

MATH1002 Linear Algebra

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Topic 2A: Linear combinations

A vector \underline{v} is a linear combination of vectors $\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k$ if there are scalars c_1, \dots, c_k so that

$$\underline{v} = c_1 \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k$$

The scalars c_1, \dots, c_k are the coefficients of the linear combination.

Examples

1. $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -11 \end{bmatrix}$ is a linear combination of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$

since

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -11 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

2. In \mathbb{R}^2 let $\underline{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\underline{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ has coefficients 1 and 3

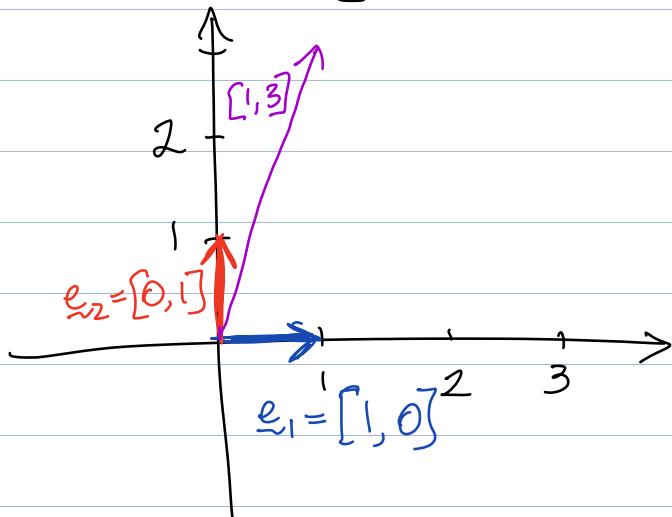
in the linear combination

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \underline{e}_1 + 3 \underline{e}_2$$

Check:

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$$\begin{aligned} 1\tilde{e}_1 + 3\tilde{e}_2 &= 1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$



3. In \mathbb{R}^2 , let $\tilde{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\tilde{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then $\tilde{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is not a linear combination of \tilde{v}_1 and \tilde{v}_2 .

Why? Try to find c_1, c_2 so that

$$\tilde{v} = c_1 \tilde{v}_1 + c_2 \tilde{v}_2$$

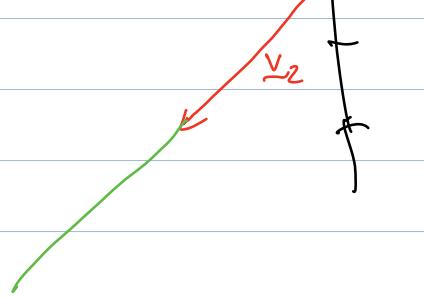
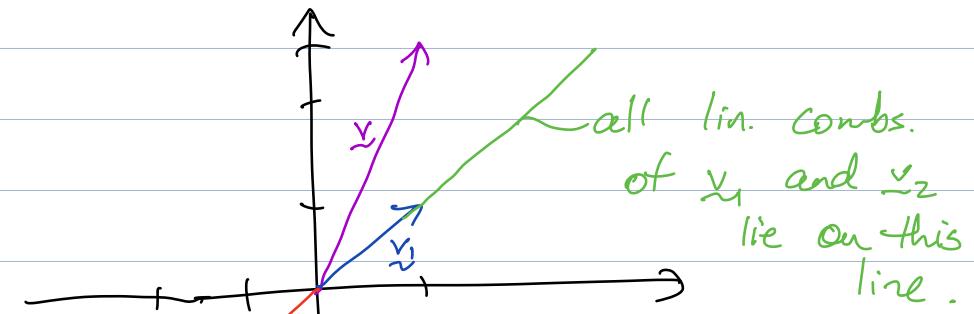
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -2c_2 \\ -2c_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad [3 \text{ of } 3]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 - 2c_2 \\ c_1 - 2c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 1 = c_1 - 2c_2 \\ 3 = c_1 - 2c_2 \end{cases}$$

This set of simultaneous equations has no solution, so \underline{v} is not a lin. comb. of \underline{x}_1 and \underline{x}_2 .



