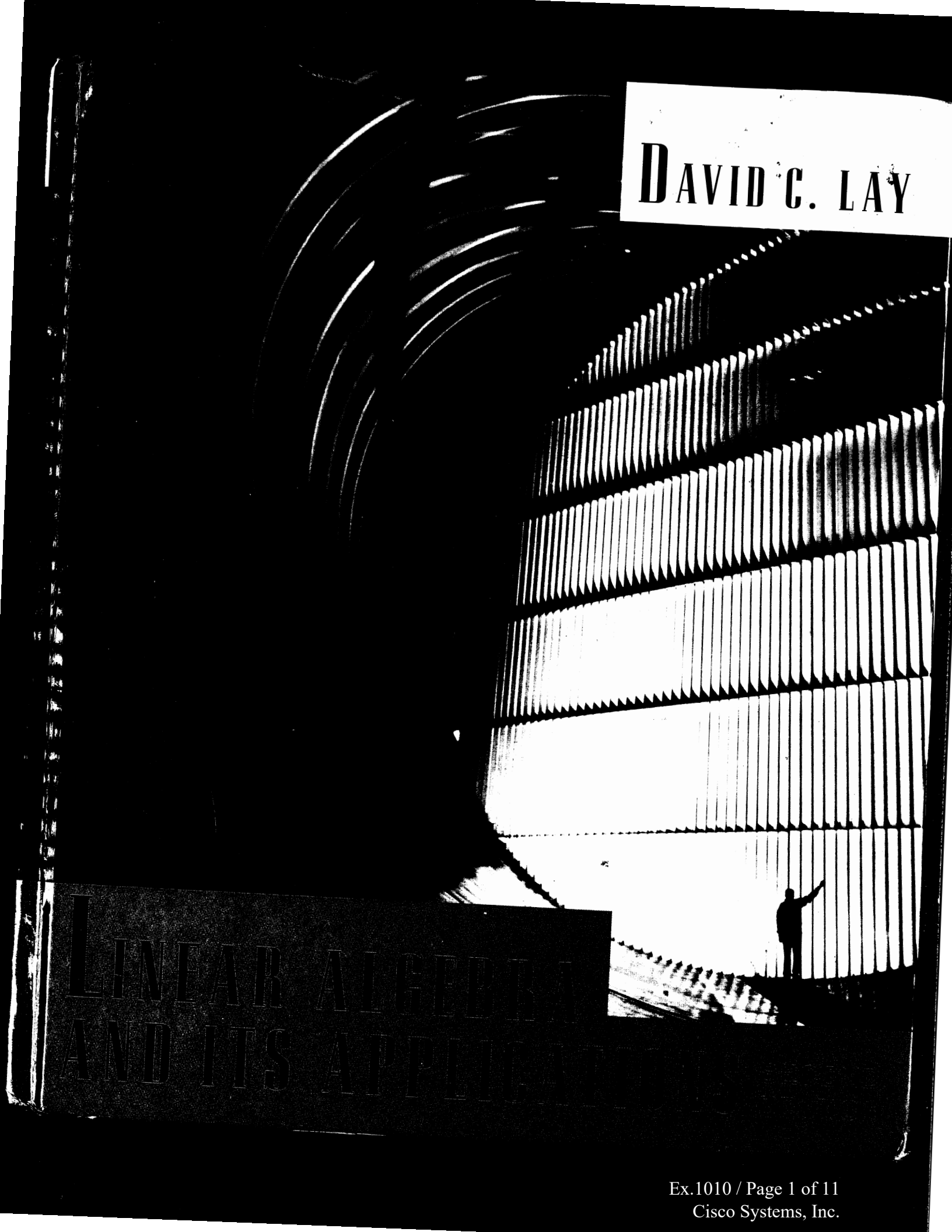




DAVID C. LAY

LINEAR ALGEBRA
AND ITS APPLICATIONS

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The equations

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 + 2 = x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = 2(\sqrt{6} - x_1) + x_3$$

are both linear because they can be rearranged algebraically as in equation (1):

$$3x_1 - 5x_2 = -2 \quad \text{and} \quad 2x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = 2\sqrt{6}$$

The equations

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 = x_1x_2 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = 2\sqrt{x_1} - 6$$

are not linear because of the presence of x_1x_2 in the first equation and $\sqrt{x_1}$ in the second.

