# Linear Algebra

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# **Solving Linear Equations**

#### 1.1 Systems of Linear Equations

**Definition.** A linear equation in the variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is an equation that can be written in the form

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$$

where b and coefficients  $a_i$  are real or complex numbers. A linear system is a collection of one or more linear equations involving the same variables. A solution of the system is a list of numbers that makes each equation a true statement when their values are substituted for  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  respectively. The set of all possible solutions is called the solution set of the linear system. Two linear systems are called equivalent if they have the same solution set.

**Definition.** A linear system is *consistent* if it has either one solution or infinitely many solutions. If it has no solution, it is called *inconsistent*.

**Definition.** The *coefficient matrix* is the matrix where the coefficients of each variable in a system aligned in columns. If additionally the coefficient of the right-hand side of equations are added to the coefficient matrix, a new matrix called *augmented matrix* is generated.

**Definition.** Elementary row operations on a matrix include:

- (*Replacement*) Replace one row by the sum of itself and a multiple of another row.
- (Interchange) Interchange two rows.
- (Scaling) Multiply all entries in a row by a nonzero constant.

Two matrices are *row equivalent* if there is a sequence of elementary operations that transforms one matrix into the other.

**Theorem 1.1.1.** If the augmented matrices of two linear systems are row equivalent, then the two systems have the same solution set.

#### 1.2 Row Reduction and Echelon Forms

**Definition.** A rectangular matrix is in *echelon form* if it has the following properties:

- All nonzero rows are above any rows of all zeros;
- Each leading entry of a row is in a column to the right of the leading entry of the row above it;
- All entries in a column below a leading entry are zero.

If a matrix in echelon form satisfies the following additional conditions, then it is in *reduced echelon form*:

- The leading entry in each nonzero row is 1;
- Each leading 1 is the only nonzero entry in its column.

**Theorem 1.2.1.** Each matrix is row equivalent to an unique reduced echelon matrix.

If a matrix A is row equivalent to an (reduced)echelon matrix U, U is called an *(reduced) echelon form of* A. The abbreviation RREF and REF are used for reduced (row) echelon form and (row) echelon form respectively.

**Definition.** A pivot position in a matrix A is a location in A that corresponds to a leading entry in an echelon form of A. A pivot column is a column of A that contains a pivot position.

**Theorem 1.2.2.** A linear system is consistent iff the rightmost column of the augmented matrix **is not** a pivot column, that is, iff an echelon form of the augmented matrix has **no** row of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$
 with  $b$  nonzero

If a linear system is consistent, then the solution set contains either

- a unique solution, when there are no free variables.
- infinitely many solutions, when there is at least one free variable.

### 1.3 Vector Equations

**Definition.** A matrix with only one column is called a *column vector*, or simply a *vector*.

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**Definition.** Given vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and given scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p$ , the vector  $\mathbf{y}$  defined by

$$\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{v}_p$$

is called a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{v}_p$  using weights  $c_1, c_2, \cdots, c_p$ .

**Definition.** If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{v}_p$  are in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the set of all linear combinations of them is denoted by  $\mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  and is called the *subset of*  $\mathbb{R}^n$  *spanned (or generated) by*  $\mathbf{v}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{v}_p$ . That is,  $\mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is the collection of all vectors that can be written in the form

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{v}_p$$

with  $c_1, c_2, \cdots, c_p$  scalars.

#### 1.4 The Matrix Equation Ax = b

**Definition.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix, with columns  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , and if **x** is in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the product of **A** and **x**, denoted by **Ax**, is the linear combination of the columns of **A** using the corresponding entries in **x** as weights, that is,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \cdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1a_1 + x_2a_2 + \cdots + x_na_n$$

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  is defined only if the number of columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  equals the number of entries in  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Definition.** Equations having the form Ax = b are called *matrix equations*.

**Theorem 1.4.1.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix, with columns  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , and **b** is in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , the matrix equation

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

has the same solution set as the vector equation

$$x_1a_1 + x_2a_1 + \cdots + x_na_n = \mathbf{b}$$

which has the same solution set as the system of linear equations whose augmented matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n & \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Definition.** A set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  spans (or generates)  $\mathbb{R}^m$  if  $\mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\} = \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Theorem 1.4.2.** Let A be an  $m \times n$  coefficient matrix. Then the following statements are logically equivalent, that is, for a particular A, either they are all true statements or they are all false.

