

Linear Algebra & Geometry - Notes

Dom Hutchinson

February 27, 2018

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

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

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

Theorem 1.05

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

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{v}\| &= 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \\ \|\lambda\mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{\lambda^2 v_1^2 + \lambda^2 v_2^2} \\ &= |\lambda| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \\ \|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\| &\leq \|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{w}\| \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

Remark 1.09 - *Angle between vectors in Euclidean Plane*

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

Set θ to be the angle between \mathbf{v} & \mathbf{w} .

Then

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

.

Theorem 1.10 - *Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality*

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

Then

$$|\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}| \leq \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_1 w_1}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} + \frac{v_2 w_2}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{v_1^2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} + \frac{w_1^2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{v_2^2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} + \frac{w_2^2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{v_1^2 + v_2^2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} + \frac{w_1^2 + w_2^2}{\|\mathbf{w}\|^2} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} (1 + 1) \\ &\leq 1 \\ \Rightarrow |v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2| &\leq \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\| \\ |\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}| &\leq \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\| \end{aligned}$$

1.2 Complex Numbers**Definition 1.11** - i

$$\begin{aligned} i^2 &= -1 \\ i &= \sqrt{-1} \end{aligned}$$

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.

Definition 1.13 - *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

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 + z_2 &:= (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) \\ z_1 \cdot z_2 &:= (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) \\ &:= x_1 \cdot x_2 - y_1 \cdot y_2 + i(x_1 \cdot y_2 + x_2 \cdot y_1) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} |z| &:= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ &:= \sqrt{\bar{z}z} \end{aligned}$$

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 diagram.

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

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

Theorem 1.17 - de Moivre's Formula

$$z^n = (\cos\theta + i \cdot \sin\theta)^n = \cos(n\theta) + i \cdot \sin(n\theta)$$

Theorem 1.18 - Euler's Formula

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

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:

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

2 Euclidean Space, \mathbb{R}^n

Definition 2.01 - Euclidean Space

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $\forall \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ with $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ 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

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

And

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

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

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

Theorem 2.05 - Properties of the Dot Product

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

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

Symmetry:

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

Positivity:

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

Definition 2.06 - Orthogonality

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

It is said that $(\mathbf{v}), (\mathbf{w})$ are orthogonal to each other if $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$

N.B. Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other.

Definition 2.07 - The Norm

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

Then

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

Theorem 2.08 - Properties of the Norm

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

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{x}\| &\geq 0 \\ \|\mathbf{x}\| &= 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \\ \|\lambda\mathbf{x}\| &= |\lambda|\|\mathbf{x}\| \\ \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.09 - Dot Product and Norm

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

$$|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

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

Theorem 2.10 - Angle between Vectors

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

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

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) $\forall \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$ then $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \in V$;
- iii) $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ then $\lambda\mathbf{v} \in V$.

Definition 2.12 - Span

Let $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n; k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} := \{\lambda_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k\mathbf{x}_k; \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \leq i \leq k\}$$

Definition 2.13 - Spans are Subspaces

Let $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n; k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\text{span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem 2.14

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

Definition 2.15 - Orthogonal Complement

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

$$V^\perp := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n; \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0 \forall \mathbf{y} \in V\}$$

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

Theorem 2.16 - Relationship of Subspaces

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

$$V \cap W \text{ is a subspace.}$$

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

Definition 2.17 - Direct Sum

Let V_1, V_2, W be subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n . 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 - $x = 3, y = x + 3, z = 5x - 2y$

Definition 3.02 - Systems of Linear Equations

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

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

N.B. If $b = 0$ then $S(\mathbf{a}, 0)$ 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 $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, \dots, n$.

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

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 $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$ then $\mathbf{x}^t = (x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n)$

Definition 3.06 - Vector-Matrix Multiplication

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

$$\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} \text{ with } y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j$$

Theorem 3.07 - Operations on Matrices with Vectors

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

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

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

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

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 $C \in M_{l,m}$

$$\text{i) } C(A + B) = CA + CB.$$

$$\text{ii) } (A + B)C = AC + BC.$$

$$\text{iii) Let } D \in M_{m,n}, E \in M_{n,l} \text{ \& } F \in M_{l,k} \text{ then}$$

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

N.B. $AB \neq BA$

Definition 3.10 - Types of Matrix

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

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

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

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

Definition 3.11 - Transposed Matrices

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

$$A^t := (a_{ji})$$

Theorem 3.12 - Transpose Matrix Multiplication

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

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

Theorem 3.10 - Transposing Multiplied Matrices

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

3.3 Structure of Set of Solutions**Definition 3.13 - Set of Solutions**

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

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

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 $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $A\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b}$, then

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

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.

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

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 equation 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 $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ 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 certain operations that can be performed on an *Augmented Matrix* which do not alter the solutions:

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

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 $x + y + 2z = 9, 2x + 4y - 3z = 1, 3x + 6y - 5z = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Augmented Matrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{By EROS} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & -11 & 27 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 6 & 19 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & -10 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &=> \underline{x = 1, y = 2, z = 3} \end{aligned}$$

3.5 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

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

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

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}

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

Theorem 3.27 - Inverse of a 2×2 Matrix

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

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

4 Linear Independence, Bases & Dimensions

4.1 Linear Independence & Dependence

Definition 4.01 - Linear Independence & Dependence

Vectors, $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$, are said to be *linearly dependent* if there exists non-zero real numbers, $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ such that

$$\lambda_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \lambda_n \cdot \mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

N.B. - If this is only true if $\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_n = 0$ 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.

4.2 Bases & Dimensions

Definition 4.03 - Basis

A *basis* is a set of vectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$ such that

- i) $V = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$;
- ii) $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ 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 - $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ are the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem 4.05 - Basis of a Linear Subspace

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

$$\mathbf{v} = \lambda_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_n \cdot \mathbf{v}_n$$

Theorem 4.06 - Linear Independence and Bases

Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear subspace with basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$. Suppose $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_k \in V$ 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 $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ as its basis. This basis is an *orthogonal basis* if it satisfies:

$$\text{i) } \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j;$$

$$\text{ii) } \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, k.$$

N.B. - This can be generalised to $\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_k = \delta_{ij}$ 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 $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$.

Then for all $\mathbf{u} \in V$

$$\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, (\mathbf{v}_k \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{v}_k$$