A **system of linear equations** (or a **linear system**) is a collection of one or more linear equations involving the same variables, say, $x_1, \dots, x_n$. An example is

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - x_2 + 1.5x_3 &= 8 \\ x_1 - 4x_3 &= -7 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

A **solution** of the system is a list $(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)$ of numbers that makes each equation a true statement when the values $s_1, \dots, s_n$ are substituted for $x_1, \dots, x_n$, respectively. For instance, $(5, 6.5, 3)$ is a solution of system (2) because, when these values are substituted in (2) for x_1, x_2, x_3 , respectively, the equations simplify to $8 = 8$ and $-7 = -7$.

The set of all possible solutions is called the **solution set** of the linear system. Two linear systems are called **equivalent** if they have the same solution set. That is, each solution of the first system is a solution of the second system, and each solution of the second system is a solution of the first.

Finding the solution set of a system of two linear equations in two variables is easy because it amounts to finding the intersection of two lines. A typical problem is

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 &= -1 \\ -x_1 + 3x_2 &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

The graphs of these equations are lines, which we denote by l_1 and l_2 . A pair of numbers (x_1, x_2) satisfies *both* equations in the system if and only if the point (x_1, x_2) lies on both l_1 and l_2 . In the system above, the solution is the single point $(3, 2)$, as you can easily verify. See Fig. 1.

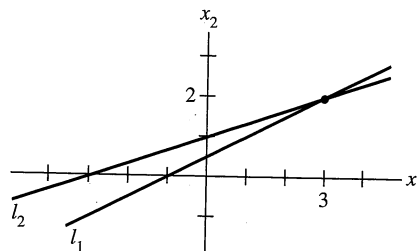


FIGURE 1 Exactly one solution.

Of course, two lines need not intersect in a single point—they could be parallel, or they could coincide and hence “intersect” at every point on the line. Figure 2 shows the graphs that correspond to the following systems:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(a)} & \begin{array}{l} x_1 - 2x_2 = -1 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 = 3 \end{array} \\ \text{(b)} & \begin{array}{l} x_1 - 2x_2 = -1 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 = 1 \end{array} \end{array}$$

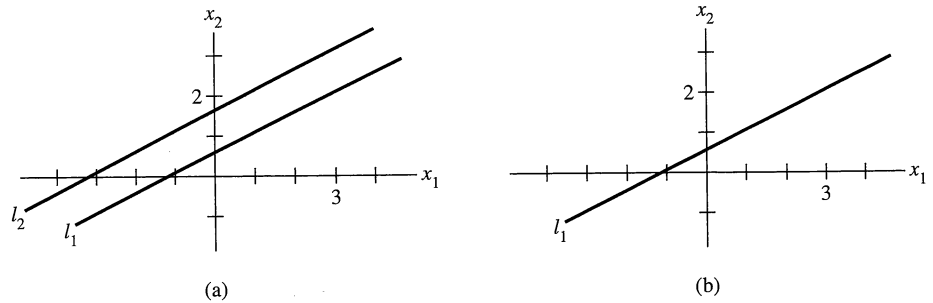


FIGURE 2 (a) No solution. (b) Infinitely many solutions.

Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the following general fact about linear systems, to be verified in Section 1.2.

A system of linear equations has either:

1. no solution, or
2. exactly one solution, or
3. infinitely many solutions.

We say that a linear system is **consistent** if it has either one solution or infinitely many solutions; a system is **inconsistent** if it has no solution.

Matrix Notation

The essential information of a linear system can be recorded compactly in a rectangular array called a **matrix**. Given the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 & = & 0 \\ 2x_2 - 8x_3 & = & 8 \\ -4x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 & = & -9 \end{array} \quad (3)$$

with the coefficients of each variable aligned in columns, the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -8 \\ -4 & 5 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the **coefficient matrix** (or **matrix of coefficients**) of the system (3), and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -8 & 8 \\ -4 & 5 & 9 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

is called the **augmented matrix** of the system. (The second row here contains a zero because the second equation could be written as $0 \cdot x_1 + 2x_2 - 8x_3 = 8$.)

An augmented matrix of a system consists of the coefficient matrix with an added column containing the constants from the right sides of the equations.

The **size** of a matrix tells how many rows and columns it has. The augmented matrix (4) above has 3 rows and 4 columns and is called a 3×4 (read “3 by 4”) matrix. If m and n are positive integers, an $m \times n$ **matrix** is a rectangular array of numbers with m rows and n columns. (The number of rows always comes first.) Matrix notation will simplify the calculations in the examples that follow.

