Review for Midterm 2

Selected Topics

Matrix Multiplication

Method 1: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and let B be an $n \times p$ matrix with columns $v_1, v_2 \dots, v_p$:

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} | & | & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_p \\ | & | & | \end{array}\right).$$

The **product** AB is the $m \times p$ matrix with columns Av_1, Av_2, \dots, Av_p :

$$AB \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \left(\begin{array}{cccc} | & | & | \\ Av_1 & Av_2 & \cdots & Av_p \\ | & | & | \end{array} \right).$$

Matrix Multiplication

Method 1: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and let B be an $n \times p$ matrix with columns v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p :

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_p \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix}.$$

The **product** AB is the $m \times p$ matrix with columns Av_1, Av_2, \ldots, Av_p :

$$AB \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \left(\begin{array}{cccc} | & | & | \\ Av_1 & Av_2 & \cdots & Av_p \\ | & | & | \end{array} \right).$$

Method 2: The ij entry of C = AB is the ith row of A times the jth column of B:

$$c_{ij} = (AB)_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{nj}.$$

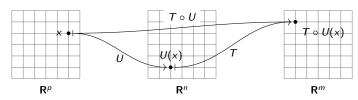
$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \cdots & a_{ik} & \cdots & a_{in} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1j} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \cdots & b_{kj} & \cdots & b_{kp} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & \cdots & b_{nj} & \cdots & b_{np} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & \cdots & c_{1j} & \cdots & c_{1p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{i1} & \cdots & c_{ij} & \cdots & c_{ip} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & \cdots & c_{mj} & \cdots & c_{mp} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ith column$$

$$ij \text{ entry}$$

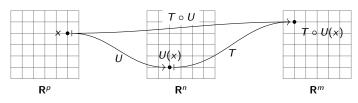
Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.



Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

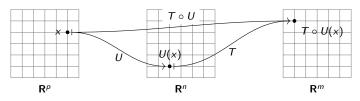
$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.



Fact: The matrix for $T \circ U$ is AB.

Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.

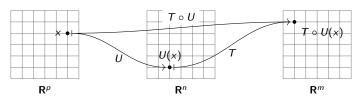


Fact: The matrix for $T \circ U$ is AB.

Now let $T \colon \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be an *invertible* linear transformation.

Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.

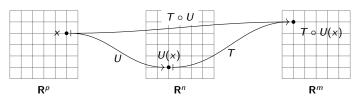


Fact: The matrix for $T \circ U$ is AB.

Now let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be an *invertible* linear transformation. This means there is a linear transformation $T^{-1}: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $T \circ T^{-1}(x) = x$ for all x in \mathbf{R}^n .

Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.

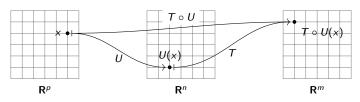


Fact: The matrix for $T \circ U$ is AB.

Now let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be an *invertible* linear transformation. This means there is a linear transformation $T^{-1}: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $T \circ T^{-1}(x) = x$ for all x in \mathbf{R}^n . Equivalently, it means T is one-to-one and onto.

Let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $U: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be linear transformations with matrices A and B. The **composition** is the linear transformation

$$T \circ U \colon \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$$
 defined by $T \circ U(x) = T(U(x))$.



Fact: The matrix for $T \circ U$ is AB.

Now let $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be an *invertible* linear transformation. This means there is a linear transformation $T^{-1}: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $T \circ T^{-1}(x) = x$ for all x in \mathbf{R}^n . Equivalently, it means T is one-to-one and onto.

Fact: If A is the matrix for T, then A^{-1} is the matrix for T^{-1} .

$\label{eq:matrix_multiplication} {\sf Matrix} \ \ {\sf Multiplication/Inversion} \ \ {\sf and} \ \ {\sf Linear} \ \ {\sf Transformations} \ \ {\sf Example}$

Let $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ scale the x-axis by 2, and let $U: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be counterclockwise rotation by 90° .

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

$$2 \times 2$$
 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

 2×2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \implies A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $n \times n$ case: Row reduce the augmented matrix ($A \mid I_n$).

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

 2×2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $n \times n$ case: Row reduce the augmented matrix ($A \mid I_n$). If you get ($I_n \mid B$), then $B = A^{-1}$.

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

 2×2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $n \times n$ case: Row reduce the augmented matrix ($A \mid I_n$). If you get ($I_n \mid B$), then $B = A^{-1}$. Otherwise, A is not invertible.

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

 2×2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $n \times n$ case: Row reduce the augmented matrix ($A \mid I_n$). If you get ($I_n \mid B$), then $B = A^{-1}$. Otherwise, A is not invertible.

Solving linear systems by "dividing by A": If A is invertible, then

$$Ax = b \iff x = A^{-1}b.$$

The **inverse** of an $n \times n$ matrix A is a matrix A^{-1} such that $AA^{-1} = I_n$ (equivalently, $A^{-1}A = I_n$).

 2×2 case:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \implies A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $n \times n$ case: Row reduce the augmented matrix ($A \mid I_n$). If you get ($I_n \mid B$), then $B = A^{-1}$. Otherwise, A is not invertible.

Solving linear systems by "dividing by A": If A is invertible, then

$$Ax = b \iff x = A^{-1}b.$$

Important

If A is invertible, then Ax = b has exactly one solution for any b, namely, $x = A^{-1}b$.

Solving Linear Systems by Inverting Matrices Example

Important

If A is invertible, then Ax = b has exactly one solution for any b, namely, $x = A^{-1}b$.

Solving Linear Systems by Inverting Matrices

Important

If A is invertible, then Ax = b has exactly one solution for any b, namely, $x = A^{-1}b$.

Example

Solve
$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

scaling
$$(R_2 = 2R_2)$$
 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{scaling} & \text{row replacement} \\ (R_2 = 2R_2) & (R_2 = R_2 + 2R_1) \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

There are three kinds:

Fact: if E is the elementary matrix for a row operation, then EA differs from A by the same row operation.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

There are three kinds:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{scaling} & \text{row replacement} & \text{swap} \\ (R_2 = 2R_2) & (R_2 = R_2 + 2R_1) & (R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2) \\ \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Fact: if E is the elementary matrix for a row operation, then EA differs from A by the same row operation.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{supp}} B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

You get B by

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

There are three kinds:

Fact: if E is the elementary matrix for a row operation, then EA differs from A by the same row operation.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{supp}} B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

You get B by subtracting $2 \times$ the first row of A from the second row.

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

There are three kinds:

Fact: if E is the elementary matrix for a row operation, then EA differs from A by the same row operation.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{supp}} B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

You get B by subtracting $2\times$ the first row of A from the second row.

$$B = EA$$
 where $E =$

Definition

An **elementary matrix** is a square matrix E which differs from I_n by one row operation.

There are three kinds:

Fact: if E is the elementary matrix for a row operation, then EA differs from A by the same row operation.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{supp}} B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

You get B by subtracting $2\times$ the first row of A from the second row.

$$B=EA$$
 where $E=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ subtract $2\times$ the first row of I_2 from the second row .

$$R_2 = R_2 \times 2 \qquad R_2 = R_2 \div 2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_2 = R_2 \times 2 \qquad \qquad R_2 = R_2 \div 2 \qquad \qquad R_2 = R_2 + 2R_1 \qquad \qquad R_2 = R_2 - 2R_1$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_{2} = R_{2} \times 2 \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} \div 2 \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} + 2R_{1} \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} - 2R_{1}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_{1} \longleftrightarrow R_{2} \qquad R_{1} \longleftrightarrow R_{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Fact: the inverse of an elementary matrix E is the elementary matrix obtained by doing the opposite row operation to I_n .

$$R_{2} = R_{2} \times 2 \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} \div 2 \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} + 2R_{1} \qquad R_{2} = R_{2} - 2R_{1}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_{1} \longleftrightarrow R_{2} \qquad R_{1} \longleftrightarrow R_{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If A is invertible, then there are a sequence of row operations taking A to I_n :

$$E_r E_{r-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

Fact: the inverse of an elementary matrix E is the elementary matrix obtained by doing the opposite row operation to I_n .

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2 & R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2 \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If A is invertible, then there are a sequence of row operations taking A to I_n :

$$E_r E_{r-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

Taking inverses (note the order!):

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_r^{-1} I_n =$$

The Inverse of an Elementary Matrix

Fact: the inverse of an elementary matrix E is the elementary matrix obtained by doing the opposite row operation to I_n .

$$\begin{pmatrix} R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2 & R_1 \longleftrightarrow R_2 \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If A is invertible, then there are a sequence of row operations taking A to I_n :

$$E_r E_{r-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

Taking inverses (note the order!):

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_r^{-1} I_n = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_r^{-1}.$$

The Invertible Matrix Theorem

For reference

The Invertible Matrix Theorem

Let A be a square $n \times n$ matrix, and let $T : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be the linear transformation T(x) = Ax. The following statements are equivalent.

1. A is invertible.

- 2. T is invertible.
- 3. A is row equivalent to I_n .
- 4. A has n pivots.
- 5. Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution.
- 6. The columns of A are linearly independent.
- 7. T is one-to-one.
- 8. Ax = b is consistent for all b in \mathbb{R}^n .
- 9. The columns of A span \mathbb{R}^n .
- T is onto.

- 11. A has a left inverse (there exists B such that $BA = I_n$).
- 12. A has a right inverse (there exists B such that $AB = I_n$).
- 13. A^T is invertible.
- 14. The columns of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- 15 Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 16. dim Col A = n.
- 17. rank A = n.
- 18. Nul $A = \{0\}$.
- 19. $\dim \text{Nul } A = 0$.

The Invertible Matrix Theorem

Let A be a square $n \times n$ matrix, and let $T : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ be the linear transformation T(x) = Ax. The following statements are equivalent.

1. A is invertible.

- T is invertible.
- 3. A is row equivalent to I_n .
- 4. A has n pivots.
- 5. Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution.
- 6. The columns of A are linearly independent.
- 7. T is one-to-one.
- 8. Ax = b is consistent for all b in \mathbb{R}^n .
- 9. The columns of A span \mathbb{R}^n .
- 10. T is onto.

- 11. A has a left inverse (there exists B such that $BA = I_n$).
- 12. A has a right inverse (there exists B such that $AB = I_n$).
- 13. A^T is invertible.
- 14. The columns of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- 15 Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 16. dim Col A = n.
- 17. rank A = n.
- 18. Nul $A = \{0\}$.
- 19. $\dim \text{Nul } A = 0$.

Learn it!

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in V.
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbf{R} , then cu is in V.

"not empty"

"closed under addition"

"closed under \times scalars"

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in V.
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbf{R} , then cu is in V.

"not empty"

"closed under addition"

"closed under \times scalars"

Examples:

▶ Any Span $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$.

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in V.
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbf{R} , then cu is in V.

- "not empty"
- "closed under addition"
- "closed under \times scalars"

Examples:

- ▶ Any Span $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$.
- ▶ The *column space* of a matrix: $Col A = Span\{columns of A\}$.

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in V.
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbb{R} , then cu is in V.

- "not empty"
- "closed under addition"
- "closed under × scalars"

Examples:

- ▶ Any Span $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$.
- ▶ The *column space* of a matrix: Col $A = \text{Span}\{\text{columns of } A\}$.
- ▶ The *null space* of a matrix: Nul $A = \{x \mid Ax = 0\}$.

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in *V*.
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbf{R} , then cu is in V.

"not empty"

"closed under addition"

"closed under × scalars"

Examples:

- ▶ Any Span $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$.
- ▶ The *column space* of a matrix: $Col A = Span\{columns of A\}$.
- ▶ The *null space* of a matrix: Nul $A = \{x \mid Ax = 0\}$.
- **▶ R**ⁿ and {0}

Definition

A **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n is a subset V of \mathbb{R}^n satisfying:

- 1. The zero vector is in V
- 2. If u and v are in V, then u + v is also in V.
- 3. If u is in V and c is in \mathbf{R} , then cu is in V.

"not empty"

"closed under addition"

"closed under × scalars"

Examples:

- ▶ Any Span $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$.
- ▶ The *column space* of a matrix: Col $A = \text{Span}\{\text{columns of } A\}$.
- ▶ The *null space* of a matrix: Nul $A = \{x \mid Ax = 0\}$.
- **▶ R**ⁿ and {0}

If V can be written in any of the above ways, then it is automatically a subspace: you're done!

Subspaces Example

Example

Is
$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid x + y = 0 \right\}$$
 a subspace?

Example, continued

Is
$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid x + y = 0 \right\}$$
 a subspace?

Example, continued

Is
$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid x + y = 0 \right\}$$
 a subspace?

Since conditions (1), (2), and (3) hold, V is a subspace.

Subspaces Example

Example

Is
$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid \sin(x) = 0 \right\}$$
 a subspace?

Example

_ .

Example
Is
$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid \sin(x) = 0 \right\}$$
 a subspace?

Since condition (3) fails, V is not a subspace.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A **basis** of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A **basis** of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A **basis** of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that $\mathcal B$ is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A **basis** of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that $\mathcal B$ is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

1. $\mathcal B$ spans V.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A **basis** of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that $\mathcal B$ is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. ${\cal B}$ is linearly independent.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A basis of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

This is what it means to justify the statement " \mathcal{B} is a basis for V."

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A basis of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

This is what it means to justify the statement " \mathcal{B} is a basis for V."

Basis Theorem

Let V be a subspace of dimension m. Then:

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A basis of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

This is what it means to justify the statement " $\mathcal B$ is a basis for V."

Basis Theorem

Let V be a subspace of dimension m. Then:

▶ Any *m* linearly independent vectors in *V* form a basis for *V*.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A basis of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

This is what it means to justify the statement " \mathcal{B} is a basis for V."

Basis Theorem

Let V be a subspace of dimension m. Then:

- ightharpoonup Any m linearly independent vectors in V form a basis for V.
- ▶ Any *m* vectors that span *V* form a basis for *V*.

Definition

Let V be a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n . A basis of V is a set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n such that:

- 1. $V = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$, and
- 2. $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.

The number of vectors in a basis is the **dimension** of V, and is written dim V.

To check that \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, you have to check two things:

- 1. \mathcal{B} spans V.
- 2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent.

This is what it means to justify the statement " \mathcal{B} is a basis for V."

Basis Theorem

Let V be a subspace of dimension m. Then:

- ightharpoonup Any m linearly independent vectors in V form a basis for V.
- ▶ Any *m* vectors that span *V* form a basis for *V*.

So if you already know the dimension of V, you only have to check one.

Basis of a Subspace Example

Verify that
$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$
 is a basis for $V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathbf{R}^3 \mid x+y=0 \right\}$.

Basis of a Subspace Example

Verify that
$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$
 is a basis for $V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ in $\mathbf{R}^3 \mid x+y=0 \right\}$.

If we knew a priori that dim V=2, then we would only have to check 0, then 1 or 2.

Bases of Col A and Nul A

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -8 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
pivot columns = basis *** pivot columns in rref

Rank Theorem

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

rank $A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n = \text{the number of columns of } A$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -8 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rank Theorem

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

rank $A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n = \text{the number of columns of } A$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -8 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
basis of Col A

Rank Theorem

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

rank $A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n = \text{the number of columns of } A$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -8 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
basis of Col A free variables

Rank Theorem

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

rank $A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n = \text{the number of columns of } A$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -8 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
basis of Col A free variables

In this case, rank A=2 and dim Nul A=2, and 2+2=4, which is the number of columns of A.

Ways to compute them

1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.

Ways to compute them

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

 $\det A =$ (product of diagonal entries).

Ways to compute them

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

$$\det A = (\text{product of diagonal entries}).$$

3. Cofactor expansion along any row or column:

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } i$$

$$\det A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } j$$

Ways to compute them

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

$$\det A =$$
(product of diagonal entries).

3. Cofactor expansion along any row or column:

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } i$$

$$\det A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } j$$

Start here for matrices with a row or column with lots of zeros.

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

$$\det A =$$
(product of diagonal entries).

3. Cofactor expansion along any row or column:

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } i$$

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } j$$

Start here for matrices with a row or column with lots of zeros.

4. By row reduction without scaling:

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} \big(\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF} \big)$$

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

$$\det A =$$
(product of diagonal entries).

3. Cofactor expansion along any row or column:

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } i$$

$$\det A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } j$$

Start here for matrices with a row or column with lots of zeros.

4. By row reduction without scaling:

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} ig(\mathsf{product}\ \mathsf{of}\ \mathsf{diagonal}\ \mathsf{entries}\ \mathsf{in}\ \mathsf{REF}ig)$$

This is fastest for big and complicated matrices.

- 1. Special formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.
- 2. For [upper or lower] triangular matrices:

$$\det A =$$
(product of diagonal entries).

3. Cofactor expansion along any row or column:

$$\det A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } i$$

$$\det A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} C_{ij} \text{ for any fixed } j$$

Start here for matrices with a row or column with lots of zeros.

4. By row reduction without scaling:

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} \big(\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF} \big)$$

This is fastest for big and complicated matrices.

