# Linear Algebra & Geometry - Notes

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## 1 Euclidean Plane, Vectors, Cartesian Co-Ordinates & Complex Numbers

#### 1.1 Vectors

**Definition 1.01 -** *Vectors* 

Ordered sets of real numbers.

Denoted by 
$$\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3, ...) = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

**Definition 1.02 -** Euclidean Plane

The set of two dimensional vectors, with real componenets, is called the Euclidean Plane. Denoted by  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 

**Definition 1.03 -** Vector Addition

Let 
$$\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
 such that  $\boldsymbol{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  and  $\boldsymbol{w} = (w_1, w_2)$ .

Then 
$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2).$$

**Definition 1.03 -** Scalar Multiplication of Vectors

Let 
$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
 and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ .

Then 
$$\lambda \mathbf{v} = (\lambda v_1, \lambda v_2)$$
.

**Definition 1.04 -** Norm of vectors

The norm of a vector is its length from the origin.

Denoted by 
$$||\boldsymbol{v}|| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$$
 for  $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Theorem 1.05

Let 
$$\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
 and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\boldsymbol{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  and  $\boldsymbol{w} = (w_1, w_2)$ .  
Then

$$||\boldsymbol{v}|| = 0 \text{ iff } \boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{0}$$

$$||\lambda \boldsymbol{v}|| = \sqrt{\lambda^2 v_1^2 + \lambda^2 v_2^2}$$

$$= |\lambda|.||\boldsymbol{v}||$$

$$||\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}|| \le ||\boldsymbol{v}|| + ||\boldsymbol{w}||$$

**Definition 1.06 -** *Unit Vector* 

A vector can be described by its length & direction.

Let 
$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}.$$

Then 
$$v = ||v||u$$
 where  $u$  is the unit vector,  $u = \begin{pmatrix} cos\theta \\ sin\theta \end{pmatrix}$ 

Thus 
$$\forall \ \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \ \boldsymbol{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda cos\theta \\ \lambda sin\theta \end{pmatrix}$$
 for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 1.07 -** *Dot Product* 

Let 
$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
 and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ .

Then 
$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = v_1.w_1 + v_2.w_2$$
.

Remark 1.08 - Positivity of Dot Product

Let 
$$\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
.

Then 
$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = ||\mathbf{v}||^2 = v_1^2 + v_2^2 \ge 0.$$

Remark 1.09 - Angle between vectors in Euclidean Plane

Let  $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Set  $\theta$  to be the angle between  $\boldsymbol{v} \ \& \ \boldsymbol{w}$ .

Then

$$cos\theta = \frac{oldsymbol{v} \cdot oldsymbol{w}}{||oldsymbol{v}|| \; ||oldsymbol{w}||}$$

Theorem 1.10 - Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

Let  $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

Then

$$|\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}| \le ||\boldsymbol{v}|| \ ||\boldsymbol{w}||$$

Proof

$$\frac{v_1 w_1}{||\boldsymbol{v}|| \ ||\boldsymbol{w}||} + \frac{v_2 w_2}{||\boldsymbol{v}|| \ ||\boldsymbol{w}||} \le \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{v_1^2}{||\boldsymbol{v}||^2} + \frac{w_1^2}{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{v_2^2}{||\boldsymbol{v}||^2} + \frac{w_2^2}{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2} \right) \\
\le \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{v_1^2 + v_2^2}{||\boldsymbol{v}||^2} + \frac{w_1^2 + w_2^2}{||\boldsymbol{w}||^2} \right) \\
\le \frac{1}{2} (1+1) \\
\le 1 \\
=> |v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2| \le ||\boldsymbol{v}|| \ ||\boldsymbol{w}|| \\
||\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}| \le ||\boldsymbol{v}|| \ ||\boldsymbol{w}||$$

### 1.2 Complex Numbers

Definition 1.11 - i

$$i^2 = -1$$
$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

**Definition 1.12 -** Complex Number Set

The set of complex numbers contains all numbers with an imaginary part.

$$\mathbb{C} := \{ x + iy; x, y \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

Complex numbers are often denoted by

$$z = x + iy$$

and we say x is the real part of z and y the imaginary part.

 ${\bf Definition~1.13~-~} {\it Complex~Conjugate}$ 

Let  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  st z = x + iy.

Then

$$\bar{z} := x - iy$$

**Theorem 1.14 -** Operations on Complex Numbers

Let  $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$  st  $z_1 = x_1 + iy_1$  and  $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$ .

Then

$$z_1 + z_2 := (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$$
  

$$z_1.z_2 := (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2)$$
  

$$:= x_1.x_2 - y_1.y_2 + i(x_1.y_2 + x_2.y_1)$$

N.B. When dividing by a complex number, multiply top and bottom by the complex conjugate.

#### **Definition 1.15 -** Modulus of Complex Numbers

The modulus of a complex number is the distance of the number, from the origin, on an Argand diagram. Let  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  st z = x + iy.

Then

$$|z| := \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$:= \sqrt{\bar{z}z}$$

N.B. Amplitude is an alternative name for the modulus

#### **Definition 1.16 -** Phase of Complex Numbers

The phase of a complex number is the angle between the positive real axis and the line subtended from the origin and the number, on an Argand digram.

$$z = |z|.(\cos\theta + i.\sin\theta), \quad \theta = \text{Phase}$$

N.B. Phase of  $\bar{z} =$  - Phase of z

Theorem 1.17 - de Moivre's Formula

$$z^{n} = (\cos\theta + i.\sin\theta)^{n} = \cos(n\theta) + i.\sin(n\theta)$$

Theorem 1.18 - Euler's Formula

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i.\sin\theta$$

#### Remark 1.19

Using Euler's formula we can express all complex numbers in terms of e. Thus many properties of the exponential remain true:

$$z = \lambda e^{i\theta}, \qquad \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \theta \in [0, 2\pi)$$
$$= > z_1 + z_2 = \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2 \cdot e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$$
$$\&, \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \cdot e^{i(\theta_1 = \theta_2)}$$

### 2 Euclidean Space, $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition 2.01 -** Euclidean Space

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $\forall \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  with  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \in \mathbb{R}$  we have that  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Theorem 2.02 - Operations in Euclidean Space

Let  $(x), (y) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$(x) + (y) = (x_1 + y_1, ..., x_n + y_n)$$

And

$$(x) + \lambda \cdot (y) = (x_1 + \lambda \cdot y_1, ..., x_n + \lambda \cdot y_n)$$

**Definition 2.03 -** Cartesian Product

Let  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be non-empty sets.

Then

$$A \times B := \{(a, b); a \in A, b \in B\}$$

#### 2.1 Dot Product

**Definition 2.04** - Dot Product

Let  $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} := v_1.w_1 + \dots + v_n.w_n$$
  
$$:= \sum_{j=1}^{n} v_j.w_j$$

**Theorem 2.05 -** Properties of the Dot Product

Let  $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Linearity:

$$(\boldsymbol{u} + \lambda \boldsymbol{v}) \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} + \lambda (\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w})$$

Symmetry:

$$v \cdot w = w \cdot v$$

Positivity:

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2 \ge 0$$

**Definition 2.06 -** Orthogonality

Let  $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

It is said that (v), (w) are orthogonal to each other if  $v \cdot w = 0$  N.B. Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other.

**Definition 2.07 -** The Norm

Let  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then

$$||oldsymbol{x}|| = \sqrt{oldsymbol{x} \cdot oldsymbol{x}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

**Theorem 2.08 -** Properties of the Norm

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$||\mathbf{x}|| \ge 0$$

$$||\mathbf{x}|| = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{x} = 0$$

$$||\lambda \mathbf{x}|| = |\lambda|||\mathbf{x}||$$

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|| \le ||\mathbf{x}|| + ||\mathbf{y}||$$

Theorem 2.09 - Dot Product and Norm

Let  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$|x \cdot y| \le ||x||||y||$$

N.B.  $|x \cdot y| = ||x||||y||$  iff x & x are orthogonal.

Theorem 2.10 - Angle between Vectors

Let  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$cos\theta = \frac{\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{y}}{||\boldsymbol{x}||||\boldsymbol{y}||}$$

#### 2.2 Linear Subspaces

**Definition 2.11 -** Linear Subspace

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . V is a Linear Subspace if:

- i)  $V \neq \emptyset$ ;
- ii)  $\forall v, w \in V \text{ then } v + w \in V;$
- iii)  $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \boldsymbol{v} \in V \text{ then } \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \in V.$

Definition 2.12 - Span

Let  $x_1, ..., x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ;  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$span\{x_1, ..., x_k\} := \{\lambda_1 x_1 + ... + \lambda_k x_k; \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \le i \ge k\}$$

**Definition 2.13 -** Spans are Subspaces

Let  $x_1, ..., x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ;  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then span $\{x_1, ..., x_k\}$  is a linear subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Theorem 2.14

$$W_{\boldsymbol{a}} := \{ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n; \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{a} = 0 \}$$
 is a subspace.

**Definition 2.15 -** Orthogonal Complement

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then,

$$V^{\perp} := \{ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n; \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{y} \ \forall \ \boldsymbol{y} \in V \}$$

N.B.  $V^{\perp} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ 

Theorem 2.16 - Relationship of Subspaces

Let V, W be subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then

 $V \cap W$  is a subspace.

$$V + W := \{ \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}; \boldsymbol{v} \in V, \boldsymbol{w} \in W \}$$
 is a subspace.

**Definition 2.17 -** Direct Sum

Let  $V_1, V_2, W$  be subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then W is said to be a direct sum if

- i)  $W = V_1 + V_2$ ;
- **ii)**  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ .

### 3 Linear Equations & Matrices

#### 3.1 Linear Equations

**Definition 3.01 -** Multi-Variable Linear Equations

Linear equations produce a straight line and can have multiple variables.

Examples - x = 3, y = x + 3, z + 5x - 2y

**Defintion 3.02 -** Systems of Linear Equations

Let  $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \ \& \ b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = b$ .

 $\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = b$  is a linear equation in x with  $S = \{\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = b\}$  as the set of solutions.

N.B. If b = 0 then  $S(\boldsymbol{a}, 0)$  is a subspace.

#### 3.2 Matrices

#### **Definition 3.03** - *Matrix*

Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then a  $m \times n$  grid of numbers form an "m" by "n" matrix. Each element of the matrix can be reference by  $a_{ij}$  with i = 1, ..., m and j = 1, ..., n.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

N.B. m,i = rows, n,j = columns

#### **Definition 3.04 -** Sets of Matrices

 $M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$  is the set of m x n matrices containing only real numbers.

 $M_{m,n}(\mathbb{Z})$  is the set of m x n matrices containing only integers.

 $M_n(\mathbb{R})$  is the set square matrices, size n, containing only real numbers.

**Definition 3.05 -** Transpose Vectors

Let 
$$\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$
 then  $\boldsymbol{x}^t = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix}$ 

**Definition 3.06 -** Vector-Matrix Multiplication

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}_{m,n}$  and  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then

$$A\mathbf{x} := \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1^t \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{a}_2^t \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_m^t \cdot \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

This can be simplified to

$$y = Ax$$
 with  $y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}x_j$ 

Theorem 3.07 - Operations on Matrices with Vectors

i) 
$$A(x + y) = Ax + Ay$$
,  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

ii) 
$$A(\lambda x) = \lambda(Ax), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$$

#### Theorem 3.08

Let  $A=(a_{ij})\in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $B=(b_{ij})\in M_{l,m}(\mathbb{R})$ . Then there exists a  $C=(c_{ij})\in M_{l,n}(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$C\boldsymbol{x} = B(A\boldsymbol{x}), \quad \forall \ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\underline{\text{N.B.}} c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} b_{ik} a_{kj}$$

**Theorem 3.09 -** Operation between Matrices

Let  $A, B \in M_{m,n}$  and  $C \in M_{l,m}$ 

- i) C(A+B) = CA + CB.
- ii) (A+B)C = AC + BC.
- iii) Let  $D \in M_{m,n}, E \in M_{n,l} \& F \in M_{l,k}$  then

$$E(FG) = (EF)G$$

N.B.  $AB \neq BA$ 

**Definition 3.10 -** Types of Matrix

Upper Triangle 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i > j$ .  
Lower Triangle  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i < j$ .

Lower Triangle 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i < j$ .

Symmetric Matrix 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix}
4 & 5 & 6 \\
1 & 2 & 3 \\
2 & 4 & 0 \\
3 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}, a_{ij} = a_{ji}.$$
Anti-Symmetric 
$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & -2 & -3 \\
2 & 0 & -4 \\
3 & 4 & -1
\end{pmatrix}, a_{ij} = -a_{ji}.$$

**Definition 3.11 -** Transposed Matrices

Let  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$  then the transponse of  $A, A^t$ , is an element of  $M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$ .

$$A^t := (aji)$$

Theorem 3.12 - Transpose Matrix Multiplication

Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}), \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot A\mathbf{x} = (A_t\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

Theorem 3.10 - Transposing Multiplied Matrices

$$(AB)^t = B^t A^t$$

#### 3.3 Structure of Set of Solutions

**Definition 3.13 -** Set of Solutions

Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\boldsymbol{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$S(A, \boldsymbol{b}) := \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n; A\boldsymbol{x} = b$$

#### **Definition 3.14 -** Homogenous Solutions

The system of  $S(A, \mathbf{0})$  is called said to be *homogenous*. All other systems are *inhomogenous*. N.B. -  $S(A, \mathbf{0})$  is a linear subspace.

#### Theorem 3.15 - Using Homogenous Solutions

Let  $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\boldsymbol{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\boldsymbol{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $A\boldsymbol{x}_0 = \boldsymbol{b}$ , then

$$S(A, \boldsymbol{b}) = \boldsymbol{x}_0 + S(A, \boldsymbol{0})$$

#### Remark 3.16 - Systems of Linear Equations as Matrices

The system of linear equations 3x + z = 0, y - z = 1, 3x + y = 1 can be represented by a matrix and a vector.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ \boldsymbol{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

### 3.4 Solving Systems of Linear Equations

Systems of linear equations can be displayed as matrices which can be reduced and solved by a technique called *Gaussian Elimination*.

#### Theorem 3.17

There are certain operations that can be performed on a system of linear equations without changing the result:

- i) Multiply an equaion by a non-zero constant;
- ii) Add a multiple of any equation to another equation;
- iii) Swap any two equations.

#### **Definition 3.18 -** Augmented Matrices

Let Ax = b be a system of linear equations. The associated Augmented Matrix is

$$(A \mathbf{b}) \in M_{m,n+1}(\mathbb{R})$$

#### Theorem 3.19 - Elementary Row Operations

From *Theorem 3.17* we can deduce ceratin operations that can be performed on an *Augmented Matrix* which do not alter the solutions:

- i) Multiply a row by a non-zero constant,  $row i \rightarrow \lambda(row i)$ ;
- ii) Add a multiple of any row to another row, row  $i \to row \ i + \lambda(row \ j)$ ;
- iii) Swap two rows,  $row i \leftrightarrow row j$ .

#### **Definition 3.20 -** Row Echelon Form

A matrix is in Row Echelon Form if:

- i) The left-most non-zero value in each row is 1; And,
- ii) The leading 1 in each row is one place to the right of the leading 1 in the row below.

Example

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### **Definition 3.20 -** Reduced Row Echelon Form

A matrix is in Reduced Row Echelon Form if:

- i) The matrix is in row echelon form; And,
- ii) All values in a row, except the leading 1, are 0.

Example

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### Theorem 3.21 - Gaussian Elimination

Gaussian Elimination is a technique used to solve systems of linear equations. Example Solve x + y + 2z = 9, 2x + 4y - 3z = 1, 3x + 6y - 5z = 0.

Augmented Matrix 
$$-\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

By EROS  $-\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & -11 & 27 \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 6 & 19 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$=\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### \_\_\_\_\_

Elementary Matrices & Inverting Matrices

#### **Definition 3.22 -** Invertible Matrices

A matrix,  $A \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ , is said to be *Invertible* if there exists  $A^{-1} \in M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$  such that

=>x=1, y=2, z=3

$$AA^{-1} = I$$

N.B. - If a matrix is not invertible then it is Singular.

#### **Definition 3.23 -** Elementary Matrices

A matrix,  $E \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ , is said to be an *Elementary Matrix* if it can be obtained by performing Elementary Row Operations on a square identity matrix.

Examples 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \lambda \\ \mu & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

#### Remark 3.24

3.5

All elementary matrices are invertible.

#### Remark 3.25

Let A be a matrix, and B be a matrix which can be obtained from A by elementary row operations. Then there exists an elementary matrix E such that

$$B = EA$$

Theorem 3.26 - Finding  $A^{-1}$ 

Theorem 3.26 - Finding A

Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Then by using EPOS to change  $(A, I) \rightarrow (I, P)$ .  $P$  is the inverse of  $A$ .

Then by using EROS to change  $(A I) \rightarrow (I B)$ , B is the inverse of A.

Theorem 3.27 - Inverse of a 2x2 Matrix

Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$
 then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

#### Linear Independence, Bases & Dimensions 4

#### Linear Independence & Dependence 4.1

**Definition 4.01 -** Linear Independence & Dependence

Vectors,  $x_1, ..., x_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , are said to be *linearly dependent* if there exists non-zero real numbers,  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n$  such that

$$\lambda_1.\boldsymbol{x}_1 + ... + \lambda_n.\boldsymbol{x}_n = \boldsymbol{0}$$

<u>N.B.</u> - If this is only true if  $\lambda_1 = ... = \lambda_n = 0$  then the vectors are said to be *linearly independent*.

#### Remark 4.02

Vectors are only linearly dependent if one of them lies in the span of the rest.

#### Bases & Dimensions

#### **Definition 4.03 -** Basis

A basis is a set of vectors,  $v_1, ..., v_n \in V$  such that

- i)  $V = \text{span}\{v_1, ...., v_n\};$
- ii)  $v_1, ..., v_n$  are linearly independent.

#### **Definition 4.04 -** Standard Basis

The standard basis for a vector space is the set fewest unit vectors which span it. Example -  $\{v_1, e_2, e_3\}$  are the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

#### **Theorem 4.05 -** Basis of a Linear Subspace

For all elements, v, of a linear subspace,  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists a unique set of numbers,  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n$ , such that

$$\boldsymbol{v} = \lambda_1.\boldsymbol{v}_1 + ... + \lambda_n.\boldsymbol{v}_n$$

Theorem 4.06 - Linear Independence and Bases

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear subspace with basis  $v_1, ..., v_n$ . Suppose  $w_1, ..., w_k \in V$  are linearly independent, then  $k \leq n$ .

#### **Definition 4.07 -** Dimension

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear subspace then the *dimension* of V, dim(V), is the fewest number vectors required to form a basis for V.

#### 4.3 Orthogonal Bases

#### **Definition 4.08 -** Orthogonal

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear subspace with  $\{v_1, ..., v_k\}$  as its basis. This basis is an *orthogonal basis* if it statisfies:

- i)  $\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ ;
- ii)  $v_i \cdot v_i = 1, i = 1, ..., k.$

<u>N.B.</u> - This can be generalised to  $v_i \cdot v_k = \delta_{ij}$  with  $\delta_{ij} := \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

#### Theorem 4.09

Let  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear subspace with an orthogonal basis  $\{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ . Then for all  $u \in V$ 

$$\boldsymbol{u} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1 \cdot \boldsymbol{u}) \boldsymbol{v}_1, ..., (\boldsymbol{v}_k \cdot \boldsymbol{u}) \boldsymbol{v}_k$$

### 5 Linear Maps

**Definition 5.01 -** Linear Map

A map,  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is a linear map if

- i)  $T(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{y}) = T(\boldsymbol{x}) + T(\boldsymbol{y}), \quad \forall \ \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n;$
- ii)  $T(\lambda x) = \lambda T(x), \quad \forall \ x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$

N.B. - If m = n then T is referred to as a linear operator.

**Theorem 5.02 -** Properties of Linear Maps

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map. Then  $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Definiton 5.03 -** Linear Maps as Matrices

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map. Then the associated Matrix is defined as

$$M_T = (t_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$$

with the elements of  $M_T$  defined by

$$t_{ij} = \boldsymbol{e}_i \cdot T(\boldsymbol{e}_i)$$

Theorem 5.04 - Solutions to Linear Maps from Matrices

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map and  $M_T$  be the associated matrix. Then

$$T(\boldsymbol{x}) = M_T \boldsymbol{x}, \quad \forall \ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

#### 5.1 Abstract Properties of Linear Maps

Theorem 5.05 - Relationship between Linear Maps

Let  $S: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  &  $U: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$  be a linear maps and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

i) 
$$(\lambda T)(\boldsymbol{x}) := \lambda T(\boldsymbol{x});$$

ii) 
$$(S+T)(x) = S(x) + T(x);$$

iii) 
$$(U \circ S)(\boldsymbol{x}) = U(S(\boldsymbol{x})).$$

**Definition 5.06 -** *Image & Kernel* 

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map. Then

i) The image of T is defined to be

$$Im(T) := \{ \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m : \exists \ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n st \ T(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{y} \}$$

ii) The kernel of T is defined to be

$$Ket(T) := \{ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : T(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{0} \}$$

#### Theorem 5.07

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map then Im(T) is a linear subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and Ker(T) is a linear subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

#### Remark 5.08

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map. Then

- i) T is surjective if  $Im(T) = \mathbb{R}^m$ ;
- ii) T is injective if  $Ker(T) = \{0\}$ .