Solving a Linear System

This section and the next describe an algorithm or a systematic procedure for solving linear systems. The basic strategy is *to replace one system with an equivalent system (i.e., one with the same solution set) that is easier to solve.*

Roughly speaking, we use the x_1 term in the first equation of a system to eliminate the x_1 terms in the other equations. Then we use the x_2 term in the second equation to eliminate the x_2 terms in the other equations, and so on, until we finally obtain a very simple equivalent system of equations.

Three basic operations are used to simplify a linear system: Replace one equation by the sum of itself and a multiple of another equation, interchange two equations, and multiply all the terms in an equation by a nonzero constant. After the first example, we will see why these three operations do not change the solution set of the system.

EXAMPLE 1 Solve system (3).

Solution We perform the elimination procedure with and without matrix notation, and place the results side by side for comparison:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 & = & 0 \\ 2x_2 - 8x_3 & = & 8 \\ -4x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 & = & -9 \end{array} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -8 & 8 \\ -4 & 5 & 9 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$$

We want to keep x_1 in the first equation and eliminate it from the other equations. To do so, add 4 times equation 1 to equation 3. After some practice, the following calculation is usually performed mentally:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 4 \cdot [\text{equation 1}]: & 4x_1 - 8x_2 + 4x_3 & = 0 \\ + [\text{equation 3}]: & -4x_1 + 5x_2 + 9x_3 & = -9 \\ \hline [\text{new equation 3}]: & -3x_2 + 13x_3 & = -9 \end{array}$$

The basic variables are x_1 and x_2 , and the general solution is

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = 9 + 2x_3 \\ x_2 = 3 - x_3 \\ x_3 \text{ is free} \end{cases}$$

Note: It is essential that the general solution describe each variable, with any parameters clearly identified. The following statement does *not* describe the solution:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = 9 + 2x_3 \\ x_2 = 3 - x_3 \\ x_3 = 3 - x_2 \end{cases} \quad \text{Incorrect solution}$$

This description implies that x_2 and x_3 are *both* free, which certainly is not the case.

2. When we row reduce the system's augmented matrix, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 4 & 5 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 & -6 & 8 & 2 \end{bmatrix} &\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

This echelon matrix shows that the system is *inconsistent*, because its rightmost column is a pivot column; the third row corresponds to the equation $0 = 5$. There is no need to perform any more row operations. Note that the presence of the free variables in this problem is irrelevant because the system is inconsistent.

1.3 Vector Equations

Important properties of linear systems can be described with the concept and notation of vectors. This section connects equations involving vectors to ordinary systems of equations. The term *vector* appears in a variety of mathematical and physical contexts, which we will discuss in Chapter 4, "Vector Spaces." Until then, we will use *vector* to mean *a list of numbers*. This simple idea enables us to get to interesting and important applications as quickly as possible.

Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$

A matrix with only one column is called a **column vector**, or simply a **vector**. Examples of vectors with two entries are

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} .2 \\ .3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where w_1 and w_2 are any real numbers. The set of all vectors with two entries is denoted by $\mathbb{R}^2$ (read “r-two”). The $\mathbb{R}$ stands for the real numbers that appear as entries in the vectors, and the exponent 2 indicates that the vectors each contain two entries.¹

Two vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$ are **equal** if and only if their corresponding entries are equal. Thus $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ are *not* equal. We say that vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$ are *ordered pairs* of real numbers.

Given two vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$, their **sum** is the vector $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ obtained by adding corresponding entries of $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$. For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+2 \\ -2+5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Given a vector $\mathbf{u}$ and a real number c , the **scalar multiple** of $\mathbf{u}$ by c is the vector $c\mathbf{u}$ obtained by multiplying each entry in $\mathbf{u}$ by c . For instance,

$$\text{if } \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } c = 5, \quad \text{then } c\mathbf{u} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

The number c in $c\mathbf{u}$ is called a **scalar**; it is written in lightface type to distinguish it from the boldface vector $\mathbf{u}$.

The operations of scalar multiplication and vector addition can be combined, as in the following example.

EXAMPLE 1 Given $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, find $4\mathbf{u}$, $(-3)\mathbf{v}$, and $4\mathbf{u} + (-3)\mathbf{v}$.

Solution

$$4\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (-3)\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$4\mathbf{u} + (-3)\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sometimes for convenience (and also to save space), we write a column vector such as $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ in the form $(3, -1)$. In this case, we use parentheses and a comma to distinguish the vector $(3, -1)$ from the 1×2 row matrix $[3 \ -1]$, written with brackets

¹Most of the text concerns vectors and matrices that have only real entries. However, all definitions and theorems in Chapters 1–5, and in most of the rest of the text, remain valid if the entries are complex numbers. Complex vectors and matrices arise naturally, for example, in electrical engineering and physics.