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Topic 2B: Dot Product

If $\underline{u} = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$ and $\underline{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ then
the dot product of \underline{u} and \underline{v} is

$$\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

↑
don't leave
out the dot

a scalar

Examples

1. If $\underline{u} = [1, 2]$ and $\underline{v} = [2, -3]$ then

$$\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = 1 \times 2 + 2 \times (-3) = 2 - 6 = -4.$$

2. If $\underline{u} = [2, -1, 0]$ and $\underline{v} = [1, 4, 9]$
then

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} &= 2 \times 1 + (-1) \times 4 + 0 \times 9 \\ &= 2 - 4 + 0 \\ &= -2.\end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Properties of the dot product)

Let \underline{u} , \underline{v} and \underline{w} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , and let c be a scalar. Then

$$(1) \quad \underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u} \quad (\text{Commutative Law})$$

$$(2) \quad \underline{u} \cdot (\underline{v} + \underline{w}) = \underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} + \underline{u} \cdot \underline{w} \quad (\text{Distributive Law})$$

$$(3) \quad (c\underline{u}) \cdot \underline{v} = c(\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}) \quad \text{if and only if}$$

$$(4) \quad \underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} \geq 0 \text{ and } \underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = 0 \iff \underline{u} = \underline{0}.$$

Proof of (4)

Let $\underline{u} = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$.

$$\text{Then } \underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2.$$

Now u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n are real numbers, so

$$u_i^2 \geq 0 \text{ for } i=1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$\text{Hence } u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2 \geq 0.$$

So $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} \geq 0$ as required.

Suppose that $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = 0$. Then

$$u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2 = 0$$

and $u_i^2 \geq 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

$$\text{Thus } u_i^2 = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

$$\text{So } u_i = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

So $\underline{u} = [0, 0, \dots, 0] = \underline{0}$, as required.

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Suppose $\underline{u} = \underline{0}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} &= \underline{0} \cdot \underline{0} = [0, 0, \dots, 0] \cdot [0, 0, \dots, 0] \\ &= 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 \\ &= 0, \text{ as required.}\end{aligned}$$

end \rightarrow
of proof.

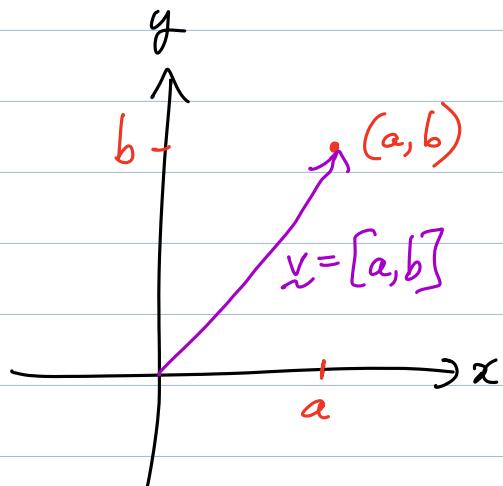
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Topic 2C : Length of vectors

In \mathbb{R}^2 :



Length of \underline{v} = distance from origin to (a, b)
= $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ (by Pythagoras' Theorem)

Now

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v} &= [a, b] \cdot [a, b] \\ &= a^2 + b^2\end{aligned}$$

so
length of \underline{v} is $\sqrt{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v}}$.

Defⁿ The length of a vector
 $\underline{v} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\|\underline{v}\| &= \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2} \\ &= \sqrt{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v}}.\end{aligned}$$

(So above, we have $\|\underline{v}\| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.)

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Remarks 1. From 2B, we have $\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v} \geq 0$, so we can take its square-root.

2. From 2B, we have $\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v} = 0 \iff \underline{v} = \underline{0}$ so $\|\underline{v}\| = 0 \iff \underline{v} = \underline{0}$.

Examples

1. If $\underline{v} = [1, 3]$ then

$$\|\underline{v}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{10}$$

2. If $\underline{v} = [-1, -2, 3]$ then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\underline{v}\| &= \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-2)^2 + 3^2} \\ &= \sqrt{1 + 4 + 9} \\ &= \sqrt{14}.\end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Length and scalar multiplication)

If $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and c is a scalar,

then

$$\|c\underline{v}\| = |c| \|\underline{v}\|.$$

length of vector

absolute value of scalar

Proof

Since $\|c\underline{v}\|$ and $|c| \|\underline{v}\|$ are both non-negative, it's enough to show

that

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$$\|\underline{cv}\|^2 = |c|^2 \|\underline{v}\|^2.$$

Now

$$\|\underline{cv}\|^2 = (\sqrt{\underline{cv} \cdot \underline{cv}})^2$$

$$= (\underline{cv}) \cdot (\underline{cv})$$

$$= c^2 (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v})$$

$$= |c|^2 (\sqrt{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{v}})^2$$

$$= |c|^2 \|\underline{v}\|^2$$

as required. □

Unit vectors

A unit vector is a vector of length 1.