#### 5.2 Matrices

**Definition 5.09 -** Linear Maps as Matrices

Let  $S: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  &  $U: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$  be a linear maps and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $M_S, M_T$  &  $M_U$  as the corresponding matrices. Then

i) 
$$M_{\lambda T} = \lambda M_T = (\lambda t_{ij});$$

ii) 
$$M_{S+T} = (s_{ij} + t_{ij}) = M_S + M_T$$
;

iii) 
$$M_{U \circ S} = (r_{ij})$$
 where  $r_{ik} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} s_{ik} t_{jk}$ .

#### 5.3 Rank & Nullity

**Defintion 5.10 -** Rank & Nullity

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear map. Then we define Rank of T by

$$rank(T) := \dim(Im(T))$$

and we define Nullity of T by

$$nullity(T) := dim(Im(T))$$

<u>N.B.</u> - For all linear maps,  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,

$$nullity(T) + rank(T) = n$$

#### Remark 5.11

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear map. Then T is invertible if

- i) rank(T) = n, or
- ii) nullity(T) = 0.

**Theorem 5.12** - Relationship of Rank & Nullity between Linear Maps Let  $S: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  &  $T: \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be linear maps. Then

- i)  $S \circ T = 0$  iff  $Im(T) \subset Ker(S)$ ;
- ii)  $rank(S \circ T) \leq rank(T)$  and  $rank(S \circ T) \leq rank(S)$ ;
- iii)  $nullity(S \circ T) \ge nullity(T)$  and  $nullity(S \circ T) \ge nullity(S) + k n$ ;
- iv) S is invertible then  $rank(S \circ T) = rank(T)$  and  $nullity(S \circ T) = nullity(T)$ .

### 6 Determinants

#### 6.1 Definition & Basic Properties

**Definition 6.01 -** Determinant Function

A determinant function  $d_n: \mathbb{R}^n \times ... \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function which statisfies three conditions:

- i) Multilinear  $d_2(\lambda \boldsymbol{a}_1 + \mu \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{a}_2) = \lambda d_2(\boldsymbol{a}_1, \boldsymbol{a}_2) + \mu(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{a}_2);$
- ii) Antisymmetric  $d_2(a_1, a_2) = -d_2(a_2, a_1);$
- iii) Normalisation  $d_2(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2) = 1$ .

N.B. - Determinant functions only exists for square matrices.

**Theorem 6.02 -** Properties of Determinant

- i)  $det[..., \mathbf{a}_i + \lambda \mathbf{a}_i, ...] = det[..., \mathbf{a}_i, ...] + \lambda det[..., \mathbf{a}_i, ...];$
- ii) If A has two identical columns then det(A) = 0;
- iii) If A has an all zero column then det(A) = 0;
- iv)  $det[...a_{i}...a_{j}...] = det[...(a_{i} + \lambda a_{j})...a_{j}...]$

#### Theorem 6.03

Let  $f_n: \mathbb{R}^n \times ... \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function which is multilinear & Antisymmetric then

$$f_n(A) = C.det(A)$$

where C is a constant such that  $C = f_n(e_1, ..., e_n)$ .

**Theorem 6.04 -** Determinant of a Triangle Matrix

Let  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be a upper triangle matrix, so  $a_{ij} = 0$  if i > j. Then

$$det(A) = a_{11}.a_{22}.....a_{nn}$$

<u>N.B.</u> - The same is true for lower triangle matrices.

 ${\bf Theorem~6.05~-}~{\it Relationship~between~Determinants}$ 

Let  $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  then

$$det(AB) = det(A).det(B)$$

but usually

$$det(A + B) \neq det(A) + det(B)$$

**Theorem 6.06 -** Determinant ℰ Inverses

If det(A) = 0 then  $A^{-1}$  does not exist.

Theorem 6.07 - Leibniz Formula

Let  $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  then the *Leibniz Formula* states that

$$det(A) := \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} sign(\sigma) \prod_{j=1}^n a_{\sigma(j),j}$$

Where:

- $S_n$  is the group of symmetries for a regular n-sided polygons;
- $sign(\sigma)$  is the sign function which returns +1 for even permutations and -1 for odd permutations.

A permutation is even if a even number of permutations (swaps) are required to change the identity permutation to the given permutation,  $\sigma$ .

Remark 6.08 - Determinant of Transpose

Let A be a square matrix, then

$$det(A) = det(A^t)$$