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Take arbitrary vectors $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, and compute

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} &= (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) && \text{Definition of vector addition} \\ &= (v_1 + u_1, \dots, v_n + u_n) && \text{Commutativity of addition in } \mathbb{R} \\ &= \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} && \text{Definition of vector addition}\end{aligned}$$

2. The vector $\mathbf{y}$ belongs to $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ if and only if there exist scalars x_1, x_2, x_3 such that

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -4 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 3 \\ h \end{bmatrix}$$

This vector equation is equivalent to a system of three linear equations in three unknowns. If we row reduce the augmented matrix for this system, we find that

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 5 & -3 & -4 \\ -1 & -4 & 1 & 3 \\ -2 & -7 & 0 & h \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 5 & -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -6 & h-8 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 5 & -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & h-5 \end{array} \right]$$

The system is consistent if and only if there is no pivot in the fourth column. That is, $h - 5$ must be 0. So $\mathbf{y}$ is in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ if and only if $h = 5$.

Remember: The presence of a free variable in a system does not guarantee that the system is consistent.

1.4 The Matrix Equation $Ax = b$

A fundamental idea in linear algebra is to view a linear combination of vectors as the product of a matrix and a vector. The following definition will permit us to rephrase some of the concepts of Section 1.3 in new ways.

DEFINITION

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, with columns $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$, and if $\mathbf{x}$ is in $\mathbb{R}^n$, then the **product of A and $\mathbf{x}$** , denoted by $A\mathbf{x}$, is the **linear combination of the columns of A using the corresponding entries in $\mathbf{x}$ as weights**, that is,

$$A\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + x_2\mathbf{a}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n$$

Note that $A\mathbf{x}$ is defined only if the number of columns of A equals the number of entries in $\mathbf{x}$.

Computation of $A\mathbf{x}$

The calculations in Example 1 were based on the definition of the product of a matrix A and a vector $\mathbf{x}$. The following simple example will lead to a more efficient method for calculating the entries in $A\mathbf{x}$ when working problems by hand.

EXAMPLE 4 Compute $A\mathbf{x}$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 6 & -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution From the definition,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 6 & -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} &= x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ 6x_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3x_2 \\ 5x_2 \\ -2x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 4x_3 \\ -3x_3 \\ 8x_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 \\ -x_1 + 5x_2 - 3x_3 \\ 6x_1 - 2x_2 + 8x_3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

The first entry in the product $A\mathbf{x}$ is a sum of products (sometimes called a *dot product*), using the first row of A and the entries in $\mathbf{x}$. That is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 6 & -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 \\ -x_1 + 5x_2 - 3x_3 \\ 6x_1 - 2x_2 + 8x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix shows how to compute the first entry in $A\mathbf{x}$ directly, without writing down all the calculations shown in (7). Similarly, the second entry in $A\mathbf{x}$ can be calculated at once by multiplying the entries in the second row of A by the corresponding entries in $\mathbf{x}$ and then summing the resulting products:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 5 & -3 \\ 6 & -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 + 5x_2 - 3x_3 \\ 6x_1 - 2x_2 + 8x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Likewise, the third entry in $A\mathbf{x}$ can be calculated from the third row of A and the entries in $\mathbf{x}$.

RULE FOR COMPUTING $A\mathbf{x}$

If the product $A\mathbf{x}$ is defined, then the i th entry in $A\mathbf{x}$ is the sum of the products of corresponding entries from row i of A and from the vector $\mathbf{x}$.

EXAMPLE 2 If A and B are the matrices in Example 1, then

$$2B = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 6 & 10 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A - 2B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 5 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 6 & 10 & 14 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 3 \\ -7 & -7 & -12 \end{bmatrix}$$

It was unnecessary in Example 2 to compute $A - 2B$ as $A + (-1)2B$ because the usual rules of algebra apply to sums and scalar multiples of matrices, as we see in the following theorem.

