

MATH129A – Linear Algebra Midterm #1 Study Guide

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Section 1.1 – Systems of Linear Equations

Linear Equation – An equation with variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n that can be written in the form : $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$ Coefficients: a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n can be real or complex	Linear System or System of Linear Equations – Collection of one or more linear equations .	Solution: A set of numbers (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) that makes each equation a true statement when substituted for variables (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) respectively.	Solution Set: Set of all possible solutions for a linear system. Possible Solution Sets: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No solution • One solution • Infinite solutions
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Consistent Linear System – Has one or infinite solutions	Coefficient Matrix – A matrix containing the coefficients for each variable in each equation in the linear system.	Augmented Matrix – A matrix of a system containing the coefficient matrix and an added column containing the constants from the right hand side of the equation.	Techniques to Simplify a Linear System <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Replace one equation with sum of itself and the multiple of another linear system (equation) 2. Interchange two equations 3. Multiply all terms in an equation by a non-zero constant
Inconsistent Linear System – Has no solution			

Row Equivalent Matrices – Any two matrices where a series of elementary row operations can transform one matrix into another.	Row Operation Reversibility – All row operations can be undone to get the previous matrix	m x n Matrix – Composed of m rows of n columns	Equivalent Linear Systems – Any two linear systems with the same solution set .
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Approaches to Find the Solution Set of a Linear System <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Solve equations by substitution. 2. Multiply and add the equations 3. Graphically <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Look at the intersection of the equations. 			
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Section 1.2 – Row Reduction and Echelon Forms

Key Properties				
If two augmented matrices are row equivalent , then the systems have the same solution set .	Reduced echelon form is unique	Echelon form is not unique	All linear systems have a reduced echelon form.	Location of leading entries is the same between standard and reduced echelon form.

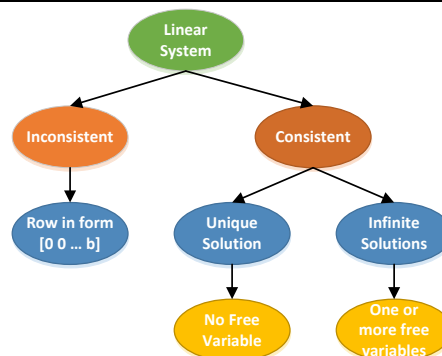
Echelon Matrix Criteria 1. All non-zero rows are above all zero rows. 2. The leading entries of lower rows are to the right of all those in upper rows. a. Forms a “ step pattern ”. 3. The entries in a column below a leading entry are zero.	Reduced (Row) Echelon Matrix Criteria 1. All criteria of a standard echelon matrix. 2. All leading entries equal 1. 3. The entries in a column above a leading entry are 0.	Theorem #1: Any matrix has one and only one reduced echelon form.
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Pivot Position – A position in a given matrix that corresponds to a “1” in reduced echelon form .	Pivot Position – A column that contains a pivot position.	Pivot – A non-zero number in a pivot position that is used as needed to create zeros via row operations.	Gaussian Elimination: Same concept as row reduction.	Non-zero row/column: A row/column with at least one non-zero entry .	Leading entry – Leftmost non-zero entry in a row .
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Row Reduction Algorithm (Gaussian Elimination) Forms an Echelon Matrix				Gauss-Jordan Elimination Forms the Reduced Echelon Matrix
1. Begin with the left most non-zero entry that is a pivot position. Move that position to the top of the matrix.	2. Select a non-zero entry in the pivot column as a pivot. If necessary, interchange rows to move this entry into the pivot position.	3. Use row operations to create zeros in all positions below the pivot.	4. Cover (i.e. ignore) the rows containing the pivot position and cover (ignore) all rows above it. Apply steps 1-3 to the sub matrix that remains. Repeat the process until there are no more non-zero rows remaining.	5. Create zeros above each pivot and scale each pivot to 1.

