

# ESC103: Midterm 1 Review

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Fall 2020

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# 1 Basic Vectors

The **linear combination** of vectors  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{w}$  is given by:

$$c\vec{v} + d\vec{w} \quad (1)$$

where  $c$  and  $d$  are scalars. Note that **vector addition** is both **associative** and **commutative**.

The length of a vector in  $\vec{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  is given by:

$$\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_N^2} \quad (2)$$

The **dot product** (also known as scalar product) is defined as:

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + v_3 w_3 + \cdots + v_N w_N \quad (3)$$

for two vectors  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{w}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Using these, we can derive the following ideas and theorems.

**Idea:** The dot product of a vector with itself gives the square of its length:

$$\|\vec{v}\|^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \quad (4)$$

**Idea:** The **angle between two vectors** is given by:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{w}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \quad (5)$$

**Idea:** The **triangle inequality** is:

$$\|\vec{v} + \vec{w}\| \leq \|\vec{v}\| + \|\vec{w}\| \quad (6)$$

**Idea:** The **Cauchy-Schwarz-Bunakowsky Inequality** is:

$$|\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}| \leq \|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\| \quad (7)$$

**Idea:** The **projection** of  $\vec{w}$  on  $\vec{v}$  can be written as:

$$\vec{u} = \text{proj}_{\vec{v}} \vec{w} = \frac{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|^2} \vec{v} = \frac{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|} \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|} \quad (8)$$

You can view the last part  $\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$  as a unit vector pointing in the direction of  $\vec{v}$  such that the **scalar projection** can be defined as:

$$|\vec{u}| = |\text{proj}_{\vec{v}} \vec{w}| = \frac{\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|} \quad (9)$$

# 2 Plane Geometry

The **cross product** is defined as:

$$\vec{u} = \vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_2 w_3 - v_3 w_2 \\ v_3 w_1 - v_1 w_3 \\ v_1 w_2 - v_2 w_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

which has a magnitude of  $\|\vec{u} \times \vec{w}\| = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{w}\| \sin \theta$ . The direction can be determined using the **right hand rule**. Cross products have the following properties:

**Properties:** The properties of a cross product is as follows.

- Consider 3 vectors,  $\vec{v}$ ,  $\vec{w}$ , and  $\vec{z}$ . Then:

$$\vec{v} \times (\vec{w} + \vec{z}) = \vec{v} \times \vec{w} + \vec{v} \times \vec{z} \quad (11)$$

- The cross product is not commutative, but they are anti-commutative:

$$\vec{v} \times \vec{w} = -\vec{w} \times \vec{v} \quad (12)$$

- When crossed with the zero vector, we have:

$$\vec{v} \times \vec{0} = \vec{0} \times \vec{v} = \vec{0} \quad (13)$$

- When multiplied by a scalar,

$$c(\vec{v} \times \vec{w}) = (c\vec{v}) \times \vec{w} = \vec{v} \times (c\vec{w}) \quad (14)$$

We can write out any point on a plane given a linear combination of two vectors  $\vec{d}_1$  and  $\vec{d}_2$  which span the plane:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ z_0 \end{bmatrix} + c\vec{d}_1 + d\vec{d}_2 \quad (15)$$

where  $\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ z_0 \end{bmatrix}$  is any known point on the plane. Additionally, we can define a plane by its normal vector:

$$\vec{n} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

by taking the cross product between any two vectors  $\vec{P_0P}$  that lie on the plane such that:

$$\vec{P_0P} \cdot \vec{n} = 0 \quad (17)$$

TODO: Will revisit this part with more plane related things (e.g. projections onto a plane, distance from line to plane, alternate representations of planes.)

### 3 Matrix Multiplication and Linear Transformations

A matrix can be used to represent systems of linear equations. For example, the following set:

$$x - 2y = 1 \quad (18)$$

$$3x + 2y = 11 \quad (19)$$

can be represented by a **row picture**, which represents the classical “find the intersection” visual approach. It can also be represented via a **column picture**:

$$x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} \quad (20)$$

It can also be represented via matrices:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Matrix A}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{vector } \vec{x}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{vector } \vec{b}} \quad (21)$$

We can perform **matrix multiplication** if  $A$  has  $n$  columns and  $B$  has  $n$  rows.

**Idea:** When multiplying two matrices, the entry in row  $i$  and column  $j$  of  $AB$  is:

$$(\text{Row } i \text{ of } A) \cdot (\text{column } j \text{ of } B) \quad (22)$$

Recall that  $A$  and  $B$  can only be multiplied if  $A$  is  $m \times n$  and  $B$  is  $n \times p$ . The size of the resulting matrix is therefore  $m \times p$ .

**Properties:**

1.  $A + B = B + A$  (commutative)
2.  $c(A + B) = cA + cB$  (where  $c$  is scalar)
3.  $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$  (associative)
4.  $C(A + B) = CA + CB$  (distributive from left)
5.  $(A + B)C = AC + BC$  (distributive from right)
6.  $A(BC) = (AB)C$  (associative)

Matrices can also be viewed as **linear transformations**.  $L$  represents a linear operator iff:

1.  $L(c\vec{v}) = cL(\vec{v})$
2.  $L(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = L(\vec{v}) + L(\vec{w})$

**Idea:** All linear transformations can be summarized by matrices and represented by matrix multiplication of a vector. We can determine the matrix associated with the transformation by analyzing what happens to the unit vectors  $\vec{i}$ ,  $\vec{j}$ , and  $\vec{k}$ , under the transformation.