- For each **b** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , the equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a solution.
- The columns of **A** spans  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .
- A has a pivot position in every row.

**Theorem 1.4.3.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix, **u** and **v** are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and c is a scalar, then

- $\bullet \ \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}.$
- $\mathbf{A}(c\mathbf{u}) = c(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u})$ .

#### 1.5 Solution Sets of Linear Systems

**Definition.** A system of Linear equations is said to be *homogeneous* if it can be written in the form  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Such a system always has at least one solution, namely,  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , and this solution is usually called the *trivial solution*. A homogeneous equation has a nontrivial solution iff the equation has at least one free variable.

**Definition.** Vector addition can be considered as a *translation*. e.g. the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  is *translated by*  $\mathbf{p}$  to  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{p}$ .

**Definition.** A parametric vector equation can be written as

$$\mathbf{x} = s\mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v} \qquad (s, t \in \mathbb{R})$$

which describes explicitly the spanned plane by  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ . Whenever a solution set is described explicitly with vectors, we say that the solution is in parametric vector form.

**Theorem 1.5.1.** Suppose the equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent for some given  $\mathbf{b}$ , and let  $\mathbf{p}$  be a nonzero solution. Then the solution set of it is the set of all vectors of the form  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{v}_h$ , where  $\mathbf{v}_h$  is any solution of the homogeneous equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

### 1.6 Linear Independence

**Definition.** An indexed set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be linearly independent if the vector equation

$$x_1\mathbf{v}_1 + x_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + x_p\mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0}$$

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has only the trivial solution. The set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is said to be *linearly dependent* if there exist weights  $c_1, \dots, c_p$ , not all zero, such that

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_p\mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0}$$

and this equation is called a linear dependence relation among  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p$ .

**Theorem 1.6.1.** The columns of a matrix A are linearly independent iff the equation Ax = 0 has **only** the trivial solution.

**Theorem 1.6.2.** A set of two vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$  is linearly dependent iff one of the vectors is a multiple of the other.

**Theorem 1.6.3.** An indexed set  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  of two or more vectors is linearly dependent iff at least one of the vectors in S is a linear combination of the others.

**Theorem 1.6.4.** Any set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is linearly dependent if p > n (Same as the criterion for the existence of solutions in a system of equations).

**Theorem 1.6.5.** If a set  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains the zero vector, then the set is linearly dependent.

#### 1.7 Linear Transformations

**Definition.** A transformation (or function or mapping) from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is a rule that assigns to each vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  a vector  $T(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called the domain of T, and  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is called the codomain of T. For  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the vector  $T(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is called the image of  $\mathbf{x}$  under T. The set of all images  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is called the range of T.

**Example 1.1.** Given a scalar r, define  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = r\mathbf{x}$ . T is called a contraction when  $0 \le r \le 1$  and a dilation when r > 1.

**Theorem 1.7.1.** Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation. Then there exists a unique matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  such that

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

In fact, **A** is the  $m \times n$  matrix whose jth column is the vector  $T(\mathbf{e}_j)$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_j$  is the jth column of the identity matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} T(\mathbf{e}_1) & \cdots & T(\mathbf{e}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix A is called the standard matrix for the linear transformation T.

**Theorem 1.7.2.** Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation. Then T is injective iff the equation  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution.

**Theorem 1.7.3.** Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation and let **A** be the standard matrix for T. Then

- T is surjective iff the columns of **A** span  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ;
- $\bullet$  T is injective iff the columns of **A** are linearly independent.

**Definition.** If there is a matrix **A** such that

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k \quad \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

then the equation above is called a *linear difference equation* (or recurrence relation).

## **Matrices**

### 2.1 Matrices and Arithmetic Operations on Them

**Definition.** A *diagonal matrix* is a square matrix whose nondiagonal entries are zero.

**Definition.** Two matrices are equal if they have the same size and each entries are equal.

**Definition.** The *sum* of two matrices is the sum of each corresponding entries in these two matrices. Thus the sum is defined only when they have the same size.