Basic Variable: Can only exist in a single solution set equation. Correspond to a pivot in the reduced echelon matrix. Free Variable: Can be assigned to any number since it has no pivot. Free variable quantity dictates the resulting solution set's shape (e.g., plane, line etc.).	Parametric Description of Solution Sets <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Free variables act as parameters Each basic variable is represented by an equation made up of constants and/or free variables. 	Theorem 1-2: Existence and Uniqueness Theorem A linear system is consistent if and only if the rightmost column of the augmented matrix is not a pivot column – that is, if and only if an echelon form of the augmented matrix has no row in the form: $[0 \dots 0 \ b]$ with b non-zero If a linear system is consistent, then the solution set contains either: i) A unique solution, when there is no free variable ii) Infinitely many solutions when there is at least one free variable.
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Example: Parametric Description of a Solution Set	
Augmented Matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$	Parametric Description of the Solution Set $\begin{cases} x_1 = -6x_2 - 3x_4 \\ x_2 \text{ is free} \\ x_3 = 5 + 4x_4 \\ x_4 \text{ is free} \\ x_5 = 7 \end{cases}$



Section 1.3 – Vector Equations

Vector – An ordered list of numbers	Column Vector – A matrix with only one column .	Vector Equality – Two vectors of the same size with all corresponding entries equal .	Vector Addition – Sum obtained by adding the corresponding entries of two vectors .	Scalar Multiple – Given a number, c , and a vector, \vec{v} , it is the vector obtained when c is multiplied by each element in \vec{u}
Parallelogram Rule for Addition – If u and v are in \mathbb{R}^2 (i.e., points in the Cartesian plane), then $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$ corresponds to the fourth point in the parallelogram whose vertices are \vec{u}, \vec{v}, and $\vec{0}$ (the origin).		Scalar Multiples of a Fixed Vector – Along a line between the vector point and the origin .	Zero Vector ($\vec{0}$) – A vector whose entries are all zeros.	Linear Combination – Given vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ and scalars c_1, \dots, c_n , then the linear combination vector \vec{y} is: $\vec{y} = c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n$

Algebraic Properties in \mathbb{R}^n

Commutative $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$	Associative $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$	Identity $\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u}$	Inverse $\vec{u} - \vec{u} = -\vec{u} + \vec{u} = \vec{0}$
Distributive $c(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c\vec{u} + d\vec{v}$	Distributive $(c + d)\vec{v} = c\vec{v} + d\vec{v}$	Associative $c(d\vec{u}) = (cd)\vec{u}$	Identity $1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$

The Vector Equation and the Augmented Matrix A vector equation : $x_1\vec{a}_1 + x_2\vec{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{a}_n = \vec{b}$ has the same solution set as the linear system whose augmented matrix is: $[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{b}]$ In particular, \vec{b} can be generated by a linear combination of $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$ if and only if there exists a solution to the linear system corresponding to the augmented matrix.	Subset of \mathbb{R}^n Spanned / Generated by $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ If $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ are in \mathbb{R}^n , then the set of all linear combinations of $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ is denoted by: $span\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ It is the set of all linear combination vectors that can be written in the form: $c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n$	Geometric Description of Spans of Vectors	
		$\vec{0}$ (Zero Vector)	A point – The origin
		One non-zero vector \vec{u}	A line through the origin and \vec{u}
		Two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} that are scalar multiples	A line through the origin and \vec{u}
		Two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} not scalar multiples	A plane through the origin, \vec{u} , and \vec{v}

Members of All Spans <ul style="list-style-type: none">Zero vector ($\vec{0}$)Scalar multiples of the original vectors	How to Determine if a Vector is in a Span Check if the system is consistent	Important Notation				
		Vector \vec{u} in \mathbb{R}^3			Not a vector	Set of Directions
		$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}$	(u_1, u_2, u_3)	$\langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$	$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \end{bmatrix}$ It is a 1x3 matrix	$\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$

Section 1.4 – The Matrix Equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$

