  $r = n$  we say  $A$  is **nonsingular**
- $A$  is singular  $\iff \det A = 0 \iff$  rows of  $A$  are linearly dependent  $\iff$  columns of  $A$  are linearly dependent
- If  $A$  is singular: linear system  $Ax = b$  has either no solution or infinitely many solutions
- If  $A$  is nonsingular: linear system  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .  
Let  $u^{(j)}$  denote the solution vector of  $Au^{(j)} = e^{(j)}$ , then  $A^{-1} = [u^{(1)}, \dots, u^{(n)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is called **inverse matrix**.  
Then the solution of  $Ax = b$  is given by  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

**2 Least squares problem**  $\|Ac - b\| = \min$

**Problem:**

We have a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$  and linearly independent columns. Since the linear system  $Ac = b$  does in general not have a solution, we want to find  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\| \underbrace{Ac - b}_{\text{residual } r} \|$  is as small as possible.

**Application:**

“Curve fitting”: We have measured experimental data  $\frac{t_1 \dots t_m}{y_1 \dots y_m}$  and want to fit this with a curve

$$y = c_1 g_1(t) + \dots + c_n g_n(t)$$

Here  $g_1(t), \dots, g_n(t)$  are given functions and  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are unknown parameters which we want to find.

We want that the residuals  $r_j = c_1 g_1(t_j) + \dots + c_n g_n(t_j) - y_j$  are “small”:

**Least squares fit:** find  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that  $r_1^2 + \dots + r_m^2$  is minimal.

With  $A = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(t_1) & \dots & g_n(t_1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ g_1(t_m) & \dots & g_n(t_m) \end{bmatrix}$  we have  $r = Ac - y$ . Hence we want to find  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\|Ac - y\|$  is minimal.

## Algorithms:

- Method 1: **Normal equations:** Solve the  $n \times n$  linear system  $(A^\top A)c = A^\top b$ .
- Method 2: **Orthogonalization**

– Find orthogonal basis  $p^{(1)}, \dots, p^{(n)}$  for  $\text{span}\{a^{(1)}, \dots, a^{(n)}\}$  using **Gram-Schmidt process**:

$$p^{(1)} := a^{(1)}, \quad p^{(2)} := a^{(2)} - \underbrace{\frac{a^{(2)} \cdot p^{(1)}}{p^{(1)} \cdot p^{(1)}}}_{s_{12}} p^{(1)}, \quad p^{(3)} := a^{(3)} - \underbrace{\frac{a^{(3)} \cdot p^{(1)}}{p^{(1)} \cdot p^{(1)}}}_{s_{13}} p^{(1)} - \underbrace{\frac{a^{(3)} \cdot p^{(2)}}{p^{(2)} \cdot p^{(2)}}}_{s_{23}} p^{(2)}, \quad \dots$$

yielding a decomposition  $A = PS$  where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p^{(1)} & \dots & p^{(n)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \text{has orthogonal columns,} \\ m \times n \end{matrix}, \quad S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & s_{12} & \dots & s_{1n} \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & s_{n-1,n} \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \text{is upper triangular.} \\ n \times n \end{matrix}$$

- Let  $d_j := \frac{p^{(j)} \cdot b}{p^{(j)} \cdot p^{(j)}}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$
- solve  $Sc = d$  by back substitution

## 3 The determinant $\det A$

For a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

- $\det A = 0 \iff$  matrix is singular (i.e. columns are linearly dependent)
- expansion formula: Use **row 1** or the **column 1** to write  $\det A$  in terms of  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  determinants:

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= a_{11} \det A_{[11]} - a_{12} \det A_{[12]} + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} a_{1n} \det A_{[1n]} \\ &= a_{11} \det A_{[11]} - a_{21} \det A_{[21]} + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} a_{n1} \det A_{[n1]} \end{aligned}$$

Here  $A_{[jk]}$  denotes the matrix where we remove row  $j$  and column  $k$ .