**Definition.** The *scalar multiple* of a matrix has entries of the product of the scalar and each corresponding original entries.

**Theorem 2.1.1.** The set of matrices of the same size with respect to matrix addition and scalar multiplication over the field of real numbers is a vector space.

**Definition.** A square matrix is called *lower triangular* if all the entries above the main diagonal are zero. Similarly, a square matrix is called *upper triangular* if all the entries below the main diagonal are zero. A triangular matrix is one that is either lower triangular or upper triangular. A matrix that is both upper and lower triangular is called a *diagonal matrix*.

**Definition.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix, and if **B** is an  $n \times p$  matrix with columns  $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p$ , then the *product* **AB** is the  $m \times p$  matrix whose columns are  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_p$ . Multiplication of matrices corresponds to composition of linear transformations.

**Theorem 2.1.2.** The multiplication has the following properties:

• Associativity of multiplication;

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- Left distribution;
- Right distribution;
- Associativity over scalar multiplication;
- Identity for matrix multiplication; i.e. If **A** is a matrix of size  $m \times n$ , then

$$\mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n$$

where  $\mathbf{I}_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

**Definition.** In general, matrix multiplication is not commutative and the cancellation law do not hold. When two matrices' multiplication is commutative, they are said to be *commute* with one another. Also, if a product AB is the zero matrix, in general it does not mean that either A = 0 or B = 0.

**Definition.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix and k is a positive integer, then  $\mathbf{A}^k$  denoted the product of k copies of **A**, i.e. the kth power of **A**. The 0th power of a matrix is the identity matrix.

**Definition.** If **A** is an  $m \times n$  matrix, the *transpose* of **A** is the  $n \times m$  matrix, denoted  $\mathbf{A}^T$ , whose columns are formed from the corresponding rows of **A**.

**Theorem 2.1.3.** The transpose operation has the following properties:

- $(\mathbf{A}^T)^T = \mathbf{A}$ ;
- $\bullet (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{B}^T:$
- Associativity with scalar multiplication;
- $(\mathbf{AB})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$ , that is, the transpose of a product of arbitrary number of matrices equals the product of their transpose in the reverse order.

#### 2.2 The Inverse of a Matrix

**Definition.** If **A** is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then if

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

we say that **A** is *invertible* and  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  an *inverse* of **A**. The inverse of a matrix is unique. If a matrix is not invertible, it is called a *singular matrix*.

**Theorem 2.2.1.** A matrix **A** is invertible only if  $det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$ , and in this case

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \operatorname{Adj}(\mathbf{A})$$

**Theorem 2.2.2.** If **A** is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix, then for each  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has the unique solution  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.3.** • The inverse of the inverse of a invertible matrix is the matrix itself.

- The inverse of the product of arbitrary number of invertible square matrices is the product of the inverse of themselves multiplied in the reverse order.
- The transpose of a invertible matrix is also invertible. Moreover, the inverse of a matrix's transpose is the transpose of the matrix's inverse.

**Definition.** An *elementary matrix* is a matrix obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on a identity matrix.

**Theorem 2.2.4.** If an elementary row operations is performed on an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , the resulting matrix can be written as  $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}$ , where the  $m \times m$  matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  is created by performing the same row operation on  $\mathbf{I}_m$ .

**Theorem 2.2.5.** Each elementary matrix **E** is invertible. The inverse of **E** is the elementary matrix of the same type that transforms **E** back into **I**.

**Theorem 2.2.6.** An  $n \times n$  matrix **A** is invertible iff **A** is a row equivalent to  $\mathbf{I}_n$ , and in this case, any sequence of elementary row operations that reduces **A** to  $\mathbf{I}_n$  also transforms  $\mathbf{I}_n$  into  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.7** (The Invertible Matrix Theorem). Let **A** be a square  $n \times n$  matrix. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- A is an invertible matrix.
- A is row equivalent to the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.
- A has n pivot positions.
- The equation Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution.
- The columns of A form a linearly independent set.
- The linear transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  is injective.
- The equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has at least one solution for each  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- The columns of **A** span  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

