

# A Quick Guide to Linear Algebra

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## 1. Linear Independence

The vectors  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k$  are linearly independent if and only if the only solution to

$$\vec{0} = a_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + a_k\vec{v}_k$$

is  $a_1 = \dots = a_k = 0$ .

In other words, when no vector  $\vec{v}_i$  is a linear combination of any of the other vectors.

If you have  $n$  linearly independent vectors  $\vec{v}_i$  each with  $n$  components, then they form a *basis* for all vectors of length  $n$ . This means that any vector  $\vec{u}$  of  $n$  components can be represented as a weighted sum of these  $n$  vectors:

$$\vec{u} = a_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + a_n\vec{v}_n, \text{ for some set of constants } a_1, \dots, a_n.$$

We also say that these vectors *span* the space of vectors with  $n$  components.

## 2. Matrices

A matrix is an  $m \times n$  set of numbers, where  $m$  is the number of rows and  $n$  is the number of columns. They are useful.

## 3. Matrix Multiplication

You can multiply two matrices when the number of columns in the first matrix is equal to the number of rows in the second matrix. If matrix  $A$  is  $m \times n$  and matrix  $B$  is  $n \times p$ , then  $A * B$  is a new matrix  $C$  of size  $m \times p$ , where each element  $C_{ij}$  of  $C$  is found by taking the dot product of row  $i$  of  $A$  with column  $j$  of  $B$  ( $i$  = # rows down,  $j$  = # rows across):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 70 & 80 & 90 \\ 158 & 184 & 210 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\text{matrix dimensions: } (2 \times 4) * (4 \times 3) = (2 \times 3)$$

In general,  $AB \neq BA$ .

### 3a. I, The Identity Matrix

The matrix  $I$  is the *identity matrix*, which is the square matrix of any size with 1's on its main diagonal, and 0's everywhere else, and  $AI = IA = A$  for all matrices  $A$ .

$$I_{3 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

### 4. Matrix Inversion

Given a square matrix  $A$ , if there is a matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ , then  $A$  is invertible, and its inverse is  $A^{-1}$ .

A matrix is invertible exactly when all its rows (equivalently, all its columns) are linearly independent. The inverse of an invertible matrix is unique.

Formula for the inverse of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

To find the inverse of a larger matrix by hand, use row reduction to convert  $[A|I]$  to  $[I|A^{-1}]$ . In practice, use a calculator.

A matrix is invertible if its determinant  $\neq 0$ .

A matrix is invertible if all its eigenvalues  $\neq 0$ .

### 5. Solving a Linear System of Equations

The easiest way to solve a system of equations ( $n$  equations,  $n$  unknowns) is with matrices. The following are equivalent:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 &= b_2 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 &= b_3 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \Rightarrow \vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$$

This can be easily solved with any graphing calculator!

## 6. Determinants

The determinant is a number that helps describe a matrix. Written  $\det(A)$  or  $|A|$ .

$$2 \times 2: \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$3 \times 3: \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

and so on, recursively finding determinites of submatrices of the larger matrix.

Matrix  $A$  is invertible if and only if  $\det(A) \neq 0$ .

## 7. The Wronskian

Given two functions  $y_1(x)$  and  $y_2(x)$ , the Wronskian is defined as:

$$W(x) = \det \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ y_1' & y_2' \end{bmatrix} = y_1 y_2' - y_1' y_2 .$$

In general,

$$W(x) = \det \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_n \\ y_1' & y_2' & \dots & y_n' \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_1^{(n-1)} & y_2^{(n-1)} & \dots & y_n^{(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} .$$

The functions  $y_1(x), \dots, y_n(x)$  are linearly independent when  $W(x) \neq 0$ .

## 8. Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Matrix operations are often described with the help of eigenvalues and eigenvectors. For square matrix  $A$ , scalar  $\lambda$ , and nonzero vector  $\vec{v}$ , if

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v},$$

then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ , and  $\vec{v}$  is its corresponding eigenvector. An eigenvector is unique only up to a scalar multiple.

In general, there will be  $n$  not necessarily distinct  $\lambda$ s for an  $n \times n$  matrix.

Matrix  $A$  is invertible if and only if all these  $\lambda \neq 0$ .