<div><div>Gaussian Elimination – Same concept as row reduction.</div><div>Non-zero row/column – A row/column with at least one non-zero entry.</div><div><div>Theorem #1-3:</div><div>If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with columns $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$ and if $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then the matrix equation:</div><div>$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$</div><div>has the same solution set as the vector equation:</div><div>$x_1\vec{a}_1 + x_2\vec{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{a}_n = \vec{b}$</div><div>which has the same solution set as the system of linear equations whose augmented matrix is:</div><div>$[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{b}]$</div></div></div>	<div><div>Theorem #1-4:</div><div>Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are equivalent meaning they are either all true or all false.</div><div><div>a)</div><div>For all $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a solution.</div></div><div><div>b)</div><div>Each $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear combination of the columns of A.</div></div><div><div>c)</div><div>The columns of A span \mathbb{R}^m</div></div><div><div>d)</div><div>The (coefficient) matrix A has a pivot position in every row.</div></div></div>	<div><div>Relationship between Spans and Free Variables</div><table><tr><th>$A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$</th><th>General Solution Structure</th></tr><tr><td>$\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ (Trivial Only)</td><td>$span\{\vec{0}\} = \vec{0}$</td></tr><tr><td>1 Free Variable</td><td>$span\{\vec{u}\}$ – Line through \vec{u} and the origin</td></tr><tr><td>2 Free Variables</td><td>$span\{\vec{u}, \vec{v}\}$ – Plane through \vec{u}, \vec{v}, and the origin</td></tr><tr><td>p Free Variables</td><td>$span\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ – Multidimensional shape through $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and the origin</td></tr></table></div>	$A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$	General Solution Structure	$\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ (Trivial Only)	$span\{\vec{0}\} = \vec{0}$	1 Free Variable	$span\{\vec{u}\}$ – Line through \vec{u} and the origin	2 Free Variables	$span\{\vec{u}, \vec{v}\}$ – Plane through \vec{u}, \vec{v} , and the origin	p Free Variables	$span\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ – Multidimensional shape through $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and the origin
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<div><div>Theorem #1-5:</div><div>If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, \vec{u} and \vec{v} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^m, and c is a scalar, then:</div><div><div>a)</div><div>$A(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = A\vec{u} + A\vec{v}$</div></div><div><div>b)</div><div>$A(c\vec{u}) = cA\vec{u}$</div></div></div>	<div><div>Row-Vector Rule for Computing $A\vec{x}$</div><div>If the product $A\vec{x}$ is defined (i.e., the sizes correspond), then the i^{th} entry in $A\vec{x}$ is the sum of products of the corresponding entries from row i of A and from the vector \vec{x}. It is formally:</div><div>$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$</div></div>	<div><div>Matrix Equation Definition</div><div>If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with columns $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$ and if $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then the product, of A and \vec{x}, denoted by $A\vec{x}$, is the linear combination of the columns of A using the corresponding entries in \vec{x} as the weights; that is:</div><div>$A\vec{x} = [\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1\vec{a}_1 + x_2\vec{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{a}_n$</div></div>										

Section 1.5 – Solution Sets of Linear Systems

<p>Homogeneous Linear System: $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A – $m \times n$ Matrix • \vec{x} – Vector in \mathbb{R}^n • $\vec{0}$ – Zero vector in \mathbb{R}^m <p>Trivial Solution: $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ (in \mathbb{R}^n)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exists for all homogeneous systems <p>Nontrivial Solution: Any non-zero vector solution to the equation: $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If it exists, there are infinitely many. • Requires at least one free variable. 	<p>Non-Homogenous System: $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ where \vec{b} is not the zero vector.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May be inconsistent. • If its solution exists, it is in the form: $\vec{x} = \vec{p} + \vec{v}_h$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ If A is $m \times n$, then $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ○ \vec{p} – Particular solution for the specific non-homogenous system ○ \vec{v}_h – Solution set for the homogenous system 	<p>Theorem #1-6: Suppose the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ is consistent for some given \vec{b}, and let \vec{p} be any solution to that particular non-homogenous system. Then the solution set of $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ (if it exists) is the set of all vectors of the form:</p> $\vec{w} = \vec{p} + \vec{v}_h$ <p>where \vec{v}_h is any solution of the homogenous equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.</p>
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Solution Set Notations			<p>For \vec{b} to span all of \mathbb{R}^m, there must be a pivot in every row of echelon matrix of A.</p>
<p>Augmented Matrix</p> $\left[\begin{array}{ccccc c} 1 & 6 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \end{array} \right]$	<p>Parametric Description of the Solution Set</p> $\begin{cases} x_1 = -6x_2 - 3x_4 \\ x_2 \text{ is free} \\ x_3 = 5 + 4x_4 \\ x_4 \text{ is free} \\ x_5 = 7 \end{cases}$	<p>Parametric Vector Form</p> $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -6x_2 - 3x_4 \\ x_2 \\ 5 + 4x_4 \\ x_4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	

Section 1.7 – Linear Independence

Span Review

- **One Vector** – **At most** a line
 - **Exception:** $\vec{0}$ vector
- **Two Vectors:** **At most** a plane
 - **Exception:** Scalar multiples and the zero vector

Linear Independence

A set of vectors $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ are **linearly independent** if:

$$x_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_p \vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$$

has **only the trivial solution**

Linear Dependence

A set of vectors $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ are **linearly dependent** if there exists a set of **non-zero weights** c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p such that:

$$c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_p \vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$$

Note: This requires **at least one free variable**.