Examples

1. In \mathbb{R}^2

$$\underline{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are unit vectors.

$$\|\underline{e}_1\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{1^2} = 1$$

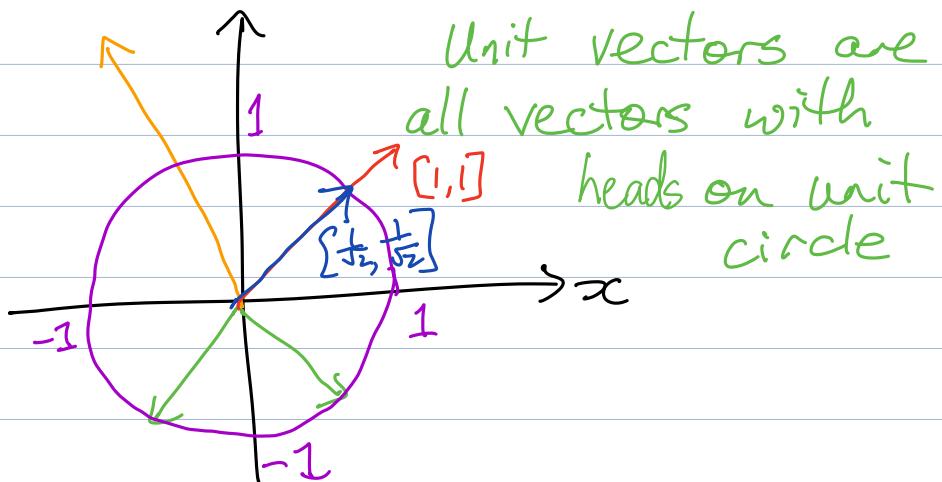
$$\|\underline{e}_2\| = \sqrt{0^2 + 1^2} = 1.$$

2. In \mathbb{R}^3

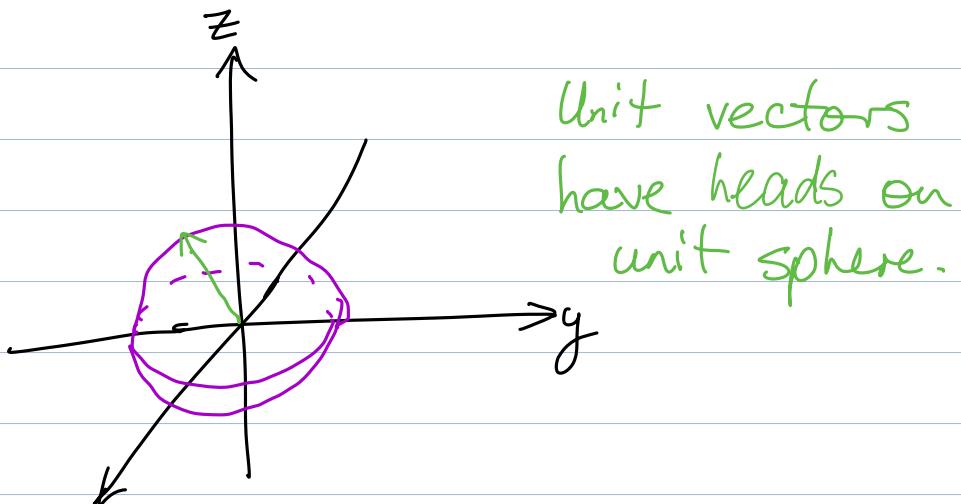
$$\underline{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \underline{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \underline{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are unit vectors.

In \mathbb{R}^2 :



In \mathbb{R}^3 :



Given any nonzero vector $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we can find a unit vector in the same direction as \underline{v} by multiplying by the scalar $\frac{1}{\|\underline{v}\|}$.

Example If $\underline{v} = [1, 1]$ then $\|\underline{v}\| = \sqrt{2}$,

so a unit vector in the direction of \underline{v} is

$$\underline{\underline{u}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [1, 1] = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right].$$

Obtaining a unit vector in the same direction as \underline{v} is called normalising the vector.

