

First Recitation Class

Linear Algebra

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From Linear Equations to Matrices

For a system of linear equations of *real* numbers,

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1m}x_m = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2m}x_m = b_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nm}x_m = b_n$$

here a_{ij} , b_i are coefficients and x_i are unknowns.

We write it as in the matrix form.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Two ways to understand linear system

Method 1. Intersection of n "planes" in \mathbb{R}^m .

For $n = 2$ and $m = 2$

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

The solution is the intersection of two lines defined by two equations.

Method 2. Span m vectors of in \mathbb{R}^n .

We rewrite the equation,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \end{pmatrix} x_1 + \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \end{pmatrix} x_2 = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution is the appropriate coefficients to make two vectors span the third vector.

Matrices

Definition

We call

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

a $n \times m$ matrix. We can also write $A = (a_{ij}), i = \overline{1, n}, j = \overline{1, m}$.

Notice:

There are several types of important matrices.

- ▶ If $n = m$, A is a square matrix.
- ▶ If $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$, A is diagonal.
- ▶ If $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i \geq j$, A is upper triangle.

Note:

A $n \times m$ matrix has n **rows** and m **columns**. It come from n **equations** and m **unknowns**.

Vectors

Definition

We define vectors as $n \times 1$ matrices,

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

We denote the space of all vectors

$$\mathbb{R}^n := \{\bar{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n) : a_i \in \mathbb{R}, \forall i \in \overline{1, n}\}.$$

A $1 \times m$ matrix is called a **row** vector.

Vectors and Matrices

Notice:

We here define the product between appropriate matrix and vectors.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1m}x_m \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{nm}x_m \end{bmatrix}$$

A special type of $n \times n$ matrices is called identity matrix:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

When they operate on vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$Ix = x.$$

Solution set of a system of linear equations

Definition.

For a system of linear equations, the set of all solutions is called the solution set,

$$S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \text{ is a solution}\}$$

Claim.

There are only three possible cases for the solution set,

- ▶ $S = \emptyset$,
- ▶ S contains only one element,
- ▶ S is infinite.

Question.

Why there are only three possible cases?

Gaussian-Jordan Elimination

Restrictions.

To solve a system, we can only apply following types of operations.

- ▶ Times an equation with a constant.
- ▶ Add an equation to another.
- ▶ Exchange two rows.

Motivation.

For $n \times n$ case, the identity form can be solved.

We want to transform a system to this form.

$$x + 0 + 0 = b_1$$

$$0 + y + 0 = b_2$$

$$0 + 0 + z = b_3$$

Gaussian-Jordan Elimination

Solution.

Our solution contains two steps:

- Gaussian: eliminate the lower triangle,

$$\begin{aligned}a_{11}x + a_{12}y + a_{13}z &= \diamond & x + \star + \star &= \diamond \\a_{21}x + a_{22}y + a_{23}z &= \diamond & \Rightarrow 0 + y + \star &= \diamond \\a_{31}x + a_{32}y + a_{33}z &= \diamond . & 0 + 0 + z &= \diamond .\end{aligned}$$

- Jordan: eliminate the upper triangle,

$$\begin{aligned}x + \star + \star &= \diamond & x + 0 + 0 &= \diamond \\0 + y + \star &= \diamond & \Rightarrow 0 + y + 0 &= \diamond \\0 + 0 + z &= \diamond . & 0 + 0 + z &= \diamond .\end{aligned}$$

Gaussian-Jordan Elimination

Example.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 9 & 5 & 11 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Additional operations and failure

If we have zero at the leading position, we need to exchange rows.
If all lower elements are zeros, we fail.

Gaussian-Jordan Algorithm

We apply this method to $n \neq m$.

Example.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 8 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice:

Although we cannot get to the identity form, the result system is easy to solve.

Reduced Row Echelon Form

Definition

- (i) If a row is non-zero and the first non-zero element is 1, this element is called **leading 1** in this row.
- (ii) If a column contains a **leading 1**, all other entries are 0.
- (iii) If a row contains a **leading 1**, all **leading 1**s of the above rows are on the left.

We will write $\text{rref}(A)$ to refer the reduced row echelon form of A .

Question:

Why this form is easy to solve?

