

Linear Algebra

Week 13

Quiz

Let $A, Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues of A . The trace of A is defined as $\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n (A)_{ii}$, $A^* = \overline{A}^T$.

- $\det(A^*) = \det(A)$ **FALSE**, $\det(A^*) = \det(\overline{A}^T) = \det(\overline{A}) = \overline{\det(A)}$
- The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are given by its diagonal entries.
(Note: A diagonal matrix is triangular) **for a diagonal matrix, $\det A = \prod_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$**
 $\Rightarrow \chi_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = \prod_{i=1}^n (a_{ii} - \lambda)$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \text{Tr}(A)$, $\prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \det(A)$ **TRUE**, proven in lecture
- Eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are not necessarily linearly independent **FALSE**, eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are always linearly independent
- If we know all eigenvalues of A , we know if A is invertible. **TRUE**
 A invertible $\Leftrightarrow 0$ no eigenvalue of A
- What are the algebraic and geometric multiplicities of an eigenvalue λ ?
multiplicity of λ as root of $\det(A - \lambda I)$ \setminus $\dim N(A - \lambda I)$
- By the fundamental theorem of algebra, any polynomial with real coefficients has real roots. **FALSE**, a polynomial with real coefficients has complex roots (not necessarily real)
- $\det(PA) = \det(A)$ when P is a permutation matrix (attained from swapping columns/rows of the identity matrix) **FALSE**, $\det(PA) = \pm \det A$ depending on number of row/column swaps
- $|\det(Q)| = \pm 1$ and $|\lambda| = 1$ if $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is an orthogonal matrix ($Q^T Q = I$) with eigenvalue λ . (Extra question: what if Q is unitary, i.e. $Q^* Q = I$) **TRUE**

We proof the two statements separately:

1) $|\lambda| = 1$

$Qv = \lambda v \Rightarrow \|Qv\| = \|\lambda v\| = |\lambda| \|v\| \stackrel{Q \text{ preserves lengths}}{=} \|v\| \Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1$

2) $\det Q = \pm 1$

$1 = \det I = \det(Q^T Q) = \det(Q^T) \det(Q) = \det(Q)^2$
 $\Rightarrow |\det Q| = \pm 1$

in the case that Q is unitary, we get

$1 = \det I = \det(Q^* Q) = \det(Q^*) \det(Q) = \overline{\det(Q)} \det(Q)$
 $= |\det(Q)|^2 \Rightarrow |\det(Q)| = 1$ (on unit circle in complex plane)

Change of basis

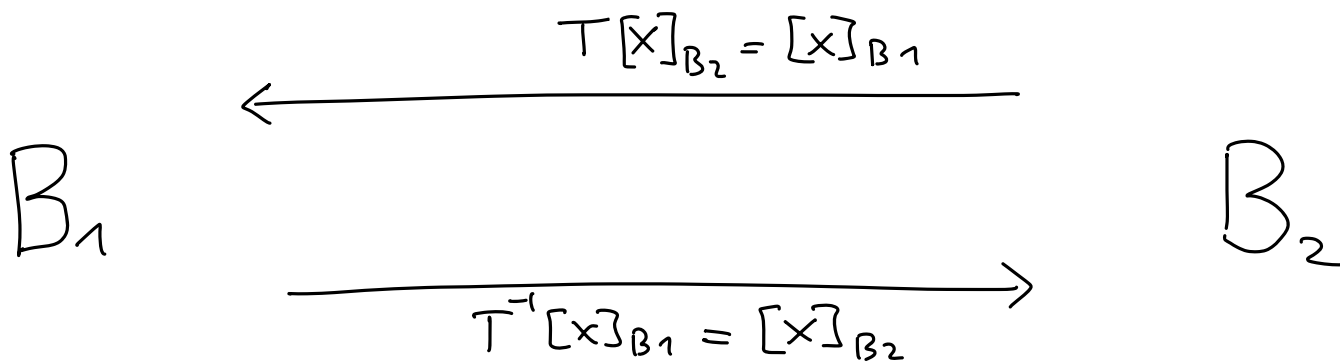
Consider two bases $B_1 = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow this works for any vector space, not just \mathbb{R}^n
 $B_2 = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Any vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be represented as a ^{unique} linear combination of vectors in B_1 (or B_2). The coefficients of this linear combination written as a vector ^{results in} the coordinate vector of x regarding B_1 (or B_2), $[x]_{B_1}$ (or $[x]_{B_2}$)

A change of basis matrix allows us to switch between coordinate representations regarding different bases.