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- The linear transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  maps  $\mathbb{R}^n$  onto  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- There is an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  such that  $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ .
- There is an  $n \times n$  matrix **D** such that AD = I.
- $\mathbf{A}^T$  is an invertible matrix.
- The columns of **A** form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- $\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A} = \mathbb{R}^n$
- dim Col  $\mathbf{A} = n$
- rank  $\mathbf{A} = n$
- Nul  $\mathbf{A} = \{\mathbf{0}\}\$
- $\dim \operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A} = 0$

**Proposition.** Let **A** and **B** be square matrices. If AB = I, then **A** and **B** are both invertible, with  $B = A^{-1}$  and  $A = B^{-1}$ 

**Definition.** A linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is *invertible* if there exists a function  $S: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$(\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$$
  $S(T(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$   
 $(\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$   $T(S(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$ 

and S is called the *inverse* of T and denoted  $T^{-1}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.8.** A linear transformation is invertible iff its standard matrix is invertible. In this case its inverse is unique.

**Theorem 2.2.9.** If **A** is  $m \times n$  and **B** is  $n \times p$ , then

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Col}_{1}(\mathbf{A}) & \operatorname{Col}_{2}(\mathbf{A}) & \cdots & \operatorname{Col}_{n}(\mathbf{A}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Row}_{1}(\mathbf{B}) \\ \operatorname{Row}_{2}(\mathbf{B}) \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{Row}_{n}(\mathbf{B}) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \operatorname{Col}_{1}(\mathbf{A}) \operatorname{Row}_{1}(\mathbf{B}) + \cdots \operatorname{Col}_{n}(\mathbf{A}) \operatorname{Row}_{n}(\mathbf{B})$$

**Definition.** A *block matrix* is a partitioned matrix with zero blocks off the main diagonal. Such matrix is invertible iff each block on the diagonal is invertible.

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**Definition.** A factorization of a matrix is an equation that expresses it as a product of two or more matrices.

**Definition.** An square matrix is said to be *strictly diagonally dominant* if the absolute of each diagonal entry exceeds the sum of the absolute values of the other entries in the same row.

#### 2.3 Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition.** A subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is any set  $H \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that has three properties:

- The zero vector is in H;
- For each vector  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in H, their sum is in H (addition is closed on H);
- For each  $\mathbf{u}$  in H and each scalar c, the vector  $c\mathbf{u}$  is in H (scalar multiplication is closed on H).

**Definition.** The *column space* of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is the set  $\operatorname{Col} \mathbf{A}$  of all linear combinations of the columns of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Definition.** The *null space* of a matrix **A** is the set Nul **A** of all solutions to the homogeneous equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Theorem 2.3.1.** The null space of a  $m \times n$  matrix is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** A basis for a subspace H of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a linearly independent set in H that spans H.

**Example 2.1.** The standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ , where

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 0 \ dots \ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \cdots, \mathbf{e}_n = egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ dots \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Theorem 2.3.2.** The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis for the column space of A.

**Definition.** Suppose the set  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  is the basis for a subspace H. For each  $\mathbf{x} \in H$ , the *coordinates of*  $\mathbf{x}$  *relative to the basis*  $\mathcal{B}$  are the weights  $c_1, \dots, c_p$  such that  $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_p\mathbf{b}_p$ , and the vector in  $\mathbb{R}^p$ 

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \cdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the *coordinate vector of*  $\mathbf{x}$  *relative to*  $\mathcal{B}$ .

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**Definition.** The *dimension* of a nonzero subspace H, denoted by dim H, is the number of vectors in any basis for H. The dimension of the zero subspace  $\{0\}$  is defined to be zero.

**Definition.** The rank of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , denoted by rank  $\mathbf{A}$ , is the dimension of the column space of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Theorem 2.3.3** (The Rank Theorem). If a matrix **A** has n columns, then rank  $\mathbf{A} + \dim \mathrm{Nul} \, \mathbf{A} = n$ .

**Theorem 2.3.4** (The Basis Theorem). Let H be a p-dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in H is automatically a basis for H. Also, any set of p elements of H that spans H is a basis for H.