This also works with the **row  $j$**  or **column  $j$**  of the matrix, but with the factor  $(-1)^{j-1}$ .

$$\bullet \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc, \quad \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & k \end{bmatrix} = a \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ h & k \end{bmatrix} - b \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} d & f \\ g & k \end{bmatrix} + c \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}$$

## 4 Eigenvalue problem $Av = \lambda v$

### 4.1 Finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors

#### Problem:

A square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  describes a mapping  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . If we choose a new basis  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  this mapping is represented by the matrix  $B = V^{-1}AV$  where  $V = [v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}]$ . We want to find a new basis such that the matrix  $B$  becomes “as simple as possible”: if possible, we would like  $B$  to be a diagonal matrix.

Hence want to find a vectors  $v \neq \vec{0}$  and a numbers  $\lambda$  such that  $Av = \lambda v$ .

## Algorithm:

### How to find eigenvalues:

- find characteristic polynomial  $p(\lambda) = \det \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & a_{n-1,n} \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{n,n-1} & a_{nn} - \lambda \end{bmatrix}}_{A - \lambda I} = (-1)^n \lambda^n + c_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + \cdots +$

$c_1 \lambda + c_0 = p(\lambda)$  by evaluating the determinant

- solve  $p(\lambda) = 0$  to find the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

For  $n = 2$  you have to solve a quadratic equation. For  $n = 3$  try to guess one eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ , then you can write  $p(\lambda) = (\lambda - \lambda_1)q(\lambda)$  with a quadratic polynomial  $q(\lambda)$ . I will give you hints how to find the eigenvalues if  $n > 2$ .

**How to find eigenvectors:** For each eigenvalue  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  solve the linear system

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & a_{n-1,n} \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{n,n-1} & a_{nn} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e., **we have to find a basis for**  $\text{null}(A - \lambda I)$ . Since  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  we have  $r := \text{rank}(A - \lambda I) < n$ , and we have to **find**  $n - r$  **linearly independent vectors**. We call  $\text{null}(A - \lambda I)$  the **eigenspace for the eigenvalue**  $\lambda$ .

By taking the eigenvectors for all eigenvalues we obtain vectors  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(m)}$ . These vectors are linearly independent, hence

- either  $m = n$ : then the matrix is called **diagonalizable**, i.e., the vectors  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$  form a basis for all of  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- or  $m < n$ : then the matrix is called **not diagonalizable**

**Note:** eigenvalues and eigenvectors may be complex.

## 4.2 Case of diagonalizable matrices

**If we can find  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors**  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$ , then  $V = [v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}]$  is nonsingular. Then by changing

to the new basis  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$  the matrix  $A$  becomes the diagonal matrix  $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$ : (Note that blank elements in

the matrix are supposed to be zero)

$$A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ v^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}}_V = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ v^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}}_V \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}}_B, \quad A = VB V^{-1}, \quad V^{-1} A V = B$$

## 4.3 Case of non-diagonalizable matrices and the Jordan normal form

If all eigenvalues are different the matrix is always diagonalizable. **If there are multiple eigenvalues** it can happen that there are **fewer eigenvectors than the multiplicity of the eigenvalue**.

Assume, e.g., that  $\lambda = 2$  is a triple eigenvalue, but  $\dim \text{null}(A - 2I) = 1$ , i.e., there is only one eigenvector  $v^{(1)}$ . Then we can find two **generalized eigenvectors**  $v^{(1,1)}, v^{(1,2)}$  satisfying

$$(A - \lambda I)v^{(1)} = 0, \quad (A - \lambda I)v^{(1,1)} = v^{(1)}, \quad (A - \lambda I)v^{(1,2)} = v^{(1,1)}$$

We call  $v^{(1)}, v^{(1,1)}, v^{(1,2)}$  a **Jordan chain** of length 3. Note that we have

$$A \begin{bmatrix} v^{(1)} \\ v^{(1,1)} \\ v^{(1,2)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v^{(1)} \\ v^{(1,1)} \\ v^{(1,2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & \\ & \lambda & 1 \\ & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

where instead of a diagonal matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & & \\ & \lambda & \\ & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$  we now have a so-called **Jordan box**  $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & \\ & \lambda & 1 \\ & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Example:** assume that for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$  we have  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 2$ ,  $\lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = 3$ ,  $\lambda_6 = 5$ . If there is only one eigenvector  $v^{(1)}$  for  $\lambda = 2$  we can find a Jordan chain  $v^{(1)}, v^{(1,1)}, v^{(1,2)}$  of length 3. If there is only one eigenvector  $v^{(4)}$  for  $\lambda = 3$  we can find a Jordan chain  $v^{(4)}, v^{(4,1)}$  of length 2. Then we have  $V = [v^{(1)}, v^{(1,1)}, v^{(1,2)}, v^{(4)}, v^{(4,1)}, v^{(6)}]$  and  $AV = VB$  with