Linear Dependence Relation: For vectors $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$, it is defined as:

$$c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_p \vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$$

where $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p\}$ are **not all zero**.

Note: The values of $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p\}$ are not unique.
If one exists, an infinite number exist.

Procedure: Checking for Linear Independence

Step #1: Create the coefficient matrix.

Step #2: Perform Gaussian elimination to find the echelon matrix.

Step #3: Check linear independence

- If **there is a pivot in every column**, the vectors are **linearly independent**.
- If **there is a free variable**, the vectors are **linearly dependent**.

Linear Independence of One Vectors

- **Zero Vector** ($\{\vec{0}\}$) – This is always **linearly dependent**.
- **Any Non-Zero Vector** ($\{\vec{v}\}$ where $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$) then **linearly independent**.

Linear Independence of Two Vectors – A set of two vectors $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$ is linearly dependent if **at least one of the vectors is a scalar multiple** of the other.

- **“At least one”** – Because of the case of the zero ($\vec{0}$) vector.

For a set of vectors to be **linearly independent**, the echelon matrix made from those vectors must have no free variables.

- **There must be a pivot in every column.**

Linear Dependence Summary: If a set of **n vectors of m -dimensions** are linearly independent, then they **span an n dimensional shape**.

Theorem #1-7: An indexed set $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$ of two or more vectors is **linearly dependent if and only if at least one of the vectors in S is a linear combination of the others**.

In fact, if S is linearly dependent and $v_1 \neq 0$, then some v_j (where $j > 1$) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors: v_1, \dots, v_{j-1} .

Theorem #1-8: If a set **contains more vectors than there are entries in each vector**, then the set is **linearly dependent**.

That is any set $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is linearly dependent if:

$$p > n$$

Proof: More pivots than columns in an $n \times p$ matrix so **at least one free variable**.

Theorem #1-9: If a set $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$ **contains the zero vector**, then the set is **linearly dependent**.

Proof: If the zero vector is reordered to be v_1 , then

$$1\vec{v}_1 + 0\vec{v}_2 + \dots + 0\vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$$

Section 1.8 – Introduction to Linear Transformations

Function – A rule that assigns to each element in a set A exactly one element from set B .	Transformation (T) from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m: A rule that assigns to each vector $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ a vector $T(\vec{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$	Domain of T: \mathbb{R}^n Codomain of T: \mathbb{R}^m	Image of \vec{x}: For a given $x \in R^n$, it is the transformed value $T(\vec{x})$	Range: Set of all images $T(\vec{x})$. Note: The range may be (and often is) only a subset of the codomain.
Linear Transformations: Preserve vector addition and scalar multiplication				

Properties of Matrix Transformations

Requirements of Linear Transformation		Zero Vector Properties		$T(c\vec{u} + d\vec{v}) = cT(\vec{u}) + dT(\vec{v})$
$T(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = T(\vec{u}) + T(\vec{v})$	$T(c\vec{u}) = cT(\vec{u})$	$T(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$	$T(\vec{0}) = T(\mathbf{0}\vec{u})$	

Types of Matrix Transformations

Contraction $T(\vec{x}) = r\vec{x}$, where $0 \leq r \leq 1$	Dilation $T(\vec{x}) = r\vec{x}$, where $r > 1$	Projection onto an Axis Matrices in the form: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ – Projection onto (x_1x_2) -plane $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ – Projection onto the x_2 -axis	Shear Transformations Maps line segments onto line segments. Deforms the shape of the original input. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
Reflection through the Origin Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	Reflection through the x_1-axis Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	Reflection through the x_2-axis Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	Reflection through the line $x_1 = x_2$ Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
Twice as Long and 1.5 Times as High Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.5 \end{bmatrix}$	Rotation about Origin through 90° Matrix in the Form of: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$		