## **Determinants**

#### 3.1 Determinants and some other Concepts

**Definition.** The determinant of the matrix **A** 

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

denoted det  $\mathbf{A}$  and equals ad-bc. Determinant is only defined for a square matrix, but the procedure above can be repeated on higher dimension matrices, for example

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ e & f & g & h \\ i & j & k & l \\ m & n & o & p \end{bmatrix} = a \det \begin{bmatrix} f & g & h \\ j & k & l \\ n & o & p \end{bmatrix} - b \det \begin{bmatrix} e & g & h \\ i & k & l \\ m & o & p \end{bmatrix} + c \det \begin{bmatrix} e & f & h \\ i & j & l \\ m & n & p \end{bmatrix} - d \det \begin{bmatrix} e & f & g \\ i & j & k \\ m & n & o \end{bmatrix}$$

By the Leibniz formula for the determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix **A** is

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} (\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n a_{i,\sigma_i})$$

Here the sum is computed over all permutations  $\sigma$  of the set  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . A permutation is a function that reorders this set of integers. The value in the *i*th position after the reordering  $\sigma$  is denoted by  $\sigma_i$ . For example, for n=3, the original sequence 1, 2, 3 might be reordered to  $\sigma=[2,3,1]$ , with  $\sigma_1=2, \sigma_2=3$ , and  $\sigma_3=1$ . The set of all such permutations (also known as the symmetric group on n elements) is denoted by  $S_n$ .

For each permutation  $\sigma$ ,  $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)$  denotes the signature of  $\sigma$ , a value that is +1 whenever the reordering given by  $\sigma$  can be achieved by successively interchanging two entries an even number of times, and -1 whenever it can be achieved by an odd number of such interchanges.

**Definition.** If **A** is a square matrix, then the *minor* of the entry in the i-th row and j-th column (also called the (i,j) *minor*, or a *first minor*) is the determinant of the submatrix formed by deleting the i-th row and j-th column. This number is often denoted  $M_{i,j}$ . The (i,j) cofactor is obtained by multiplying the minor by  $(-1)^{i+j}$  and is denoted  $C_{i,j}$ .

In general, let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix and k an integer with  $0 < k \le m$ , and  $k \le n$ . A  $k \times k$  minor of **A**, also called minor determinant of order k of **A** or, if m = n, (n - k)th minor determinant of **A**, is the determinant of a  $k \times k$  matrix obtained from **A** by deleting m - k rows and n - k columns.

**Definition.** The matrix formed by all of the cofactors of a square matrix A is called the *cofactor matrix*.

**Definition.** The *adjugate* is the transpose of the cofactor matrix of it, that is, if **A** is a matrix and **C** is its cofactor matrix, then

$$Adj(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{C}^T$$

**Theorem 3.1.1.** For a invertible matrix  $n \times n$  **A** 

$$\mathbf{A} \operatorname{Adj}(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{I}$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det \mathbf{A}} \operatorname{Adj} \mathbf{A}$$

**Theorem 3.1.2.** The determinant of an square matrix can be computed by a cofactor expansion across any row or down any column. The expansion across the ith row is

$$\det \mathbf{A} = a_{i1}C_{i1} + \dots + a_{in}C_{in}$$

**Theorem 3.1.3.** If  $\mathbf{A}$  is a triangular matrix, then  $\det \mathbf{A}$  is the product of the entries on the main diagonal of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

#### 3.2 Properties of Determinants

**Definition.** An elementary matrix is called an *row replacement* if it is obtained from the identity matrix by adding a multiple of one row to another; it's called an *interchange* if it is obtained by interchanging two rows of identity; and it's called a *scale by* r if it is obtained by multiplying a row of identity by a nonzero scalar r.

Theorem 3.2.1. Let A be a square matrix.

• If a multiple of one row of A is added to another row to produce a matrix B, then  $\det A = \det B$ .

