# MA283: Linear Algebra

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Robert Davidson

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# 1 Review of Matrix Algebra

#### Matrix Addition

If a matrix has m rows and n columns, we say it is  $m \times n$ . Two matrices can only be added if they have the same size. In this case, we just add the entries in each position.

The  $m \times n$  zero matrix is a matrix with all entries equal to 0. It is the **Identity element** for matrix addition (adding it to any matrix does not change the matrix)

# Matrix Multiplication by a Scalar

This simply means multiplying each entry of the matrix by the scalar. For example:

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 2\alpha \\ 3\alpha & 4\alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

**Remark**: Now that we have addition and scalar multiplication, we can subtract matrices (A - B = A + (-1)B), provided they are the same size.

## **Vector Space**

With these operations of addition and scalar multiplication, the set of  $m \times n$  matrices is a vector space. A **vector** space algebraic structure whose elements can be added, subtracted and multiplied by scalars.

## **Linear Combinations**

#### Definition 1.1: Linear Combinations

Suppose  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k$  are elements that can be added together and multiplied by scalars.

A Linear Combination of  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k$  is an expression of the form:

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \ldots + \alpha_k v_k$$

where  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$  are scalars, called **coefficients**.

# Matrix-Vector Multiplication

## Definition 1.2

Let A be a  $m \times n$  matrix, and **v** be a column vector with n entries  $(n \times 1 \text{ matrix})$ .

Then the matrix vector product Av is the column vector, with m entries, obtained by taking the linear combination of the columns of A with the entries of  $\mathbf{v}$  as coefficients.

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 9 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 41 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Remark:** Av, if defined, has the same number of rows as A and the same number of columns as v.

# Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

#### Definition 1.3

Let A and B be matrices of size  $m \times p$  and  $p \times n$ , respectively. Write  $v_1, \ldots v_n$  for the columns of B. Then the product AB is the  $m \times n$  matrices whose columns are  $Av_1, \ldots, Av_n$ .

The entry at row i and column j of the matrix A is given by  $A_{ij}$ . The entry in the i, j position of the product AB is the ith entry of the vector  $Av_j$ , where the vector  $v_j$  is the jth column of B. In other words, the entry in the i, j position of the product AB is given by:

$$(AB)_{ij} = A_{i1}B_{1j} + A_{i2}B_{2j} + \ldots + A_{ip}B_{pj} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} A_{ik}B_{kj}$$

#### Definition 1.4

If A is  $m \times p$  with rows  $u_1, \ldots, u_m$  and B is  $p \times n$  with columns  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ , then the product AB is:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \cdot v_1 & u_1 \cdot v_2 & \dots & u_1 \cdot v_n \\ u_2 \cdot v_1 & u_2 \cdot v_2 & \dots & u_2 \cdot v_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_m \cdot v_1 & u_m \cdot v_2 & \dots & u_m \cdot v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 \\ 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 9 + 3 \cdot 11 & 1 \cdot 8 + 2 \cdot 10 + 3 \cdot 12 \\ 4 \cdot 7 + 5 \cdot 9 + 6 \cdot 11 & 4 \cdot 8 + 5 \cdot 10 + 6 \cdot 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 58 & 64 \\ 139 & 154 \end{bmatrix}$$

For matrices A and B, the products AB and BA are generally not equal, even if they are both defined and even if both have the same size.

# **Linear Transformations**

# 2 Systems of linear equations

# 2.1 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 2.1: 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 2.2: 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  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# 2.1.1 Interpreting Linear Systems as Matrix Equations

# 2.2 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).

# 2.2.1 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.
- 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.

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

Example of REF

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

# Concept 2.1: 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

#### 2.2.2 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

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

Definition 2.3: 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

# 2.4 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.

## 2.5 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  ${f consistent}$  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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# 2.6 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."

#### 2.6.1 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:

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

## 2.6.2 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:

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

### 2.6.3 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 2.1

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 2.2

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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## 2.7 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 2.3

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:

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

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