Elementary Linear Algebra Reference

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Vectors

• Magnitude: For a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$, the norm (magnitude) of x is

$$||x|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

• Triangle inequality: For vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have the inequality

$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$

- Properties of Vector Operations: Let \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} be vectors in a plane. Let r and s be scalars.
 - 1. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$ (Commutative property)
 - 2. $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ (Associative property)
 - 3. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{u}$ (Additive identity property)
 - 4. $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$ (Additive inverse property)
 - 5. $r(s\mathbf{u}) = (rs)\mathbf{u}$ (Associativity of scalar multiplication)
 - 6. $(r+s)\mathbf{u} = r\mathbf{u} + s\mathbf{u}$ (Distributive property)
 - 7. $r(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = r\mathbf{u} + r\mathbf{v}$ (Distributive property)
 - 8. $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$, $0\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ (Identity and zero properties)
- Finding components of a vector given the magnitude and the angle θ : If $v\in\mathbb{R}^2,\ v=\binom{x}{y},$ then

$$x = \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$
$$y = \|\vec{v}\| \sin \theta.$$

• Unit vector: A unit vector is a vector with magnitude 1. For any nonzero vector \vec{v} , we can use scalar multiplication to find a unit vector \vec{u} that has the same direction as \vec{v} :. To do this, we multiply the vector by the reciprocal of its magnitude:

$$\vec{u} = \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v}.$$

- Properties of the dot product: Let \vec{u} , \vec{v} , and \vec{w} be vectors, and let c be a scalar.
 - 1. Commutative property: $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$
 - 2. Distributive property: $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$
 - 3. Associative property of scalar multiplication: $(c\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) = (c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u} \cdot (c\vec{v})$
 - 4. Property of magnitude: $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = ||\vec{v}||^2$
- Evaluating a dot product: The dot product of two vectors is the product of the magnitude of each vector and the cosine of the angle between them:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\| \cdot \cos \theta.$$

• Find the measure of the angle between two nonzero vectors:

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \, \|\vec{v}\|}.$$

Note: We are considering $0 \le \theta \le \pi$

Vector Projection: The vector projection of **v** onto **u** has the same initial point as \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} and the same direction as \mathbf{u} , and represents the component of \mathbf{v} that acts in the direction of \mathbf{u} :.

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v} = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \vec{u}.$$

We say "The vector projection of \vec{v} onto \vec{u} "

• Scalar projection notation: This is the length of the vector projection and is denoted

$$\|\operatorname{proj}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v}\| = \operatorname{comp}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v} = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\|}.$$

- Decompose some vector \vec{v} into orthogonal components such that one of the component vectors has the same direction as \vec{u} :
 - First, we compute $\vec{p} = \text{proj}_{\vec{v}} \vec{v}$
 - Then, we define $\vec{q} = \vec{v} \vec{p}$
 - Check that \vec{q} and \vec{p} are orthogonal by finding $\vec{q} \cdot \vec{p}$
- Two vectors are orthogonal if:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0.$$

- Two vectors are parallel if: Two vectors v, u are parallel if there exists some scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\alpha u = v$
 - If $\alpha > 0$, then v points in the same direction as u
 - If $\alpha < 0$, then v points in the opposite direction of u
- Scalar projection componets of a vector:

$$\vec{v} = \langle \operatorname{comp}_{\hat{i}} \vec{v}, \operatorname{comp}_{\hat{i}} \vec{v}, \operatorname{comp}_{\hat{k}} \vec{v} \rangle.$$

• The Cross Product: produces a vector perpendicular to both vectors involved in the multiplication

Let $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$. Then, the cross product $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ is vector

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)\mathbf{i} - (u_1v_3 - u_3v_1)\mathbf{j} + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)\mathbf{k}$$

= $\langle u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, -(u_1v_3 - u_3v_1), u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 \rangle$..

