

# Linear Algebra Notes

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## 1 Vectors and Spaces

### 1.1 Parametric representations of lines

**Example 1.1.** Suppose that  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are lines in the plane, that the x-intercepts of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are 5 and -1, respectively, and that the respective y-intercepts are 5 and 1. Find the point of intersection of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .

**Solution 1.1.** Pick two points on  $L_1$ , i.e.  $(5, 0)$  and  $(0, 5)$ . Let  $\mathbf{a} = \langle 5, 0 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle 0, 5 \rangle$ . Now,  $L_1$  can be represented by the following:

$$\begin{aligned} L_1 &= \{(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})t + \mathbf{b} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 5t \\ -5t + 5 \end{bmatrix} \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

The  $(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})t$  represents  $L_1$  parameterized through the origin, so we apply a translation of  $\mathbf{a}$  or  $\mathbf{b}$ . Similarly, let  $\mathbf{c} = \langle -1, 0 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{d} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ .

$$\begin{aligned} L_2 &= \{(\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{d})s + \mathbf{d} \mid s \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -s \\ -s + 1 \end{bmatrix} \mid s \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

The point of intersection is where  $L_{1x} = L_{2x}$  and  $L_{1y} = L_{2y}$ , allowing us to define a system of equations.

$$\begin{aligned} 5t &= -s & -5t + 5 &= -s + 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} s &= -2 \\ x &= -s = 2 \\ y &= -s + 1 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

The point of intersection is  $(2, 3)$ . ■

## 1.2 Linear dependence

**Definition 1.1** (Linear combination). Let  $V = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$  where  $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . A *linear combination* of  $V$  is defined to be  $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{v}_k$  where  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 1.2** (Linearly dependent). Let  $V = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$  where  $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .  $V$  is *linearly dependent* if and only if  $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$  where  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and there exists at least one  $c_i$  such that  $c_i \neq 0$ . In other words,  $V$  is *linearly independent* if and only if  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k = 0$  is the only solution.

**Definition 1.3** (Span). Given a set  $S$  of vectors, the *span* of  $S$ , denoted  $\text{span}(S)$ , is the set of all linear combinations of  $S$ .

**Example 1.2.** Let  $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ . Is  $S$  linearly dependent?

**Solution 1.2.**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} c_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} c_2 + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} c_3 = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 + 2c_2 - c_3 &= 0 \\ -c_1 + c_2 &= 0 \\ 2c_1 + 3c_2 + 2c_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Solving this system, we find that the only solution is  $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = 0$ . Thus,  $S$  is linearly independent. ■

We can go further by saying that the span of  $S$  is  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . This can be proven by setting the linear combination of  $S$  to an arbitrary 3-dimensional vector and isolating for the scalars  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $c_3$ , which tells us that any given vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  can be represented in a specific linear combination of  $S$ . This can be thought of intuitively as well: if  $S$  is linearly independent, each vector of  $S$  introduces new directionality; there is no vector in  $S$  that can be defined as a linear combination of the other vectors.

### 1.3 Linear subspaces

**Definition 1.4** (Linear subspace). A set of vectors  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined to be a linear/vector *subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if it contains  $\mathbf{0}$ , it is closed under scalar multiplication, and it is closed under addition:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{0} &\in V \\ \forall c \in \mathbb{R}, c\mathbf{v} &\in V \\ \forall \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V, \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 &\in V\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.1.** Let  $V = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ . It holds true that  $\text{span}(V)$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof.* If  $\text{span}(V)$  is a valid linear subspace, it must contain the zero vector, it must be closed under scalar multiplication, and it must be closed under addition.