Section 2.1 – Matrix Operations

<p>a_{ij} or (i, j)-entry – Given A an $m \times n$ matrix, it is the element in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column of A</p>	<p>Diagonal Entries – In A an $m \times n$ matrix, it is the entries a_{11}, a_{22}, etc.</p>	<p>Diagonal Matrix – A square $n \times n$ matrix whose non-diagonal entries are 0.</p> <p>Example: Identity matrix</p>	<p>Equal Matrices – Two matrices having the same size (i.e., equal number of rows and columns) and whose corresponding entries are equal.</p>	<p>Matrix Sum – Given two matrices of the same size, the matrix sum is equivalent to the sum of the corresponding columns.</p>
<p>Matrix Multiplication</p> <p>If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and if B is an $n \times p$ matrix composed of the columns $\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_p$, then the product AB is an $m \times p$ matrix whose columns are: $A\vec{b}_1, A\vec{b}_2, \dots, A\vec{b}_p$ such that:</p> $AB = A[\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{b}_p] = [A\vec{b}_1 \ A\vec{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\vec{b}_p]$	<p>Row-Product Rule</p> <p>If the product of AB is defined, then the entry in row i and column j of AB is the sum of the products of corresponding entries from row i of A and column j of B such that:</p> $(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$	<p>Size of a Matrix Multiplication: Given a matrix A of size $m \times n$ and a matrix B of size $n \times p$, then the matrix multiplication AB is of size $m \times p$.</p> <p>Non-Commutativity of Matrix Multiplication In most cases, $AB \neq BA$</p> <p>Cancelation Laws Do Not Hold For Matrix Multiplication Generally, if $AB = AC$, it cannot be assumed that $B = C$</p> <p>Zero Matrix Product If $AB = 0$, you cannot generally assume $A = 0$ or $B = 0$</p>		
<p>Powers of a Matrix</p> <p>If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and k is a positive integer, then A^k denotes the product of k copies of A such that:</p> $A^k = A \dots A$ <p>Zero Power – Given a square matrix A, then A^0 is the identity matrix.</p>	<p>Transpose of a Matrix</p> <p>Given an $m \times n$ matrix A, then transpose of A is an $n \times m$ matrix whose columns are formed from the corresponding rows of A.</p>	<p>Transpose Multiplication Row: The transpose of the product of matrices equals the product of their transposes in reverse order.</p>		
<p>Theorem #2-1: Let A, B, and C be matrices of the same size and let r and s be scalars, then:</p> <p>a. $A + B = B + A$ (Commutative) b. $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$ (Associative) c. $A + 0 = A$ (Identity) d. $r(A + B) = rA + rB$ e. $(r + s)A = rA + sA$ f. $r(sA) = (rs)A$</p>	<p>Theorem #2-2: Given I_m is the identity matrix of size $m \times m$ and A is an $m \times n$ matrix, and that B and C have sizes for which the indicated sums and products exist, then</p> <p>a. $A(BC) = (AB)C$ (Associative) b. $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ (Left Distributive Law) c. $(B + C)A = BA + CA$ (Right Distributive Law) d. $r(AB) = (rA)B = A(rB)$, for any scalar r e. $I_m A = A = A I_n$</p>	<p>Theorem #2-3: Let A and B be matrices whose sizes are appropriate for the following sums and products:</p> <p>a. $(A^T)^T = A$ b. $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$ c. $(rA)^T = rA^T$, for any scalar r d. $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$</p> <p>Note: The reverse order of the product.</p>		