Check that $\frac{1}{\|\underline{v}\|} \underline{v}$ has length 1:

$$\left\| \frac{1}{\|\underline{v}\|} \underline{v} \right\| = \left[\frac{1}{\|\underline{v}\|} \right] \left\| \underline{v} \right\| = \frac{1}{\|\underline{v}\|} \|\underline{v}\| = 1.$$

Standard unit vectors

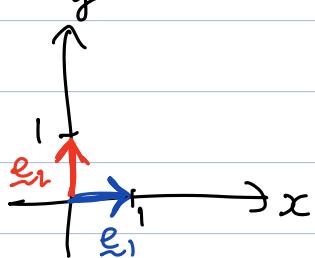
In \mathbb{R}^n , the standard unit vectors are

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\underline{e}}_1 &= [1, 0, \dots, 0] \\ \underline{\underline{e}}_2 &= [0, 1, 0, \dots, 0] \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

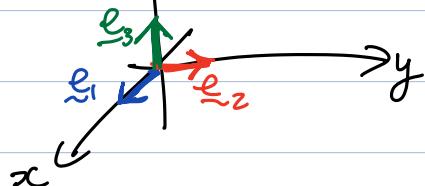
$$\underline{\underline{e}}_n = [0, \dots, 0, 1]$$

i.e. $\underline{\underline{e}}_i$ has i^{th} entry 1, all other entries 0.

In \mathbb{R}^2 :



In \mathbb{R}^3 :



Inequalities involving length

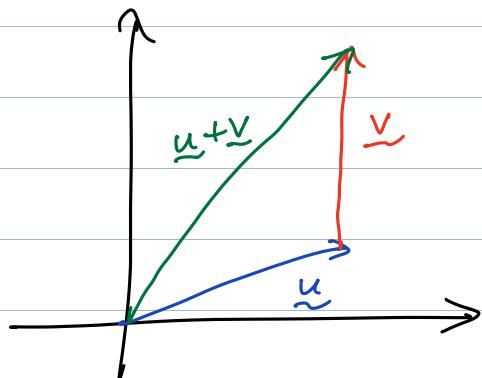
(1) Cauchy - Schwarz Inequality:

For all $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}| \leq \|\underline{u}\| \|\underline{v}\|.$$

(2) Triangle Inequality: for all $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\|\underline{u} + \underline{v}\| \leq \|\underline{u}\| + \|\underline{v}\|$$



Proof of (2): Enough to show $\|\underline{u} + \underline{v}\|^2 \leq (\|\underline{u}\| + \|\underline{v}\|)^2$.

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \|\underline{u} + \underline{v}\|^2 &= (\underline{u} + \underline{v}) \cdot (\underline{u} + \underline{v}) \\ &= \underline{u} \cdot (\underline{u} + \underline{v}) + \underline{v} \cdot (\underline{u} + \underline{v}) \\ &= \underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} + \underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} + \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u} + \underline{v} \cdot \underline{v} \end{aligned}$$

by 2 applications
of Distributive Law

$$\begin{aligned} &= \|\underline{u}\|^2 + 2(\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}) + \|\underline{v}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\underline{u}\|^2 + 2|\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}| + \|\underline{v}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

... " " " "

$$\leq \|\underline{u}\|^2 + 2\|\underline{u}\|\|\underline{v}\| + \|\underline{v}\|^2$$
$$= (\|\underline{u}\| + \|\underline{v}\|)^2,$$

as required.

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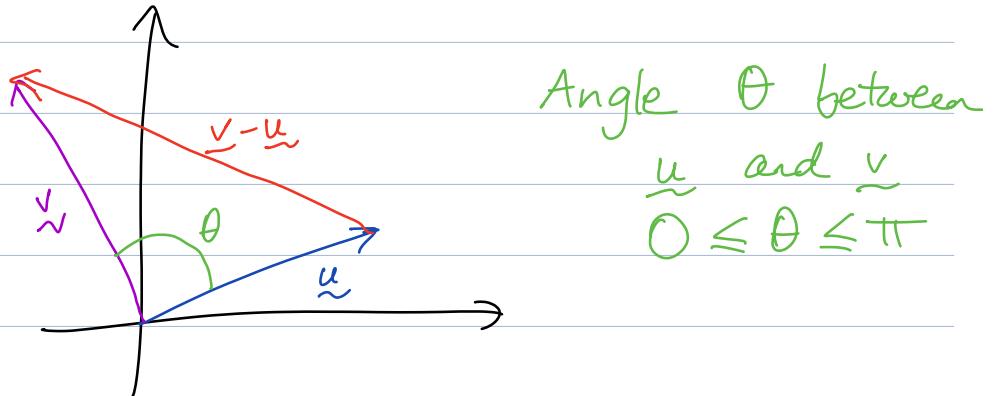
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Topic 2D: Angles between vectors