Note: The cross product only works in \mathbb{R}^3 , additionally, we measure the angle between \vec{u} and \vec{v} in $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$ from \vec{u} to \vec{v}

• Cross product using matrix and determinant, suppose we have vectors \vec{u} und \vec{v} :. Then we can express them in matrix form as

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ u_x & u_y & u_z \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we can find the determinant of this matrix to compute the cross product

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = (u_y v_z - u_z v_y)\hat{i} - (u_x v_z - u_z v_x)\hat{k} + (u_x v_y - u_y v_x)\hat{j}.$$

- Properties of the Cross Product: Let \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} be vectors in space, and let c be a scalar.
 - 1. Anticommutative property: $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u})$
 - 2. Distributive property: $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w}$
 - 3. Multiplication by a constant: $c(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = (c\mathbf{u}) \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \times (c\mathbf{v})$
 - 4. Cross product of the zero vector: $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$
 - 5. Cross product of a vector with itself: $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
 - 6. Scalar triple product: $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- Magnitude of the Cross Product: Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be vectors, and let θ be the angle between them. Then, $\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \cdot \sin \theta$.
- Triple Scalar Product:

The triple scalar product of vectors \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} is $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})$.

The triple scalar product is the determinant of the 3×3 matrix formed by the components of the vectors

- triple scalar product identities:
 - (a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = -\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v})$
 - (b) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{w} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}))$
- The zero vector is considered to be parallel to all vectors:
- vector equation of a line:

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}.$$

Where \mathbf{v} is the direction vector (vector parallel to the line), t is some scalar, and \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{r}_0 are position vectors

• Parametric and Symmetric Equations of a Line: A line L parallel to vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ and passing through point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ can be described by the following parametric equations:

$$x = x_0 + ta$$
, $y = y_0 + tb$, and $z = z_0 + tc$.

If the constants a, b, and c are all nonzero, then L can be described by the symmetric equation of the line:

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}.$$

Note: The parametric equations of a line are not unique. Using a different parallel vector or a different point on the line leads to a different, equivalent representation. Each set of parametric equations leads to a related set of symmetric equations, so it follows that a symmetric equation of a line is not unique either.

• Vector equation of a line reworked: Suppose we have some line, with points $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$, $Q(x_1, y_1, z_1)$. Where $\mathbf{p} = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{Q} = \langle x_1, y_1, z_1 \rangle$ are the correponding position vectors. Suppose we also have $\mathbf{r} := \langle x, y, z \rangle$. Then our vector equation for a line becomes

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{p} + t \left(\vec{PQ} \right).$$

By properties of vectors, we get the vector equation of a line passing through points P and Q to be

$$\mathbf{r} = (1 - t)\mathbf{p} + t\mathbf{q}.$$

Solutions to linear systems

- Possible solutions to a linear system of two unknowns: The linear system can have a unique solution, no solution, or infinitely many solutions.
- Does the solution set form a line, plane, hyperplane, or something else?: The formation of the solution set depends on the number of free variables,
 - No free variables (one unique solution): Intersects at a point
 - One free variable (Uncountable solutions): Solution set is a line (1-dimensional subspace)
 - Two free variable (Uncountable solutions): Solution set forms a plane (2-dimensional subspace)
 - Three free variable (Uncountable solutions): Solution set is a three dimensional subspace (In \mathbb{R}^3 it would be the whole space)
 - k free variables: Solution set is a k-dimensional subspace in \mathbb{R}^n

Note: A k-dimensional subspace in \mathbb{R}^n means that the solution set spans a k-dimensional space within the n-dimensional ambient space \mathbb{R}^n .

• Determine if three planes intersect at a unique point: For this, we find all three normal vectors $\vec{\mathbf{n}}_1$, $\vec{\mathbf{n}}_2$, and $\vec{\mathbf{n}}_3$. Then we find the triple scalar product, that is

$$\vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot (\vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \times \vec{\mathbf{n}}_3).$$

If this value is non-zero, we have intersection at a unique point. If the value is zero, we either have no intersection, or intersection at a line.