$T = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ [u_1]_{B_1} & [u_n]_{B_1} \\ | & | \end{bmatrix}$ is the change of basis matrix from B_1 to B_2
 takes a vector in B_2 representation to B_1
 this name is usually used: T transforms space in B_1 to space in B_2

$T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ [u_1]_{B_2} & [u_n]_{B_2} \\ | & | \end{bmatrix}$ is the change of basis matrix from B_2 to B_1
 takes a vector in B_1 representation to B_2



Example $B_1 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $B_2 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

The change of basis matrix from B_1 to B_2 is

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{B_1} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{B_1} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_{B_1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and takes a vector in coordinate representation regarding B_2 to coordinate representation regarding B_1

The change of basis matrix from B_2 to B_1 is

$$T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{B_2} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{B_2} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_{B_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and takes a vector in coordinate representation regarding B_1 to coordinate representation regarding B_2

Composition of change of basis matrices:

Let T_1 be the change of basis matrix from B_0 to B_1

T_2 from B_0 to B_2

$\Rightarrow T_1^{-1} T_2$ is the change of basis matrix from B_1 to B_2
 takes vector from B_2 to B_0
 takes vector in B_0 to B_1 representation

We can use this to construct representation matrices regarding bases of our choice! Assume A is the matrix of a linear map in regard to the basis B_0 (e.g. standard basis):

Then $T_1^{-1} A T_2$ corresponds to the same linear map regarding bases B_1, B_2 , taking as input a vector in B_2 and giving one back in coordinate representation regarding B_1 .

Exercise Consider the linear map $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ defined by
 $L(x, y, z)^T = (3x + 4y, 2z, x + y + z)^T$

1) Find the representation matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ of L regarding the canonical basis $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ of \mathbb{R}^3 (input/output in this basis)

→ Transform basis vectors

$$L(1, 0, 0)^T = (3, 0, 1)^T, \quad L(0, 1, 0)^T = (4, 0, 1)^T,$$

$$L(0, 0, 1)^T = (0, 2, 1)^T$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ L(e_1) & L(e_2) & L(e_3) \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2) Consider the two bases $B_1 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, B_2 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$

Find the change of basis matrices

T_1 from the standard basis to B_1 , T_1^{-1} (from example)

T_2 from the standard basis to B_2

and then from B_1 to B_2 given by $T_1^{-1} T_2$

Finally, find the representation matrix of L in regard to bases B_1, B_2 that takes as input a vector in B_2 representation and outputs a vector in coordinates regarding B_1

$$T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$T_1^{-1} A T_2$ is the representation matrix of L in regard to bases B_1, B_2

Similar matrices, eigen decomposition

$A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are called similar if $B = S^{-1} A S$ for some invertible matrix $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

→ A and B are the same linear map under different bases,
 S and S^{-1} are the respective change of basis matrices

Some properties

- Similar matrices have the same follows from (1)
 - 1) characteristic polynomial
 - 2) eigenvalues with same algebraic and geometric multiplicity
 - 3) rank (multiplying with full rank matrix doesn't change rank)
 - 4) trace (1)
 - 5) determinant (1)
- The "similar" relation is an equivalence relation
→ in particular, transitive (see ex. 12.2)

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is diagonalizable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix $\Leftrightarrow A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$ for some diagonal matrix $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. We give this decomposition a special name: eigenvalue decomposition.

Eigenvalue decomposition

$$A = \underbrace{V}_{\substack{\text{eigenvectors} \\ \text{as columns}}} \underbrace{\Lambda}_{\substack{\text{eigenvalues on diagonal,} \\ \text{other entries zero}}} V^{-1}$$

Note:

The matrix V has to be the left matrix

The following statements are equivalent:

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

- A is diagonalizable
- An eigenvalue decomposition of A exists
- There exists a basis of eigenvectors of A of \mathbb{R}^n
- There exist n linearly independent eigenvectors of A
- For every eigenvalue, the geometric and algebraic multiplicities are the same

Claim:

For any eigenvalue λ_i , $1 \leq \text{geometric multiplicity} \leq \text{algebraic multiplicity}$

Proof that geometric multiplicity \leq algebraic multiplicity:

Assume λ is an eigenvalue of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with geometric multiplicity k . $\dim N(A - \lambda I) = k$, there exist k eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_k corresponding to λ . We extend these vectors to a basis and get an invertible matrix V :

$$V = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{c} | \\ v_1 \cdots v_k \\ | \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} | \\ v_{k+1} \cdots v_n \\ | \end{array} \end{array} \right]$$

eigenvectors other vectors

$$AV = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{c} | \\ A v_1 \cdots A v_k \\ | \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} | \\ A v_{k+1} \cdots A v_n \\ | \end{array} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{c} \lambda v_1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \\ 0 \quad \lambda v_2 \quad \vdots \\ \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \ddots \quad \lambda v_k \\ 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \vdots \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} | \\ A v_{k+1} \cdots A v_n \\ | \end{array} \end{array} \right]$$

We left multiply with V^{-1} : ($V^{-1}V = I \Rightarrow V^{-1}v_i = e_i$)

$$V^{-1}AV = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | & & | \\ V^{-1}\lambda'_1 v_1 & \dots & V^{-1}\lambda'_k v_k & V^{-1}Av_{k+1} & \dots & V^{-1}Av_n \\ | & & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda' & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda' & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda' & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} B \\ \\ \\ C \end{matrix}$$

A and $V^{-1}AV$ are similar and thus have the same characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det(V^{-1}AV - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} (\lambda' - \lambda)I_{k \times k} & B \\ 0 & C - \lambda I_{k \times k} \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \det((\lambda' - \lambda)I_{k \times k}) \det(C - \lambda I_{k \times k}) = (\lambda' - \lambda)^k \det(C - \lambda I_{k \times k})$$

The algebraic multiplicity of λ' is at least $k = \dim N(A - \lambda' I)$, the geometric multiplicity of λ' .

Example Which of the following matrices is diagonalizable?

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

A diagonal matrix is always diagonalizable. In this case, the eigenvalues are 1 and 2.

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

$\det(B - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = 0$
 0 is an e.v. with algebraic mult. 2. However, B has rank 1, $N(B)$ dimension 1 meaning the geometric mult. of 0 is $1 \neq 2$
 $\Rightarrow B$ is not diagonalizable

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

not diagonalizable, analogous argument to B

Unfortunately, not every matrix is diagonalizable (as we see). However, for symmetric matrices the spectral theorem applies.

The Spectral Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric ($A^T = A$).

- A has n real eigenvalues
- There exists an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n of eigenvectors of A
- A has an eigendecomposition $A = U \Delta U^T$ where U is orthogonal (and U 's columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n)

Exercise 11.1. b

Find the representation matrix B of the reflection through the plane given by $P = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid 3x + 4y = 0 \right\}$

The main idea here is that we can decompose \mathbb{R}^3 into $P + P^\perp = \mathbb{R}^3$ where $P = \text{span}\{n\}$ where n is a normal vector on P (length one and orthogonal to all vectors in P).

Projecting a vector x onto $\text{span}\{n\}$ gives us only the part of x that's orthogonal to P . Subtracting this projection once from x eliminates this orthogonal part completely, subtracting it twice flips the sign of the orthogonal part. We can express this as follows: $x = x_- + x_+$

$\begin{matrix} \uparrow & \searrow \\ \text{parallel to } P & \text{orthogonal to } P \end{matrix}$

The projection matrix onto $\text{span}\{n\}$ is $\frac{nn^T}{n^T n} = nn^T$

$$nn^T x = x_+ \implies x - 2nn^T x = \underbrace{(I - 2nn^T)}_{\text{this is the matrix } B} x = x_- - x_+$$