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- If two rows of **A** are interchanged to produce **B**, then  $\det \mathbf{B} = -\det \mathbf{A}$ .
- If one row of **A** is multiplied by k to produce **B**, then  $\det \mathbf{B} = k \cdot \det \mathbf{A}$ .

or, equivalently, if **A** is an  $n \times n$  matrix and **E** is an  $n \times n$  elementary matrix, then

$$\det \mathbf{E} \mathbf{A} = (\det \mathbf{E})(\det \mathbf{A})$$

where  $\det \mathbf{E}$  assumes 1, -1, r respectively for  $\mathbf{E}$  is a row replacement, an interchange, and a scale by r.

**Theorem 3.2.2.** If **A** is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\det \mathbf{A}^T = \det \mathbf{A}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.3.** If **A** and **B** are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $\det \mathbf{AB} = (\det \mathbf{A})(\det \mathbf{B})$ .

**Example 3.1.** If all columns except one are held fixed in a square matrix, then its determinant is a linear function of that one(vector) variable.

Let  $\mathbf{A}_i(\mathbf{b})$  denote the matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{A}$  by replacing column i by the vector  $\mathbf{b}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.4.** If **A** is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. For any  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then unique solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has entries given by

$$x_i = \frac{\det \mathbf{A}_i(\mathbf{b})}{\det \mathbf{A}}, \qquad i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$$

**Theorem 3.2.5.** If **A** is a  $2 \times 2$  matrix, the area of the parallelogram determined by the columns of **A** is  $|\det \mathbf{A}|$ . If **A** is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix, the volume of the parallelepiped determined by the columns of **A** is  $|\det \mathbf{A}|$ .

**Theorem 3.2.6.** Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  be the linear transformation determined by a  $2 \times 2$  matrix **A**. If S is a parallelogram in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then

$$\{area\ of\ T(S)\} = |\det \mathbf{A}| \cdot \{area\ of\ S\}$$

and similar, if in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  S is a parallelepiped, then

$$\{volume\ of\ T(S)\} = |\det \mathbf{A}| \cdot \{volumn\ of\ S\}$$

These conclusions hold whenever S has finite area or finite volume.

### 4

# Vector Spaces

**Definition.** A vector space over a field F is a set V with two closed operations, vector addition or simply addition and scalar multiplication, that satisfy the following axioms:

- 1. Associativity of addition;
- 2. Commutativity of addition;
- 3. Identity element of addition;
- 4. Inverse elements of addition;
- 5. Compatibility of scalar multiplication with field multiplication;

$$a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$$

- 6. Identity element of scalar multiplication;
- 7. Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to vector addition;
- 8. Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to field addition.

**Definition.** A *subspace* of a vector space V is a subset H of V that has three properties:

- The zero vector of V is in H.
- $\bullet$  *H* is closed under vector addition.
- $\bullet$  *H* is closed under multiplication by scalars.

If a subspace only contains the zero vector  $\mathbf{0}$ , it is called a *zero subspace* and written as  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

**Theorem 4.0.1.** If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p$  are in a vector space V, then  $\mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is a subspace of V and is called the subspace spanned (or generated) by  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ . Given any subspace H of V, a spanning (or generating) set for H is a set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in H such that  $H = \mathrm{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ .

**Definition.** The *null space* of an  $m \times n$  matrix **A**, written as Nul **A**, is the set of all solutions to the homogeneous equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Theorem 4.0.2.** The null space of an  $m \times n$  matrix **A** is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** The *column space* of an  $m \times n$  matrix, written as Col **A**, is the set of all linear combinations of the columns of **A**.

**Theorem 4.0.3.** The column space of an  $m \times n$  matrix is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem 4.0.4.** The column space of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is all of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  iff the equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a solution for each  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Definition.** For a linear transformation T from a vector space V into a vector space W, the kernel(or  $null\ space$ ) of T is the set of all  $\mathbf{u} \in V$  such that  $T(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$ . The range of T is the set of all vectors in W of the form  $T(\mathbf{x})$  for some  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ . If T can be written as a matrix transformation, then the kernel and the range of T are just the null space and the column space of that matrix. Kernel is a subspace of V, and range is a subspace of W.

**Definition.** An indexed set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\} \in V$  is said to be *linearly independent* if the vector equation

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_p\mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0}$$

has only the trivial solution.

**Theorem 4.0.5.** An indexed set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  of two or more vectors, with  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{0}$ , is linearly dependent iff some  $\mathbf{v}_j$  with j > 1 is a linear combination of the preceding vectors,  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$ .