Rank

Definition

The number of leading 1's in $\text{rref}(A)$ is called the *rank* of the matrix A .

Notice:

We can exchange columns (rename variables in the equations) to write $\text{rref}(A)$ as follows,

$$\text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} I & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We denote $\text{rank} A = r$. I is the $r \times r$ identity matrix and F is a $r \times (m - r)$ matrix.

Rank

We summarize all situations,

- (i) $\text{rank}A = n = m$, $\text{rref}(A) = I$, the system will have one solution.
- (ii) $\text{rank}A = n < m$, $\text{rref}(A) = [I \ F]$, the system will have infinitely many solutions.
- (iii) $\text{rank}A = m < n$, $\text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, the system will either be inconsistent or have one solution.
- (iv) $\text{rank}A < m$, $\text{rank}A < n$, $\text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} I & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, the system will either be inconsistent or have infinitely many solutions.

Review of Vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = \overline{1, n}\}$$

Standard Representation

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we can write it as

$$x = x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n,$$

where

$$e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, 1 \text{ at } i\text{th entry.}$$

Properties of Vectors

Definition

For $\bar{a}, \bar{b}, \bar{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}$,

1. *Addition between vectors*

(i) $\bar{a} + \bar{b} = \bar{b} + \bar{a}$,

(ii) $(\bar{a} + \bar{b}) + \bar{c} = \bar{a} + (\bar{b} + \bar{c})$.

2. *Scalar product*

(i) $k_1(k_2\bar{a}) = (k_1k_2)\bar{a}$,

(ii) $k(1)(\bar{a} + \bar{b}) = k_1\bar{a} + k_1\bar{b}$,

(iii) $(k(1) + k(2))\bar{a} = k_1\bar{a} + k_2\bar{a}$.

Comment:

Vector space is a more general concept, functions and sequences with appropriate definition can also be vectors.

An important question is to find basis for these spaces. Can you find a basis in $C^\infty[a, b]$?

Projection and Dot Product

Definition

Geometrically, we define the projection of *a vector on a line* as a vector,

$$\text{proj}_L \overline{AB} = \overline{O_A O_B}.$$

The projection of *a vector on a vector* as a number,

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{l}} = \pm |\overline{O_A O_B}|.$$

Definition

We define the dot product as

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos(\angle(\vec{a}, \vec{b})).$$

Note that $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| \text{proj}_{\vec{a}} \vec{b} = |\vec{b}| \text{proj}_{\vec{b}} \vec{a}.$

Properties of Dot Product

Geometrically, we have projection is linear, then we can prove

$$\bar{a} \cdot (\bar{b} + \bar{c}) = |\bar{a}| \text{proj}_{\bar{a}}(\bar{b} + \bar{c}) = |\bar{a}| \text{proj}_{\bar{a}}\bar{b} + |\bar{a}| \text{proj}_{\bar{a}}\bar{c}.$$

For standard basis, we have

$$e_i \cdot e_j = \begin{cases} 0, i \neq j \\ 1, i = j \end{cases}.$$

With standard representation, we have

$$\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2.$$

Properties of Dot Product

Perpendicular

Vectors \vec{a}, \vec{b} are perpendicular if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.

Euclidean Norm

The length of a vector is

$$\|\vec{a}\| = \sqrt{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}.$$

Definition

A vector $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a unit vector is $\|\vec{w}\| = 1$. For $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\vec{a} \neq 0$, vector $\frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$ is called the normalized vector of \vec{a} .

Cross Product

Definition

The cross product $\bar{a} \times \bar{b}$ of two vectors $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a vector $\bar{c} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ that satisfies:

- (i) $\bar{c} \perp \bar{a}, \bar{c} \perp \bar{b}$,
- (ii) $\|\bar{c}\| = \|\bar{a}\| \cdot \|\bar{b}\| \cdot \sin(\angle \bar{a}, \bar{b})$,
- (iii) the ordered tuple $(\bar{a}, \bar{b}, \bar{c})$ is right-handed.

Notice:

We notice that $\bar{a} \times \bar{a} = 0$ and $\bar{a} \times \bar{b} = \|\bar{a}\| \cdot \|\bar{b}\|$ for $\bar{a} \perp \bar{b}$.

We can then use basis representation to calculate cross product.