In \mathbb{R}^2 :



Cosine Rule:

$$\|\underline{v} - \underline{u}\|^2 = \|\underline{u}\|^2 + \|\underline{v}\|^2 - 2\|\underline{u}\|\|\underline{v}\| \cos \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } \|\underline{v} - \underline{u}\|^2 &= (\underline{v} - \underline{u}) \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{u}) \\ &= \|\underline{v}\|^2 - 2(\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}) + \|\underline{u}\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

So after cancellation, we get:

$$-2(\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}) = -2\|\underline{u}\|\|\underline{v}\| \cos \theta$$

so

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{u}\|\|\underline{v}\|}.$$

Defⁿ The angle θ between $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{u}\|\|\underline{v}\|} \quad (0 \leq \theta \leq \pi)$$

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Example Find the angle between

$$\underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \theta &= \frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{u}\| \|\underline{v}\|} \\ &= \frac{(1 \times 1) + (1 \times 1) + (1 \times 0)}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{3}}{3}\end{aligned}$$

all OK

$$\text{so } \theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{2}} \right).$$

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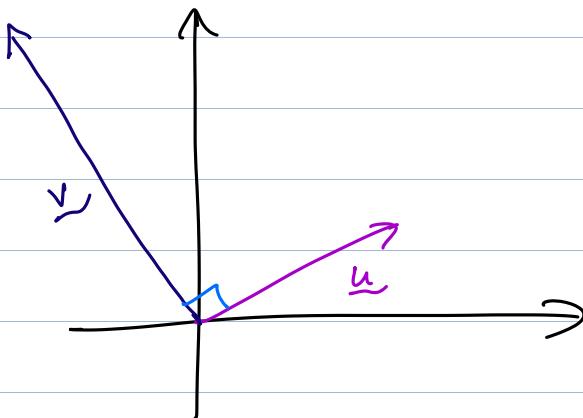
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Topic 2E: Orthogonal vectors

Vectors which have angle $\frac{\pi}{2}$ between them.

In \mathbb{R}^2 : if \underline{u} and \underline{v} have angle $\frac{\pi}{2}$ between them



then $\cos \theta = \frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{u}\| \|\underline{v}\|}$.

So if $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ then $\cos \theta = 0$ so

$$0 = \frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{u}\| \|\underline{v}\|}$$

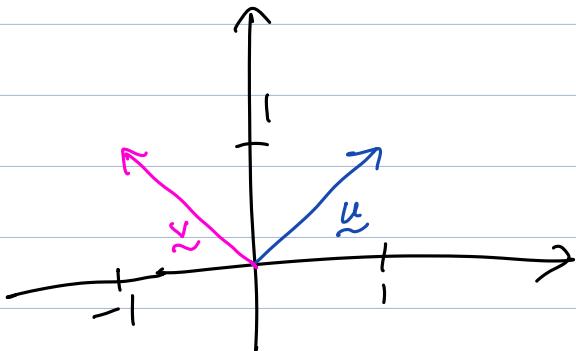
hence $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = 0$.

Defⁿ Two vectors $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are orthogonal if $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = 0$.

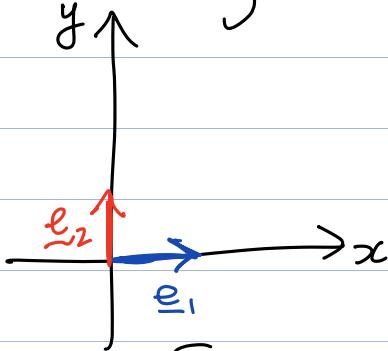
Examples

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1. $\underline{u} = [1, 1]$ and $\underline{v} = [-1, 1]$ are orthogonal as
 $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = -1 + 1 = 0.$



2. In \mathbb{R}^2 , $\underline{e}_1 = [1, 0]$ and $\underline{e}_2 = [0, 1]$ are orthogonal.



3. In \mathbb{R}^3 , $\underline{e}_1 = [1, 0, 0]$, $\underline{e}_2 = [0, 1, 0]$ and $\underline{e}_3 = [0, 0, 1]$ are mutually orthogonal.