**Definition.** Let H be a subspace of a vector space V. An indexed set of vectors  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  in V is a *basis* for H if

- 1.  $\mathcal{B}$  is a linearly independent set;
- 2. the subspace spanned by  $\mathcal{B}$  coincides with H.

**Theorem 4.0.6.** Let  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  be a set in V and let  $H = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ .

- 1. If one of the vectors in S is a linear combination of the remaining vectors in S, then the set formed from S by removing this vector still spans H.
- 2. If  $H \neq \{0\}$ , some subset of S is a basis for H.

**Theorem 4.0.7.** The pivot columns of a matrix **A** form a basis for Col **A**.

#### 4.1 Coordinate Systems

**Theorem 4.1.1.** Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  be a basis for a vector space V. Then for each  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , there exists a unique set of scalars  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

**Definition.** Suppose the set  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  is a basis for V and  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ . The *coordinate of*  $\mathbf{x}$  *relative to the basis*  $\mathcal{B}$  (or the  $\mathcal{B}$ -coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$ ) are the weights  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that  $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$ .

The vector

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is the coordinate vector of  $\mathbf{x}$  (relative to  $\mathcal{B}$ ), or the  $\mathcal{B}$ -coordinate vector of  $\mathbf{x}$ . The mapping  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is the coordinate mapping (determined by  $\mathcal{B}$ ).

**Definition.** The matrix

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{b}_p]$$

is called the *change-of-coordinates matrix* from  $\mathcal{B}$  to the standard basis in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , since for a vector  $\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n$  we obtain the relationship

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

**Theorem 4.1.2.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis for a vector space V. Then the coordinate mapping  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is an injective linear transformation from V into  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

In general, an injective linear transformation from a vector space V onto another vector space W is called an isomorphism from V onto W.

**Theorem 4.1.3.** If a vector space V has a basis  $\mathcal{B} = \mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$ , then any set in V containing more than n vectors must be linearly dependent.

**Theorem 4.1.4.** If a vector space V has a basis of n vectors, then every basis of V must consist of exactly n vectors.

**Definition.** If V is spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be *finite-dimensional*, and the *dimension* of V, written as  $\dim V$ , is the number of vectors in a basis for V. If V is not spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be *infinite-dimensional*.

**Theorem 4.1.5.** Let H be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V. Any linearly independent set in H can be expanded, if necessary, to a basis for H. Also, H is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim H \leqslant \dim V$$

**Theorem 4.1.6** (The Basis Theorem). Let V be a p-dimensional vector space,  $p \ge 1$ . Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in V is automatically a basis for V. Any set of exactly p elements that spans V is a basis for V.

The dimension of Nul  $\mathbf{A}$  is the number of free variables in  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , and the dimension of Col  $\mathbf{A}$  is the number of pivot columns in  $\mathbf{A}$ .

#### 4.2 Rank

**Definition.** The set of all linear combinations of the row vectors in  $\mathbf{A}$  is called the *row space* of  $\mathbf{A}$  and denoted Row  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Theorem 4.2.1.** If two matrices **A** and **B** are row equivalent, then their row spaces are the same. If **B** is in echelon form, the nonzero rows of **B** form a basis for the row space of **A** as well as **B**.

**Definition.** The rank of **A** is the dimension of the column space of **A**.

**Theorem 4.2.2** (The Rank Theorem). The dimensions of the column space and the row space of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are equal. This common dimension, the rank of  $\mathbf{A}$ , also equals the number of pivot positions in  $\mathbf{A}$  and satisfies the equation

$$\operatorname{rank} \mathbf{A} + \dim \operatorname{Nul} \mathbf{A} = n$$

### 4.3 Change of Basis

**Theorem 4.3.1.** Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n\}$  be bases of a vector space V. Then there is an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\underset{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}{\mathbf{P}}$ , called the change-of-coordinates matrix from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$ , such that

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{C}} = \mathop{\mathbf{P}}_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

The columns of  $\underset{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}{\mathbf{P}}$  are the  $\mathcal{C}$ -coordinate vectors of the vectors in the basis  $\mathcal{B}$ , that is