Midterm #1 Theorems

<p>Theorem #1: Any matrix has one and only one reduced echelon form.</p>	<p>Theorem 1-2: Existence and Uniqueness Theorem</p> <p>A linear system is consistent if and only if the rightmost column of the augmented matrix is not a pivot column – that is, if and only if an echelon form of the augmented matrix has no row in the form:</p> $[0 \dots 0 \ b] \text{ with } b \text{ non-zero}$ <p>If a linear system is consistent, then the solution set contains either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) A unique solution, when there is no free variable ii) Infinitely many solutions when there is at least one free variable. 	<p>Theorem #1-3: If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with columns $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$ and if $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then the matrix equation:</p> $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ <p>has the same solution set as the vector equation:</p> $x_1\vec{a}_1 + x_2\vec{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{a}_n = \vec{b}$ <p>which in turn has the same solution set as the system of linear equations whose augmented matrix is:</p> $[\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n \ \vec{b}]$
<p>Theorem #1-4: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are equivalent meaning they are either all true or all false.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) For all \vec{b} in \mathbb{R}^m, the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a solution. b) Each \vec{b} in \mathbb{R}^m is a linear combination of the columns of A. c) The columns of A span \mathbb{R}^m d) The (coefficient) matrix A has a pivot position in every row. 	<p>Theorem #1-5: If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, \vec{u} and \vec{v} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n, and c is a scalar, then:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) $A(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = A\vec{u} + A\vec{v}$ b) $A(c\vec{u}) = cA\vec{u}$ 	<p>Theorem #1-6: Suppose the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ is consistent for some given \vec{b}, and let \vec{p} be any solution to that particular non-homogenous system. Then the solution set of $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ is the set of all vectors of the form:</p> $\vec{w} = \vec{p} + \vec{v}_h$ <p>where \vec{v}_h is any solution of the homogenous equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.</p>
<p>Theorem #1-7: An indexed set $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ of two or more vectors is linearly dependent if and only if at least one of the vectors in S is a linear combination of the others.</p> <p>In fact, if S is linearly dependent and $\vec{v}_1 \neq \vec{0}$, then some \vec{v}_j (where $j > 1$) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors: $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_{j-1}$.</p>	<p>Theorem #1-8: If a set contains more vectors than there are entries in each vector, then the set is linearly dependent.</p> <p>That is any set $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is linearly dependent if:</p> $p > n$ <p>Proof: More pivots than columns in an $n \times p$ matrix so at least one free variable.</p>	<p>Theorem #1-9: If a set $S = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ contains the zero vector, then the set is linearly dependent.</p> <p>Proof: If the zero vector is reordered to be \vec{v}_1, then</p> $1\vec{v}_1 + 0\vec{v}_2 + \dots + 0\vec{v}_p = \vec{0}$
<p>Theorem #2-1: Let A, B, and C be matrices of the same size and let r and s be scalars, then:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. $A + B = B + A$ (Commutative) b. $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$ (Associative) c. $A + \mathbf{0} = A$ (Identity) d. $r(A + B) = rA + rB$ e. $(r + s)A = rA + sA$ f. $r(sA) = (rs)A$ 	<p>Theorem #2-2: Given I_m is the identity matrix of size $m \times m$ and A is an $m \times n$ matrix, and that B and C have sizes for which the indicated sums and products exist, then</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. $A(BC) = (AB)C$ (Associative) b. $A(B + C) = AB + AC$ (Left Distributive Law) c. $(B + C)A = BA + CA$ (Right Distributive Law) d. $r(AB) = (rA)B = A(rB)$, for any scalar r e. $I_m A = A = A I_n$ 	<p>Theorem #2-3: Let A and B be matrices whose sizes are appropriate for the following sums and products:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. $(A^T)^T = A$ b. $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$ c. $(rA)^T = rA^T$, for any scalar r d. $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ <p>Note: The reverse order of the product.</p>

Proofs for the Algebraic Properties of \mathbb{R}^n

Name	Description	Terms
Commutative (Vector Addition)	$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w}$ – Vectors $\vec{0}$ – Zero vector c, d – Real constants
Inverse (Vector Addition)	$\vec{u} + (-\vec{u}) = (-\vec{u}) + \vec{u} = \vec{0}$	
Associative (Vector Addition)	$\vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w}$	
Associative (Scalar Multiplication)	$c(d\vec{u}) = (cd)\vec{u}$	
Distributive Law (Vector Addition)	$c(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c\vec{u} + c\vec{v}$	
Distributive Law (Scalar Multiplication)	$(c + d)\vec{u} = c\vec{u} + d\vec{u}$	
Identity (Vector Addition)	$\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u}$	
Identity (Scalar Multiplication)	$1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$	

Proof of the Commutative Property of Vector Addition

- Suppose \vec{u} and \vec{v} are **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, \dots, u_n + v_n)$
- By the **commutative property of real number addition**:
 $(u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, \dots, u_n + v_n) = (v_1 + u_1, v_2 + u_2, \dots, v_n + u_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition** and the **definition of \vec{u} and \vec{v}** :
 $(v_1 + u_1, v_2 + u_2, \dots, v_n + u_n) = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$ (QED)

Proof of the Inverse Property of Vector Addition

- Suppose \vec{u} is **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:
 $-\vec{u} = (-1)\vec{u} = (-u_1, -u_2, \dots, -u_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $\vec{u} + (-\vec{u}) = (u_1 + (-u_1), u_2 + (-u_2), \dots, u_n + (-u_n))$
- By the **inverse property of real number addition**:
 $(u_1 + (-u_1), u_2 + (-u_2), \dots, u_n + (-u_n)) = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$
- By **definition of the zero vector**:
 $(0, 0, \dots, 0) = \vec{0}$ (QED)

