

A Brief Review of Basic Linear Algebra (continued)

The standard definition of a nonsingular ($n \times n$) matrix A is that there exists a matrix denoted A^{-1} such that $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$ (the identity matrix). It is not difficult to establish (you are encouraged to do it) the following:

Theorem: the following statements are equivalent

- (1) A is nonsingular;
- (2) A is row equivalent to the identity I (that is you can go from A to I , and conversely, by row operations);
- (3) For any b , the equation $Ax = b$ has exactly one solution.

With the proper definitions and further developments, we will be able to add (at least) two statements to the above two:

- (4) A has rank n (n being the common number of rows and columns of A);
- (5) the determinant ($\det A$) of A is non-zero.

To understand statement (4) more fully, let us discuss vector spaces and linear maps. To define a vector space we need a set \mathbf{V} (of vectors) and a field \mathbf{F} (of scalars, typically the real \mathbf{R} or the complex \mathbf{C}). We also need two operations:

Addition: $\forall u, v \in \mathbf{V}, u + v \in \mathbf{V}$;

Scalar Multiplication: $\forall u \in \mathbf{V}, \forall a \in \mathbf{F}, au \in \mathbf{V}$.

The two operations must satisfy several axioms (commutativity, associativity, additive identity, additive inverse, multiplicative identity, distributivity) for \mathbf{V} to deserve the title of vector space over the field \mathbf{F} .

A typical example for \mathbf{V} is the set of n -tuples $(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$ with operations

$$(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_i, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_i + y_i, \dots, x_n + y_n) \text{ and}$$

$$a(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) = (ax_1, \dots, ax_i, \dots, ax_n), \forall a \in \mathbf{R}.$$

A fundamental concept in the study of vector spaces is that of linear independence. A (sub)set of vectors $\mathbf{U} = \{u_1, \dots, u_i, \dots, u_m\} \subset \mathbf{V}$ is *linearly independent* if the equality $a_1u_1 + \dots + a_iu_i + \dots + a_mu_m = 0$ requires that $a_1 = \dots = a_i = \dots = a_m = 0$. Another important concept is that of *span*: the span of \mathbf{U} is the set of all linear combinations of the form $a_1u_1 + \dots + a_iu_i + \dots + a_mu_m$ with all u_i 's in \mathbf{U} . If a set \mathbf{U} is linearly independent and

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spans all of \mathbf{V} , it is called a *basis* of \mathbf{V} . An important result is that if a vector space admits a basis made up of n vectors, then any basis of \mathbf{V} is made up of n vectors and we say that \mathbf{V} has dimension n .

The next concept is that of linear map $T: \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$, from a vector space \mathbf{V} into itself, which must satisfy (with Tu denoting the image by T of u):

$$T(u + v) = Tu + Tv$$

$$T(au) = aTu$$

Once a basis (say $\mathbf{B} = \{e_1, \dots, e_j, \dots, e_n\}$) has been chosen for the vector space \mathbf{V} , the vectors $Te_1, \dots, Te_j, \dots, Te_n$ are of special interest. Since \mathbf{B} is a basis, any vector u can be written (uniquely) as a linear combination $u = x_1e_1 + \dots + x_je_j + \dots + x_n e_n$ (x_j is called the j th component of u) and u can be alternatively written as a $n \times 1$ (column) matrix

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_j \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ or as a } 1 \times n \text{ (row) matrix } u^T = (x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_n).$$

In particular, each Te_j can be written $Te_j = a_{1j}e_1 + \dots + a_{ij}e_i + \dots + a_{nj}e_n$. Similarly, Tu can be written $x_1Te_1 + \dots + x_jTe_j + \dots + x_nTe_n$. So, if we write the $n \times n$

matrix A whose columns are the components of the Te_j 's: $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{1j} & a_{1n} \\ a_{i1} & a_{ij} & a_{in} \\ a_{n1} & a_{nj} & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$

then the vector Tu has components given by the product Au .

Now, the set $\mathbf{U} = \{Te_1, \dots, Te_i, \dots, Te_n\}$ may either span \mathbf{V} or some (strict) subset of \mathbf{V} (called the *range* of T) that is a *subspace* because it is a vector space in its own right. That subspace has its own dimension (less than or equal to n) which is also called the *rank* of the matrix A (or the linear map T). Another subspace of interest is the *null* (or *kernel*) of T which is the set of vectors that T maps into the zero vector, another subspace in its own right. A standard result is that the dimension of the span of T (the rank) and the dimension of the null of T add up to the dimension n of \mathbf{V} .

If the rank of T is equal to n , it means that the above set \mathbf{U} spans \mathbf{V} . Since it is made up of n vectors, it is a basis of \mathbf{V} (you can always extract a basis from a spanning set but that basis must have n vectors). So, any vector v of components b_j in the basis \mathbf{B} can be *uniquely* written $v = x_1Te_1 + \dots + x_jTe_j + \dots + x_nTe_n$. This means that $b = Ax$ where x is the unique $n \times 1$ (column) matrix of elements x_j . So, if A has rank n , the solution of $Ax = b$ always exists and is always unique.

The next important concept is that of *dot* or *inner* product of two vectors. Here we need to be specific about what field (\mathbf{R} or \mathbf{C}) we assume with our vector space. In the real case, the dot product of u by v , denoted $u \cdot v$ (or $\langle u, v \rangle$) is simply

$$u \cdot v = u^T v = x_1y_1 + \dots + x_iy_i + \dots + x_ny_n$$

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where u^T is the row matrix of components (the x_i 's) of u on the chosen basis and v is the column matrix of components (the y_i 's) of v in that same basis.

If our field is \mathbf{C} , we modify this into

$$u.v = u^* v = \bar{x}_1 y_1 + \dots + \bar{x}_i y_i + \dots + \bar{x}_n y_n$$

where \bar{x}_i is the conjugate of the complex number x_i .

This guarantees that, in either case, the dot product satisfies the necessary axioms of positivity, definiteness, additivity, homogeneity, and (conjugate) symmetry. One can then define the norm of a vector by $\|u\| = \sqrt{u.u}$. A vector is called normal if $\|u\| = 1$. And two vectors u and v are said to be orthogonal if $u.v = 0$.

It is not difficult to show how one can construct from any basis of \mathbf{V} another basis made up of normal vectors that are all orthogonal to each other. The process is called Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization and the result is called an orthonormal basis.

Homework

1. Argue that any matrix A has at most one inverse.
2. Look into the literature to justify (and explain) the following statement: "An automorphism is a particular case of isomorphism."
3. Prove that the null of a linear map is a vector space.
4. Prove that a set of non-zero orthogonal vectors is linearly independent.