THEOREM 1

Let A, B , and C be matrices of the same size, and let r and s be scalars.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| a. $A + B = B + A$ | d. $r(A + B) = rA + rB$ |
| b. $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$ | e. $(r + s)A = rA + sA$ |
| c. $A + 0 = A$ | f. $r(sA) = (rs)A$ |

$$A + (-A) = 0$$

Each equality in Theorem 1 is verified by showing that the matrix on the left side has the same size as the matrix on the right and that corresponding columns are equal. Size is no problem because A, B , and C are equal in size. The equality of columns follows immediately from analogous properties of vectors. For instance, if the j th columns of A, B , and C are $\mathbf{a}_j, \mathbf{b}_j$, and $\mathbf{c}_j$, respectively, then the j th columns of $(A + B) + C$ and $A + (B + C)$ are

$$(\mathbf{a}_j + \mathbf{b}_j) + \mathbf{c}_j \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{a}_j + (\mathbf{b}_j + \mathbf{c}_j)$$

respectively. Since these two vector sums are equal for each j , property (b) is verified.

Because of the associative property of addition, we can simply write $A + B + C$ for the sum, which can be computed either as $(A + B) + C$ or as $A + (B + C)$. The same applies to sums of four or more matrices.

Matrix Multiplication

When a matrix B multiplies a vector $\mathbf{x}$, it transforms $\mathbf{x}$ into the vector $B\mathbf{x}$. If this vector is then multiplied in turn by a matrix A , the resulting vector is $A(B\mathbf{x})$. See Fig. 2.

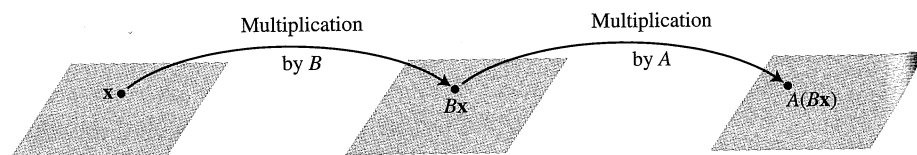


FIGURE 2 Multiplication by B and then A .

Thus $A(B\mathbf{x})$ is produced from $\mathbf{x}$ by a *composition* of mappings, the linear transformations studied in Section 1.7. Our goal is to represent this composite mapping as multiplication by a single matrix, denoted by AB , so that

$$A(B\mathbf{x}) = (AB)\mathbf{x} \quad (1)$$

See Fig. 3.

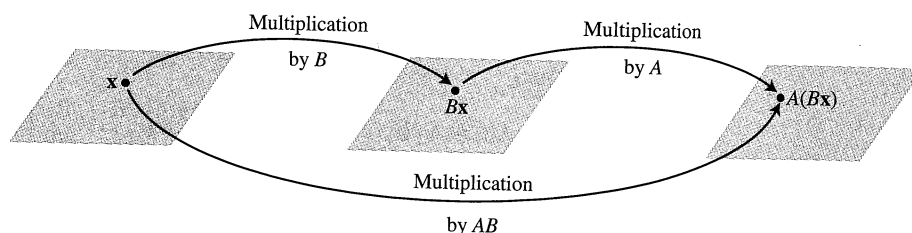


FIGURE 3 Multiplication by AB .

If A is $m \times n$, B is $n \times p$, and $\mathbf{x}$ is in $\mathbb{R}^p$, denote the columns of B by $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p$ and the entries in $\mathbf{x}$ by $x_1, \dots, x_p$. Then

$$B\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + x_p\mathbf{b}_p$$

By the linearity of multiplication by A ,

$$\begin{aligned} A(B\mathbf{x}) &= A(x_1\mathbf{b}_1) + \dots + A(x_p\mathbf{b}_p) \\ &= x_1A\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + x_pA\mathbf{b}_p \end{aligned}$$

The vector $A(B\mathbf{x})$ is a linear combination of the vectors $A\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, A\mathbf{b}_p$, using the entries in $\mathbf{x}$ as weights. If we rewrite these vectors as the columns of a matrix, we have

$$A(B\mathbf{x}) = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{b}_p] \mathbf{x}$$

Thus multiplication by $[A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{b}_p]$ transforms $\mathbf{x}$ into $A(B\mathbf{x})$. We have found the matrix we sought!

DEFINITION

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, and if B is an $n \times p$ matrix with columns $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p$, then the product AB is the $m \times p$ matrix whose columns are $A\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, A\mathbf{b}_p$. That is,

$$AB = A[\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{b}_p] = [A\mathbf{b}_1 \ A\mathbf{b}_2 \ \dots \ A\mathbf{b}_p]$$

This definition makes (1) true for all $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^p$. Equation (1) proves that the composite mapping in Fig. 3 is a linear transformation and that its standard matrix is AB . *Multiplication of matrices corresponds to composition of linear transformations.*