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{\begin{matrix} 2 & 1 \\ & 2 & 1 \\ & & 2 \end{matrix}} & & & & & \\ & \boxed{\begin{matrix} 3 & 1 \\ & 3 \end{matrix}} & & & & \\ & & & & \boxed{5} & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

**Main result (Jordan normal form):** For any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  we can find a basis of Jordan chains for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $V$  is the matrix which has these Jordan chains as columns, then we have  $AV = VB$  where the matrix  $B$  has Jordan boxes along the diagonal.

#### 4.4 Symmetric matrices and quadratic forms

A quadratic form is a sum of terms with  $x_i x_j$ . We can write it as

$$q(x) = \sum_{\substack{i=1 \dots n \\ j=1 \dots n}} a_{ij} x_i x_j = x^\top A x$$

with a **symmetric matrix**  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . E.g., consider for  $n = 3$  the quadratic form

$$q(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 - 2x_1 x_2 - 2x_1 x_3 - 2x_2 x_3 = [x_1, x_2, x_3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Change of basis:** For linearly independent vectors  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$  we can write  $x = y_1 v^{(1)} + \dots + y_n v^{(n)} = Vy$  with the matrix  $V = [v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}]$ . Then the quadratic form becomes

$$q(x) = x^\top A x = y^\top \underbrace{V^\top A V}_B y = y^\top B y$$

with  $B = V^\top A V$ .

**Main result for a symmetric matrix**  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ : We can find an **orthonormal basis**  $v^{(1)}, \dots, v^{(n)}$  of eigenvectors (i.e.,

$V^\top V = I$  and  $V^{-1} = V^\top$ ) such that  $V^\top A V = B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$  with **real eigenvalues**  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , hence the quadratic

form becomes with the new variables

$$q(x) = x^\top A x = y^\top B y = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

- find characteristic polynomial  $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$
- solve  $p(\lambda) = 0$ , this gives eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  which are real
- for each eigenvalue  $\lambda$ : find a basis for  $\text{null}(A - \lambda I)$   
this gives  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors  $u^{(1)}, \dots, u^{(n)}$  (i.e., the matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable)
- for multiple eigenvalues: find an orthogonal basis by using the Gram-Schmidt process  
normalize the basis vectors:  $v^{(j)} := u^{(j)} / \|u^{(j)}\|$ .

**Example:** For  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  we obtain the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 2, \lambda_3 = 2$ .

For  $\lambda = -1$  we have  $A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  which has rank 2, hence we get one eigenvector  $v^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . For  $\lambda = 2$

we have  $A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  which has rank 1, hence we get two eigenvectors  $v^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Note that  $v^{(2)}$  and  $v^{(3)}$  are not orthogonal on each other. Therefore we can use Gram-Schmidt to replace  $v^{(3)}$  with

$$w^{(3)} = v^{(3)} - \frac{v^{(3)} \cdot v^{(2)}}{v^{(2)} \cdot v^{(2)}} v^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now the three vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  are orthogonal on each other. We now divide each vector by its norm to

obtain an orthonormal basis:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ . Hence we obtain

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = V^T A V = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad q(x) = y^T B y = -y_1^2 + 2y_2^2 + 2y_3^2$$

## Positive definite matrices, positive semidefinite matrices

We say a symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is **positive definite** if  $q(x) = x^T A x > 0$  for all  $x \neq \vec{0}$ .

We say a symmetric matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is **positive semidefinite** if  $q(x) = x^T A x \geq 0$  for all  $x \neq \vec{0}$ .

**Result:**  $A$  is positive definite  $\iff$  all eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive

$A$  is positive semidefinite  $\iff$  all eigenvalues of  $A$  are  $\geq 0$ .

Example: The matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is not positive definite since it has a negative eigenvalue  $\lambda_1 = -1$ .