Linearity

- The properties of linear equations: A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ representing a linear equation is linear, meaning it satisfies the following properties for all vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and all scalars $c \in \mathbb{R}$:
 - Additivity: $f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$
 - Homogeneity of Degree 1: $f(c\mathbf{x}) = cf(\mathbf{x})$

It follows from this that $f(c\mathbf{x})$, when c=0 implies $f(0\mathbf{x})=0$ $f(\mathbf{x})=0$. Thus, we add the property

- Scale by zero: f(0) = 0

These properties define a linear function and imply that the graph of a linear equation is a straight line (in 2D) or a plane (in 3D).

Matrix algebra

- Laws of matrix addition:
 - Addition with the zero matrix: 0 + A = A
 - Communitive law for matrix addition: A + B = B + A
 - Associativity of matrix addition: (A + B) + C = A + (B + C)
- Laws of matrix subtraction:
 - -A 0 = A
 - -A-A=0
 - -B-A = (-1)(A-B)
- Matrix difference (subtraction): We can give a definition to the subtraction operator by just defining it as using matrix addition and multiplication by a scalar A B = A + (-1B)
- Note on matrix multiplication: Matrix multiplication is general not communitive, it can be, but it isn't always. Also, in the real numbers, we know for

$$ab = 0.$$

Then either a is zero, b is zero, or they are both zero. This is not always the case with matrix multiplication, it is possible to multiply two non-zero matrices and get the zero matrix as a result.

- Properties of matrix multiplication:
 - 1. If A, B, and C are matrices of the appropriate sizes, then

$$A(BC) = (AB)C.$$

2. If A, B, and C are matrices of the appropriate sizes, then

$$(A+B)C = AC + BC.$$

3. If A, B, and C are matrices of the appropriate sizes, then

$$C(A+B) = CA + CB$$
.

- Properties of Scalar Multiplication: If r and s are real numbers and A and B are matrices of the appropriate sizes, then
 - 1. r(sA) = (rs)A
 - 2. (r+s)A = rA + sA
 - 3. r(A + B) = rA + rB
 - 4. A(rB) = r(AB) = (rA)B
- Note on cancellation: If a, b, and c are real numbers for which ab = ac and $a \neq 0$, it follows that b = c. That is, we can cancel out the nonzero factor a. However, the cancellation law does not hold for matrices.
- Differences between matrix multiplication and multiplication of real numbers: We summarize some of the differences between matrix multiplication and the multiplication of real numbers as follows: For matrices A, B, and C of the appropriate sizes.
 - 1. AB need not equal BA.
 - 2. AB may be the zero matrix with $A \neq 0$ and $B \neq 0$.
 - 3. AB may equal AC with $B \neq C$.

Transpose

• Squared magnitude of a vector:

$$\|x\|^2 = x^\top x$$

• Transpose of product of matrices:

$$(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top}A^{\top}$$

Consequence:

$$(ABC)^{\top} = C^{\top}(AB)^{\top} = C^{\top}B^{\top}A^{\top}$$

- Properties of Transpose: If r is a scalar and A and B are matrices of the appropriate sizes, then
 - 1. $(A^T)^T = A$
 - 2. $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$
 - $3. \ (AB)^T = B^T A^T$
 - $4. \ (rA)^T = rA^T$

Linear maps

• Composition: Let $L: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, $v \to L(v)$, and $K: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^p$, $L(v) \to K(L(v))$. We see that $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, and $K \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$.

The composition is

$$K(L(v)) = (K \circ L)(v) = (KL)(v)$$

• 2D rotation map:

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

• 3D rotation, but keeping one variable constant, ie rotating about one of the coordinate axis.

All there cases below will require a 3×3 matrix

- Rotation about the x-axis (rotation in the yz-plane):

$$R_x(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & \sin() & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Rotation about the y-axis (rotation in the xz-plane)

$$R_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & 0 & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Rotation about the z-axis (rotation in the xy-plane)

$$R_z(\theta) \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0\\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notes on consecutive rotations: Two consecutive rotations about different axises is **not** communitive, however if you rotation about the same axis it is.

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