Using the above information, we can show the following ideas:

**Idea:** The **projection** of vector  $\vec{w}$  on  $\vec{v}$  can be written using the linear transformation  $T_2$  such that:

$$\vec{u} = T_2(\vec{w}) = \frac{1}{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^2 & v_1 v_2 & v_1 v_3 \\ v_2 v_1 & v_2^2 & v_2 v_3 \\ v_3 v_1 & v_3 v_2 & v_3^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (23)$$

**Idea:** The **identity** matrix:

$$I(\vec{w}) = \vec{w} \quad (24)$$

where:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (25)$$

**Idea:** Suppose we have a transformation  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , we can define a **composition** of these transformations as:

$$T_3(\vec{v}) = T_2(T_1(\vec{v})) = M_{T_2} M_{T_1} \vec{v} = M_{T_3} \quad (26)$$

where  $M$  represents the matrix associated with the linear transformations.

**Idea:** We want to derive the **double angle** formulas with matrix multiplication. Suppose we wish to determine the matrix associated with the transformation of rotating a vector by an angle  $\theta$  counterclockwise. We think about where the  $\vec{i}$  and  $\vec{j}$  vectors go to, which are  $\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$  respectively, so the matrix associated with it is thus:

$$M_{T_\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (27)$$

which is known as the **rotation** matrix. So rotating an angle by  $2\theta$  is equivalent to applying the transformation  $T_\theta(T_\theta(\vec{v}))$ :

$$M_{T_\theta}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\theta & -\sin 2\theta \\ \sin 2\theta & \cos 2\theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (28)$$

or:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\theta & -\sin 2\theta \\ \sin 2\theta & \cos 2\theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta & -2 \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta & \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (29)$$

## 4 Eigenvalues, Inverse, and Determinants

The motivation behind this section is that most vectors change direction when they are multiplied by a matrix, except a few certain ones which have very special properties.

**Definition: Eigenvectors** are special vectors associated with a certain transformation  $T$  such that they don't change directions under a linear transformation. We can denote these vectors  $\vec{w}$  as solutions to the linear equation (where  $\vec{w} \neq \vec{0}$ ):

$$M\vec{w} = \lambda\vec{w} \quad (30)$$

where the scalar  $\lambda$  is the **eigenvalue** of matrix  $M$ .

Many times, we can determine the eigenvectors and eigenvalues by drawing a picture and using intuition. In the lecture, the following matrices were used as examples:

- The projection matrix. (Answer:  $\vec{w}$ : any vector parallel or perpendicular to the projection.  $\lambda$ : 1 and 0 respectively.)
- A reflection matrix. (Answer:  $\vec{w}$ : any vector parallel or perpendicular to the line of reflection.  $\lambda$ : 1 and -1 respectively.)
- A rotation matrix. (Answer: None, at least in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .)

**Idea:** However, sometimes intuition fails. We can solve the eigenvalue eigenvector equation as follows (this uses information from later on in this section):

$$M\vec{w} = \lambda\vec{w} \quad (31)$$

$$(M - I\lambda)\vec{w} = \vec{0} \quad (32)$$

Since  $M - I\lambda$  is not invertible, then the determinant of  $M - I\lambda$  is zero, or:

$$\det(M - \lambda I) = 0 \quad (33)$$

This is the equation we need to solve to find the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

Another problem in linear algebra is finding **inverses**. Suppose  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{T}$  were given and we wish to find  $\vec{w}$  in the following equation:

$$\vec{u} = T(\vec{w}) \quad (34)$$

If we can find the inverse  $T^{-1}$  where  $T^{-1}T = TT^{-1} = I$ , then:

$$\vec{w} = T^{-1}(\vec{u}) \quad (35)$$

**Idea:** Calculating  $T^{-1}$  is equivalent to expanding  $T^{-1}T$  and demanding each entry corresponds to the corresponding entry in the identity matrix. For example, if  $T = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  and  $T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}$ , then:

$$\begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (36)$$

which gives the system of four equations and four unknowns when expanded. It turns out that the inverse  $T^{-1}$  is:

$$T^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad (37)$$

The quantity that we factor out  $ad - bc$  is the **determinant** of the matrix, and in order for the inverse to exist, it cannot equal zero. If the inverse exists, we call it **invertible**.

**Definition:** The determinant of  $M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  can be written as:

$$\det(M) = ad - bc \quad (38)$$

A few other ideas that follow:

**Idea:** The inverse of the projection matrix does not exist. This can be interpreted both with determinants (rigorously) and geometrically (it's a irreversible process).

**Idea:** In the eigenvector eigenvalue equation:

$$M\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \quad (39)$$

the quantity  $M - \lambda I$  is not invertible.