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} [\mathbf{b}_1]_{\mathcal{C}} & [\mathbf{b}_2]_{\mathcal{C}} & \cdots & [\mathbf{b}_n]_{\mathcal{C}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Because the columns of this matrix are linearly independent, since they are the coordinate vectors of the linearly independent set  $\mathcal{B}$ , it follows that  $\underset{\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}{\mathbf{P}}$  is invertible, and we have

$$(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}})^{-1} = \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{B}\leftarrow\mathcal{C}}$$

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

#### 5.1 Definition

**Definition.** An eigenvector of an  $n \times n$  matrix **A** is a nonzero vector **x** such that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  for some scalar  $\lambda$ . A scalar  $\lambda$  is called an eigenvalue of **A** if there is a nontrivial solution **x** of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ ; such an **x** is called an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

**Definition.** The set of all solutions of

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and is called the *eigenspace* of **A** corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

**Theorem 5.1.1.** The eigenvalues of a triangular matrix are the entries on its main diagonal.

**Theorem 5.1.2** (The Invertible Matrix Theorem). Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then  $\mathbf{A}$  is invertible iff the number 0 is not an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Theorem 5.1.3.** If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r$  are eigenvectors that corresponding to distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , then the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$  is linearly independent.

**Definition.** The scalar equation  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$  is called the *characteristic* equation of  $\mathbf{A}$ . If  $\mathbf{A}$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})$  is a polynomial of degree n called the *characteristic polynomial* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

**Theorem 5.1.4.** A scalar  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  iff  $\lambda$  satisfies the characteristic equation.

**Definition.** If **A** and **B** are  $n \times n$  matrices, then **A** and **B** are *similar* if there is an invertible matrix **P** such that  $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{AP} = \mathbf{B}$ . Changing **A** into  $\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{AP}$  is called a *similarity transformation*.

**Theorem 5.1.5.** If  $n \times n$  matrices **A** and **B** are similar, then they have the same characteristic polynomial and hence the same eigenvalues (with the same multiplicities).

#### 5.2 Diagonalization

**Definition.** A square matrix A is said to be *diagonalizable* if A is similar to a diagonal matrix.

**Theorem 5.2.1.** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonalizable iff  $\mathbf{A}$  has n linearly independent eigenvectors. In other words,  $\mathbf{A}$  is diagonalizable iff there are enough eigenvectors to form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and such basis is called an eigenvector basis.

**Theorem 5.2.2.** An  $n \times n$  matrix with n distinct eigenvalues is diagonalizable.

**Theorem 5.2.3.** Let **A** be an  $n \times n$  matrix whose distinct eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$ .

- 1. For  $1 \leq k \leq p$ , the dimension of the eigenspaces for  $\lambda_k$  is less than or equal to the multiplicity of the eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$ .
- 2. The matrix **A** is diagonalizable iff the sum of the dimensions of the distinct eigenspaces equals n, and this happens iff the dimension of the eigenspace for each  $\lambda_k$  equals the multiplicity of  $\lambda_k$ .
- 3. If **A** is diagonalizable and  $\mathcal{B}_k$  is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to  $\lambda_k$  for each k, then the total collection of vectors in the sets  $\mathcal{B}_1, \dots, \mathcal{B}_p$  forms an eigenvector basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** The matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} [T(\mathbf{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{C}} & [T(\mathbf{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{C}} & \cdots & [T(\mathbf{b}_n)]_{\mathcal{C}} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  is a basis for the vector space V, C is a basis in W, and T is a linear transformation from V to W, is called the *matrix for* T relative to the bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and C. If W is the same as V and the basis C is the same as  $\mathcal{B}$ , the matrix  $\mathbf{M}$  is called the *matrix for* T relative to  $\mathcal{B}$  or the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix for T, and denoted  $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

**Theorem 5.2.4** (Diagonal Matrix Representation). Suppose  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$ , where  $\mathbf{D}$  is a diagonal  $n \times n$  matrix. If  $\mathcal{B}$  is the basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  formed from the columns of  $\mathbf{P}$ , then  $\mathbf{D}$  is the  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrix of the transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ .