# MA283: Linear Algebra

 $\begin{array}{c} 70\% \ {\rm Exam} \\ 30\% \ {\rm Continuous \ Assessment \ (Homework)} \\ 10\% \ {\rm Optional \ Project \ (Bonus)} \end{array}$ 

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# 1 Systems of linear equations

# 1.1 Linear equations and Solution Sets

A linear equation in the variables x and y is an equation of the form

$$2x + y = 3$$

If we replace x and y with some numbers, the statement **becomes true or false**.

#### Definition 1.1: Solution to a linear equation

A pair,  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}$ , is a solution to an linear equation if setting  $x = x_0$  and  $y = y_0$  makes the equation true.

#### Definition 1.2: Solution set

The **solution set** is the set of all solutions to a linear equation.

$$a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \ldots + a_nX_n = b$$
 where  $a_i, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

is an **affine hyperplane** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; geometrically resembles a copy of  $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  inside  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

### 1.2 Elementary Row Operations

To solve a system of linear equations we associate an **augmented matrix** to the system of equations. For example:

To solve, we can perform the following Elementary Row Operations (EROs):

- 1. Multiply a row by a non-zero constant.
- 2. Add a multiple of one row to another row.
- 3. Swap two rows.

The goal of these operations is to transform the augmented matrix into **row echelon form** (REF) or **reduced row echelon form** (RREF).

### 1.2.1 REF and Strategy

We say a matrix is in row echelon form (REF) if:

- The first non zero entry in each row is a 1 (called the **leading 1**).
- If a column has a leading 1, then all entries below it are 0.
- $\bullet\,$  The leading 1 in each row is to the right of the leading 1 in the previous row.
- All rows of 0s are at the bottom of the matrix.

Example of REF

We have produced a new system of equations. This is easily solved by back substitution.

# Concept 1.1: Stategy for Obtaining REF

- Get a 1 as the top left entry
- Use this 1 to clear the entries below it
- Move to the next column and repeat
- Continue until all leading 1s are in place
- Use back substitution to solve the system

# 1.2.2 Row Reduced Echelon Form

A matrix is in **reduced row echelon form** (RREF) if:

- It is in REF
- The leading 1 in each row is the only non-zero entry in its column.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example of RREF

# 1.3 Leading variables and free variables

We'll start by an example:

Solving this system of equations, we get:

RREF: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & | & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & | & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & | & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} x_1 + 2x_4 = 4 \\ x_2 - x_4 = 2 \\ x_3 + x_4 = 2 \end{array} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} x_1 = 4 - 2x_4 \\ x_2 = 2 + x_4 \\ x_3 = 2 - x_4 \end{array}$$

This RREF tells us how the **leading variables**  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  depend on the **free variable**  $(x_4)$ . The free variable can take any value in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We write the solution set as:

$$x_1 = 4 - 2t$$
,  $x_2 = 2 + t$ ,  $x_3 = 2 - t$ ,  $x_4 = t$  where  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  
$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (4 - 2t, 2 + t, 2 - t, t); \quad t \in \mathbb{R}$$

### Definition 1.3: Leading and Free Variables

- Leading variable: A variable whose columns in the RREF contain a leading 1
- Free variable : A variable whose columns in the RREF do not contain a leading 1

# 1.4 Consistent and Inconsistent Systems

Consider the following system of equations:

We can see the last row of the REF is:

$$0x + 0y + 0z = 1$$

This equation clearly has no solution, and hence the system has no solutions. We say the system is **inconsistent**. Alternatively, we say the system is **consistent** if it has at least one solution.

### 1.5 Possible Outcomes when solving a system of equations

• The system may be **inconsistent** (no solutions) - i.e:

$$[0\ 0\ \dots\ 0\ |\ a] \quad a \neq 0$$

- The system may be  ${\bf consistent}$  which occurs if:
  - Unique Solutions each column (aside from the rightmost) contains a single leading 1. i.e:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Infinitely many solutions at least one variable does not appear as a leading 1 in any row, making it a
free variable - i.e:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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# 1.6 Elementary Row Operations as Matrix Transformations

Elementary row operations may be interpreted as **matrix multiplication**. To see this, first we introduce the **Identity matrix:**[1, 0, 0]

 $I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

The  $I_m$  Identity matrix is an  $m \times m$  matrix with 1s on the diagonal and 0s elsewhere. We also introduce the  $E_{i,j}$  matrix which has 1 in the (i,j) position and 0s elsewhere. For example:

$$E_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then:

$$I_3 + 4E_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Performing a row operation on A is the same as multiplying A by an appropriate matrix E on the left. These matrices are called **elementary matrices**. They are **always invertible**, and **their inverses are also elementary matrices**. The statement:

"every matrix can be reduced to RREF through EROs"

is equivalent to saying that

"for every matrix A with m rows, there exists a  $m \times m$  matrix B which is a product of elementary matrices such that BA is in RREF."

#### 1.6.1 Multiplying a Row by a Non-Zero Scalar

When multiplying row i of matrix A by a scalar  $\alpha \neq 0$ , we can use the matrix:

$$I_m + (\alpha - 1)E_{i,i}$$

This works because it modifies only the (i, i) entry of the identity matrix to be  $\alpha$  while keeping all other entries unchanged. When multiplied with A, it scales row i by  $\alpha$  and leaves all other rows intact.

**Example:** If  $\alpha = 5$  and i = 2, then:

$$I_3 + 4E_{2,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (I_3 + 4E_{2,2})A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 20 & 25 & 30 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

### 1.6.2 Switching Two Rows

To swap rows i and k, we use:

$$S = I_m + E_{ik} + E_{ki} - E_{ii} - E_{kk}$$

This works by:

- Removing the 1's at positions (i, i) and (k, k) from the identity matrix
- Adding 1's at positions (i, k) and (k, i)

**Example:** Swapping rows 1 and 3:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \qquad SA = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### 1.6.3 Adding a Multiple of One Row to Another

To replace row k with row  $k + \alpha \times$  row i, use:

$$I_m + \alpha E_{k,i}$$

This adds  $\alpha$  times row i to row k while leaving all other rows unchanged because:

- For any row  $j \neq k$ , the corresponding row in this matrix is just the standard basis row
- Row k becomes the sum of the standard basis row k plus  $\alpha$  times the standard basis row i

**Example:** Adding 3 times row 1 to row 2:

$$I_3 + 3E_{2,1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (I_3 + 3E_{2,1})A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 7 & 11 & 15 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

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# Example 1.1

Write the inverse of an elementary matrix and show it is an elementary matrix.

# Multiplying a row by a nonzero scalar:

- Operation: Multiply row i by  $\alpha \neq 0$ .
- Elementary Matrix:  $E = I_m + (\alpha 1)E_{i,i}$
- Inverse: To reverse the operation, multiply row i by  $1 \setminus \alpha$ . Hence, the inverse is

$$E^{-1} = I_m + \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1\right) E_{i,i} = I_m + \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} E_{i,i}.$$

### Swapping two rows:

- Operation: Swap rows i and k.
- Elementary Matrix:  $S = I_m E_{i,i} E_{k,k} + E_{i,k} + E_{k,i}$
- Inverse: Since swapping the same two rows twice returns them to their original positions,

$$S^{-1} = S$$
.

# Adding a multiple of one row to another:

- Operation: Add  $\alpha$  times row i to row k.
- Elementary Matrix:  $E = I_m + \alpha E_{k,i}$
- Inverse: To undo the operation, subtract  $\alpha$  times row i from row k. Therefore,

$$E^{-1} = I_m - \alpha E_{k,i}.$$

### Example 1.2

Prove that every invertible matrix in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$  is a product of elementary matrices.

Let A be an invertible matrix in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . Since A is invertible, we can use Gaussian elimination to transform A into the identity matrix  $I_n$ .

Let  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_k$  be the elementary matrices corresponding to the row operations used in the elimination process. Then, we have:

Multiplying a row by a scalar:  $I_n + (\alpha - 1)E_{i,i}$ 

Swapping two rows:  $I_n + E_{i,k} + E_{k,i} - E_{i,i} - E_{k,k}$ 

Adding a multiple of one row to another:  $I_n + \alpha E_{k,i}$ 

Applying these in sequence to A gives:

$$E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

Since  $E_k \cdots E_2 E_1 = I_n$ , we can multiply both sides by  $(E_k \cdots E_2 E_1)^{-1}$  on the left to obtain:

$$A = (E_k \cdots E_2 E_1)^{-1} I_n = (E_k \cdots E_2 E_1)^{-1}$$

Using the property:

$$(E_k \cdots E_2 E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \cdots E_k^{-1},$$

we can express A as a product of elementary matrices:

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

Since each  $E_i$  is an elementary matrix, its inverse is also an elementary matrix. Therefore, A can be expressed as a product of elementary matrices.

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### 1.7 EROs and Inverses

Elementary Row Operations can be used to find the inverse of a square matrix. Consider a square matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  (that is, an  $n \times n$  matrix over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ ). If A is invertible, let

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

be its inverse, where each  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is the ith column of  $A^{-1}$ . By definition of the matrix inverse, we have

$$AA^{-1} = A\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{v}_1 & A\mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & A\mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = I_n,$$

the  $n \times n$  identity matrix. This implies that

$$A\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{e}_i$$
, for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

where  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is the *i*th column of  $I_n$  (which has a 1 in the *i*th row and 0 everywhere else). In other words, each column  $\mathbf{v}_i$  of  $A^{-1}$  is the unique solution to the linear system

$$A\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{e}_i.$$

To find  $A^{-1}$  effectively, we form the augmented matrix  $[A \mid I_n]$  and apply EROs to transform A into  $I_n$ . When this is achieved, the augmented portion becomes  $A^{-1}$ . Thus, we have

$$RREF([A \mid I_n]) = [I_n \mid A^{-1}].$$

### Example 1.3

Find 
$$A^{-1}$$
 if  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ .

We form a  $3 \times 6$  matrix  $A' = [A \mid I_3]$ :

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & | & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & -4 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We apply the following EROs to A':

- $R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2$
- $R_2 \to R_2 3R_1$
- $R_3 \to R_3 2R_1$
- $R_3 \to R_3 + R 2$
- $R_3 \leftrightarrow R_2$
- $R_3 \to R_3 4R_2$
- $R_3 \times (-\frac{1}{10})$
- $R_1 \to R_1 3R_3$

To obtain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & \frac{3}{2} & -\frac{11}{10} & -\frac{6}{5} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{7}{10} & \frac{2}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

That is:

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{2} & -\frac{11}{10} & -\frac{6}{5} \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{7}{10} & \frac{2}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is easily checked that  $AA^{-1} = I_3$ .

### 1.8 Review of Matrix Algebra

#### 1.8.1 Fields

- A field F is a set where addition, subtraction, multiplication and division (by nonzero elements) satisfy the usual algebraic properties. Common fields include  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$
- We write  $\mathbb{F}^p$  for the vector space of all p vectors with entries in  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- We'll cheat and treat any ordered list of p elements of  $\mathbb{F}$  as an element of  $\mathbb{F}^p$ .
- For example, in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we might consider (1,2,3) as coordinates, a row vector, or a column vector with 3 real entries.

#### 1.8.2 Matrices Over a Field

- An  $m \times n$  matrix over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is an array of m rows and n columns of elements from  $\mathbb{F}$ .
- When m = n, we write  $M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , otherwise we write  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ .

#### 1.8.3 Addition and Scalar Multiplication

- Two matrices of the same size  $m \times n$  can be added entrywise
- The  $m \times n$  matrix has all entries equal to zero and acts as the additive identity (adding it to any matrix does not change the matrix)
- Multiplying a matrix by a scalar means multiplying each entry by that scalar
- The set of all  $m \times n$  matrices over  $\mathbb{F}$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$

#### 1.8.4 Linear Combinations

• A linear combination of vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k$  in a vector space V with coefficients  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k \in \mathbb{F}$  is defined as:

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \ldots + a_kv_k$$

• In particular, matrices themselves can be combined linearly, (e.g. 2A - 3B)

#### 1.8.5 Row and Column Vectors

- A column vector is a matrix with one column
- A row vector is a matrix with one row

# 1.8.6 Matrix-Vector Multiplication

- If A is  $m \times n$  matrix and v is an n-entry column vector, the product Av is defined by taking a linear combination of the columns of A with the entries of v as coefficients.
- The result Av is an m-entry column vector.
- For a row vector u with m entries, and an  $m \times n$  matrix Am the product uA a row vector in  $\mathbb{F}^n$  formed by the linear combination of the rows of A with the entries of u as coefficients.

# 1.8.7 Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

- If A is a  $m \times p$  and B is a  $p \times n$  matrix, the product AB is defined only when the inner dimensions match (p)
- To find each column of AB, multiply A with the corresponding column vector of B.
- In entrywise form:

$$(AB)_{ij} = A_{i,1}B_{1,j} + A_{i,2}B_{2,j} + \ldots + A_{i,p}B_{p,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} A_{i,k}B_{k,j}$$

### 1.8.8 Dot Product and Orthogonality

• For two p-entry vectors,  $u, v \in \mathbb{F}^p$ , their dot product is:

$$u \cdot v = \sum_{k=1}^{p} u_k v_k$$

- Vectors are **orthogonal** if their dot product is zero.
- If  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , this means the vector are perpendicular.
- In matrix multiplication, the entry  $(AB)_{ij}$  can be viewed as the dot product of Row i with Column j of B.