4. In \mathbb{R}^n

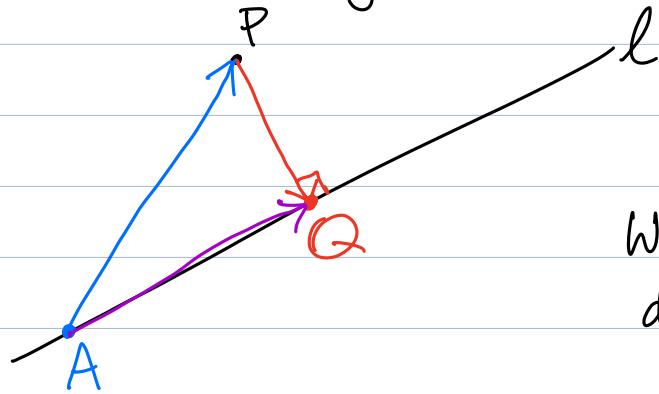
$$\underline{e}_i \cdot \underline{e}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

so \underline{e}_i is orthogonal to $\underline{e}_j \Leftrightarrow i \neq j.$

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Topic 2F: Projections



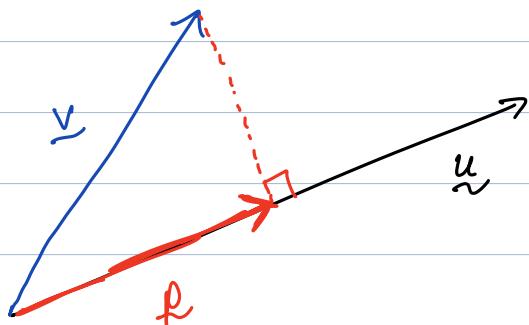
What is the distance from P to l ?

What is the length of the vector \overrightarrow{PQ} ?

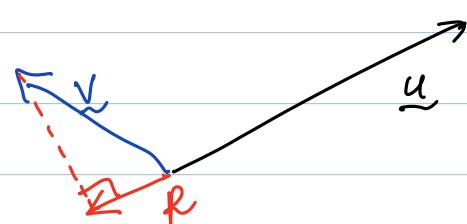
If we know \overrightarrow{AP} and \overrightarrow{AQ} , we can find the vector \overrightarrow{PQ} .

Enough to know a point A on l , and the projection of \overrightarrow{AP} onto l . This projection is \overrightarrow{AQ} .

In terms of vectors:



p is projection of v onto u



p is scalar multiple of u

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Defn If $\underline{u}, \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\underline{u} \neq \underline{0}$ then the projection of \underline{v} onto \underline{u} is

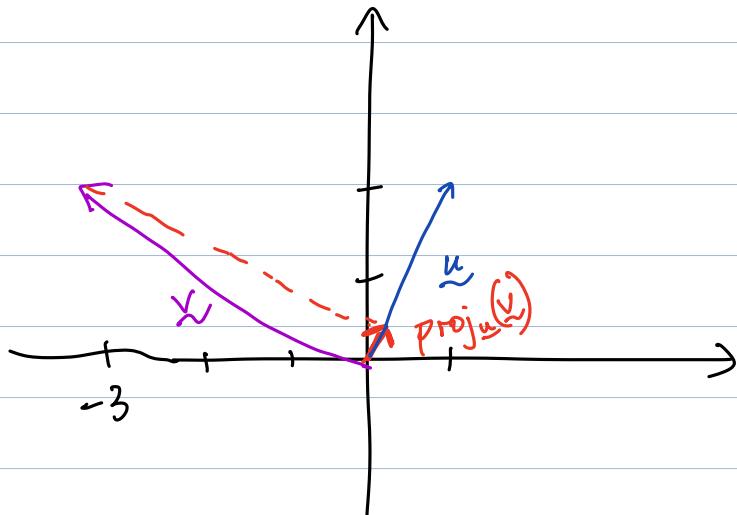
$$\text{proj}_{\underline{u}}(\underline{v}) = \left(\frac{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{v}}{\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u}} \right) \underline{u}$$

Examples

1. If $\underline{u} = [1, 2]$ and $\underline{v} = [-3, 2]$

then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{proj}_{\underline{u}}(\underline{v}) &= \left(\frac{1 \times (-3) + 2 \times 2}{1 \times 1 + 2 \times 2} \right) [1, 2] \\ &= \frac{1}{5} [1, 2]\end{aligned}$$



2. \underline{u} and \underline{v} are orthogonal

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{proj}_{\underline{u}}(\underline{v}) = \underline{0} \quad \Downarrow \quad \underline{u} \cdot \underline{v} = 0$$

3. $\text{proj}_{e_j}(e_i) = \begin{cases} \underline{0} & \text{if } i \neq j \\ e_i & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$