By definition, the span of  $V$  is the set of all linear combinations of  $V$ :

$$\text{span}(V) = \{c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n \mid \forall c_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

1. Inclusion of zero vector:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Let } c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n &= 0. \\ \implies c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n &= \mathbf{0} \\ \implies \mathbf{0} &\in \text{span}(V)\end{aligned}$$

2. Closure under scalar multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Let } \mathbf{a} &\in \text{span}(V). \\ \iff c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n &= \mathbf{a} \\ d(c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n) &= d\mathbf{a} \text{ where } d \in \mathbb{R} \\ \implies dc_1\mathbf{v}_1 + dc_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + dc_n\mathbf{v}_n &= d\mathbf{a}\end{aligned}$$

$dc_i$  is just a scalar, meaning  $d\mathbf{a}$  is another linear combination of  $V$ :

$$d\mathbf{a} \in \text{span}(V)$$

3. Closure under addition:

Let  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \text{span}(V)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n &= \mathbf{a} \\ d_1\mathbf{v}_1 + d_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{v}_n &= \mathbf{b} \\ (c_1 + d_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + (c_2 + d_2)\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + (c_n + d_n)\mathbf{v}_n &= \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \end{aligned}$$

Again,  $(c_i + d_i)$  is just a scalar, meaning  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$  is another linear combination of  $V$ :

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \in \text{span}(V)$$

■

**Definition 1.5** (Basis). Let  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  be linearly independent. It follows that  $S$  is a *basis* for the subspace  $V = \text{span}(S)$ .

**Lemma 1.1.** Any vector in a subspace  $V$  is the result of a unique linear combination of some basis for  $V$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  be a basis for the subspace  $V$ . Suppose  $\mathbf{a} \in V$ .

$$\mathbf{a} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n \text{ where } c_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

Assume that  $\mathbf{a}$  can be represented by another linear combination of  $S$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} &= d_1\mathbf{v}_1 + d_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{v}_n \text{ for some } d_j \neq c_j \\ \mathbf{0} &= (c_1 - d_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + (c_2 - d_2)\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + (c_n - d_n)\mathbf{v}_n \end{aligned}$$

$S$  is linearly independent so the scalar  $(c_i - d_i)$  must be zero for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . This implies that  $c_i = d_i$  which contradicts the statement that some  $d_j \neq c_j$ . This further implies that  $\mathbf{a}$  cannot be represented by more than one linear combination of  $S$ . ■

## 1.4 Dot product

**Definition 1.6.** The *dot product* of two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , denoted  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ , is defined to be  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \cdots + a_nb_n$ .

**Lemma 1.2.**  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \|\mathbf{a}\|^2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{a}\| &= \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2} \\ \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 &= |a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2| \\ &= a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2 \\ &= \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} \end{aligned}$$

■

### 1.4.1 Properties

Dot products are commutative ( $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$ ), distributive ( $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$ ), and associative with scalars ( $c(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = (c\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot (c\mathbf{b})$ ). These properties can be easily proven with the definition of the dot product.

### 1.4.2 Geometric representation

The dot product of two vectors can also be represented in relation to the angle between them,  $\theta$ , by the following:  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos(\theta)$ .

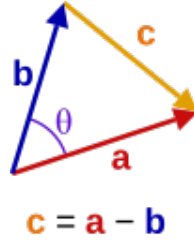


Figure 1: The angle  $\theta$  in the triangle constructed by  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \neq 0$ . Using the Law of Cosines,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\|^2 &= \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos(\theta) \\ \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 - 2(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) + \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 &= \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos(\theta) \\ -2(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) &= -2\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos(\theta) \\ \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} &= \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

■

### 1.4.3 Interpretation

The geometric representation makes it easy to recognize that  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$  is maximized when  $\theta = 0^\circ$ , which is when  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are collinear in the same direction. On the other hand,  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$  is minimized when  $\theta = 180^\circ$ , which is when  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are collinear in opposite directions. When  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are perpendicular to each other (i.e.  $\theta = 90^\circ$ ),  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ . This means that we can interpret the dot product as a measure of collinearity.

**Definition 1.7** (Orthogonal). Vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are *orthogonal* to each other if and only if  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ .

### 1.4.4 Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

**Lemma 1.3.** For some scalar  $c \geq 0$  and some vector  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $c\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{c}\mathbf{a}\|$ .

*Proof.* Let  $c \geq 0, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} c\|\mathbf{a}\| &= c\sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2} \\ &= \sqrt{c^2(a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2)} \\ &= \sqrt{(ca_1)^2 + (ca_2)^2 + \cdots + (ca_n)^2} \\ &= \|\mathbf{ca}\| \end{aligned}$$

■

**Theorem 1.2** (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality). *If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| \geq |\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}|$ . Furthermore,  $\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| = |\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}|$  if and only if  $\mathbf{y} = c\mathbf{x}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be nonzero. Let  $p(t) = \|\mathbf{ty} - \mathbf{x}\|^2$ . Note that  $p(t) \geq 0$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} p(t) &= (\mathbf{ty} - \mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{ty} - \mathbf{x}) \\ &= t^2\|\mathbf{y}\|^2 - 2t(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) + \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $a = \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$ . Let  $b = 2(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})$ . Let  $c = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$ . Note that  $a \neq 0$  because  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} p(t) &= at^2 - bt + c \geq 0 \\ p\left(\frac{b}{2a}\right) &= a\left(\frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 - b\left(\frac{b}{2a}\right) + c \\ &= \frac{b^2}{4a} - \frac{b^2}{2a} + c \\ &= -\frac{b^2}{4a} + c \geq 0 \\ \implies c &\geq \frac{b^2}{4a} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting back  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 &\geq \frac{4(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})^2}{4\|\mathbf{y}\|^2} \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|^2\|\mathbf{y}\|^2 &\geq (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})^2 \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| &\geq |\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \end{aligned}$$

Consider the case of the equality:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| &= |\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| &= \|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\| \cos(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

This can be true if and only if  $\theta = 0^\circ$  or  $\theta = 180^\circ$ , meaning  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  must be collinear with each other.

While we initially assumed that  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  were nonzero, it is easy to see that the inequality still holds when  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ .

■

**Theorem 1.3** (Triangle inequality). *If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$ . This inequality becomes an equality if and only if  $\mathbf{y} = c\mathbf{x}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $c \geq 0$ . In other words, the sum of the lengths of two sides of a triangle is always greater than the length of its third side.*

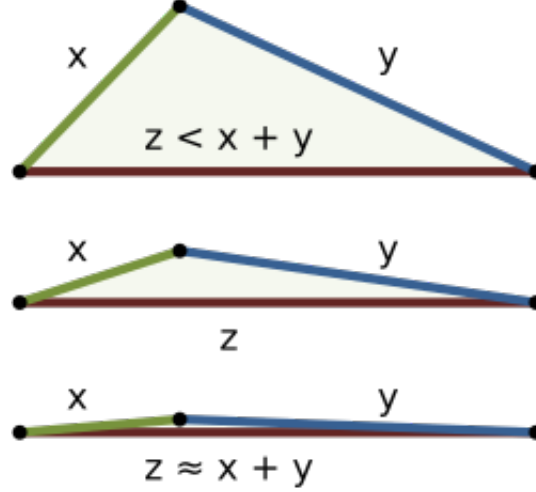


Figure 2: As two sides of a triangle get closer to being collinear, the sum of their lengths gets closer to the length of the third side.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality (Theorem 1.2),

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

Note that  $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} \geq 0$ . Else,  $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| > \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .

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

Now, consider the following:

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$$

Since  $\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| \geq \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ , we can create the inequality  $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$ . Note that this inequality becomes an equality if and only if  $\mathbf{y} = c\mathbf{x}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $c > 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 \\ \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 &\leq (\|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|)^2 \\ \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\| \end{aligned}$$

■

## 1.5 Cross product

**Definition 1.8.** The *cross product* of two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , denoted  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ , is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3 \\ a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

*Remark.* A way to easily remember how to calculate the cross product is by writing it as a determinant (covered in Section ??):

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$