Proof of the Associative Property for Vector Addition

- Suppose \vec{u}, \vec{v} , and \vec{w} are **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ and $\vec{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $\vec{v} + \vec{w} = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2, \dots, v_n + w_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $\vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = (u_1 + (v_1 + w_1), u_2 + (v_2 + w_2), \dots, u_n + (v_n + w_n))$
- By the **associative property of real number addition**:
 $(u_1 + (v_1 + w_1), u_2 + (v_2 + w_2), \dots, u_n + (v_n + w_n))$
 $= ((u_1 + v_1) + w_1, (u_2 + v_2) + w_2, \dots, (u_n + v_n) + w_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition** and the **definition of \vec{u} and \vec{v}** :
 $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = ((u_1 + v_1) + w_1, (u_2 + v_2) + w_2, \dots, (u_n + v_n) + w_n)$ (QED)

Proof of the Associative Property for Scalar Multiplication

- Suppose c and d are **any real number** and \vec{u} is **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:
 $d\vec{u} = (du_1, du_2, \dots, du_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $c(d\vec{u}) = (c(du_1), c(du_2), \dots, c(du_n))$
- By the **associative property of real number multiplication**:
 $(c(du_1), c(du_2), \dots, c(du_n)) = ((cd)u_1, (cd)u_2, \dots, (cd)u_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:
 $((cd)u_1, (cd)u_2, \dots, (cd)u_n) = (cd)\vec{u}$ (QED)

Proof of the Distributive Law for Vector Addition

- Suppose c is **any real number** and \vec{u} and \vec{v} are **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, \dots, u_n + v_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:
 $c(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = (c(u_1 + v_1), c(u_2 + v_2), \dots, c(u_n + v_n))$
- By the **distributive law over real number addition**:
 $(c(u_1 + v_1), c(u_2 + v_2), \dots, c(u_n + v_n)) = (cu_1 + cv_1, cu_2 + cv_2, \dots, cu_n + cv_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $(cu_1 + cv_1, cu_2 + cv_2, \dots, cu_n + cv_n) = c(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) + c(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**, and the **definition of \vec{u} and \vec{v}** :
 $c\vec{u} + c\vec{v} = (cu_1 + cv_1, cu_2 + cv_2, \dots, cu_n + cv_n)$ (QED)

Proof of the Distributive Law for Scalar Multiplication

- Suppose c and d are **any real number** and \vec{u} is **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:
 $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:
 $(c + d)\vec{u} = ((c + d)u_1, (c + d)u_2, \dots, (c + d)u_n)$
- By the **distributive law over real number addition**:
 $((c + d)u_1, (c + d)u_2, \dots, (c + d)u_n) = (cu_1 + du_1, cu_2 + du_2, \dots, cu_n + du_n)$
- By the **definition of vector addition**:
 $(cu_1 + du_1, cu_2 + du_2, \dots, cu_n + du_n) = (cu_1, cu_2, \dots, cu_n) + (du_1, du_2, \dots, du_n)$
- By the **definition of scalar multiplication** and the **definition of \vec{u}** :
 $(cu_1, cu_2, \dots, cu_n) + (du_1, du_2, \dots, du_n) = c\vec{u} + d\vec{u}$ (QED)

Proof of the Identity Property for **Vector Addition**

1. Suppose $\vec{0}$ is the **zero vector of length n** and \vec{u} is **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:

$$\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$

2. By the **definition of vector addition**:

$$\vec{u} + \vec{0} = (u_1 + 0, u_2 + 0, \dots, u_n + 0)$$

3. By the **identity property of real number addition**:

$$(u_1 + 0, u_2 + 0, \dots, u_n + 0) = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$

4. By the **definition of \vec{u}** :

$$\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \text{ (QED)}$$

Proof of the Identity Property for **Scalar Multiplication**

1. Suppose \vec{u} is **any real vector in \mathbb{R}^n** in the form:

$$\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$

2. By the **definition of scalar multiplication**:

$$1\vec{u} = (1u_1, 1u_2, \dots, 1u_n)$$

3. By the **identity property of real number multiplication**:

$$(1u_1, 1u_2, \dots, 1u_n) = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$

4. By the **definition of \vec{u}** :

$$\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \text{ (QED)}$$