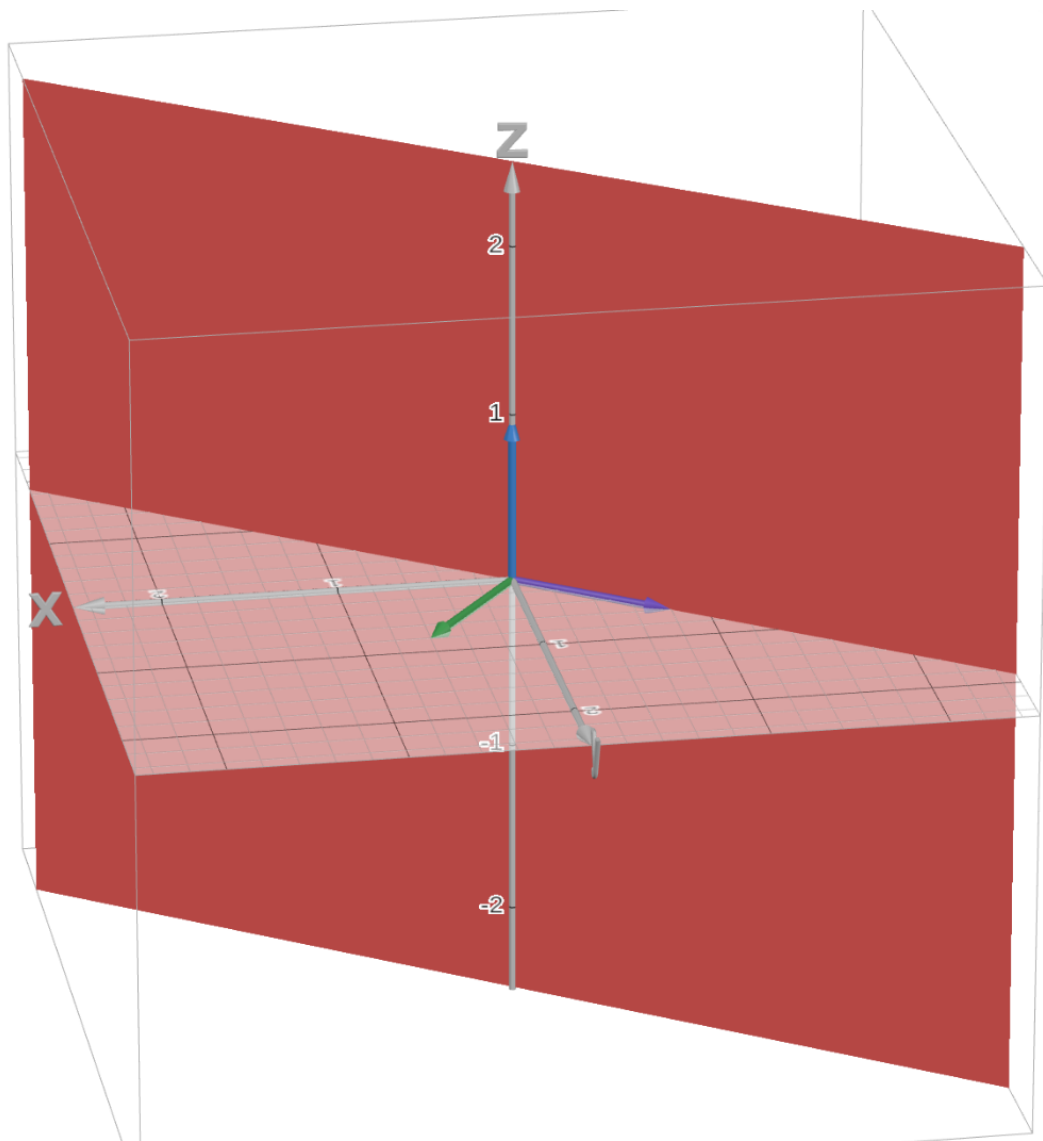
Such a matrix is called "Householder matrix" and can be used to compute the QR decomposition (you will see this in Num CS!)

Alternatively, we can see this as a change of basis problem: we seek to find a basis B where reflecting along P is a very simple operation - changing the sign of one component of $[x]_B$.

To achieve this, we want one basis vector to be a normal vector of P and the other two to span the plane P .

$$\text{A suitable basis is } B = \left\{ \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{spans } P^\perp}, \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{span } P}, \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{span } P} \right\}$$

(we can find it by e.g. rotating the first vector appropriately or sketching P)



We compute the following change of basis matrices
from the standard basis to B :

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 3/5 & -4/5 & 0 \\ 4/5 & 3/5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

from B to the standard basis:

$$T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3/5 & -4/5 & 0 \\ -4/5 & 3/5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the reflection matrix in regard to the basis B :

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

Piecing this together results in:

$$B = T A T^{-1}$$

takes vector back to standard basis | takes vector in standard basis to B and reflects vector in basis B

References:

Last years course

Old exams for some of the quiz questions

Sergey Treil, Linear Algebra Done Wrong, https://www.math.brown.edu/streil/papers/LADW/LADW_2021_01-11.pdf