5. Cofactor expansion and any other of the above. (The cofactor formula is recursive.)

Determinants Defining properties

Definition

The determinant is a function

$$det: \{square matrices\} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

with the following defining properties:

- 1. $\det(I_n) = 1$
- If we do a row replacement on a matrix (add a multiple of one row to another), the determinant does not change.
- 3. If we swap two rows of a matrix, the determinant scales by -1.
- 4. If we scale a row of a matrix by k, the determinant scales by k.

Determinants Defining properties

Definition

The determinant is a function

$$det: \{square matrices\} \longrightarrow R$$

with the following defining properties:

- 1. $\det(I_n) = 1$
- 2. If we do a row replacement on a matrix (add a multiple of one row to another), the determinant does not change.
- 3. If we swap two rows of a matrix, the determinant scales by -1.
- 4. If we scale a row of a matrix by k, the determinant scales by k.

When computing a determinant via row reduction, try to only use *row* replacement and row swaps.

Determinants Defining properties

Definition

The determinant is a function

$$det: \{square matrices\} \longrightarrow R$$

with the following defining properties:

- 1. $\det(I_n) = 1$
- If we do a row replacement on a matrix (add a multiple of one row to another), the determinant does not change.
- 3. If we swap two rows of a matrix, the determinant scales by -1.
- 4. If we scale a row of a matrix by k, the determinant scales by k.

When computing a determinant via row reduction, try to only use *row replacement* and *row swaps*. Then you never have to worry about scaling by the inverse.

1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} $\to R$ satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\text{swaps}} (\text{product of diagonal entries in REF}).$$

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} $\to \mathbf{R}$ satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\# \text{swaps}} (\text{product of diagonal entries in REF}).$$

4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\text{swaps}} (\text{product of diagonal entries in REF}).$$

- 4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.
- 5. $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$ and $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} (\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF}).$$

- 4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.
- 5. $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$ and $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.
- 6. $det(A) = det(A^T)$.

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} (\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF}).$$

- 4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.
- 5. $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$ and $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.
- 6. $det(A) = det(A^T)$.
- 7. $|\det(A)|$ is the volume of the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A.

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} (\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF}).$$

- 4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.
- 5. $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$ and $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.
- 6. $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.
- 7. $|\det(A)|$ is the volume of the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A.
- 8. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix with transformation T(x) = Ax, and S is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then the volume of T(S) is $|\det(A)|$ times the volume of S. (Even for curvy shapes S.)

- 1. There is one and only one function det: {square matrices} \rightarrow R satisfying the defining properties (1)–(4).
- 2. A is invertible if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$.
- 3. If we row reduce A without row scaling, then

$$\det(A) = (-1)^{\#\mathsf{swaps}} (\mathsf{product} \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{diagonal} \ \mathsf{entries} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{REF}).$$

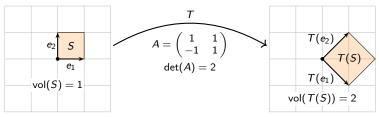
- 4. The determinant can be computed using any of the 2*n* cofactor expansions.
- 5. $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$ and $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$.
- 6. $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$.
- 7. $|\det(A)|$ is the volume of the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A.
- 8. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix with transformation T(x) = Ax, and S is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then the volume of T(S) is $|\det(A)|$ times the volume of S. (Even for curvy shapes S.)
- 9. The determinant is multi-linear.

Why is Property 8 true?

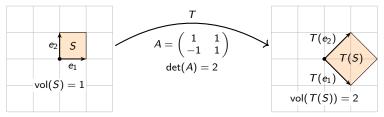
Why is Property 8 true? For instance, if S is the unit cube, then T(S) is the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A, since the columns of A are $T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)$.

Why is Property 8 true? For instance, if S is the unit cube, then T(S) is the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A, since the columns of A are $T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)$. In this case, Property 8 is the same as Property 7.

Why is Property 8 true? For instance, if S is the unit cube, then T(S) is the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A, since the columns of A are $T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)$. In this case, Property 8 is the same as Property 7.



Why is Property 8 true? For instance, if S is the unit cube, then T(S) is the parallelepiped defined by the columns of A, since the columns of A are $T(e_1), T(e_2), \ldots, T(e_n)$. In this case, Property 8 is the same as Property 7.



For curvy shapes, you break S up into a bunch of tiny cubes. Each one is scaled by $|\det(A)|$; then you use *calculus* to reduce to the previous situation!

