# Linear Equations in Linear Algebra

1.7

#### LINEAR INDEPENDENCE





David C. Lay



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• **Definition:** An indexed set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, ..., \mathbf{v}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be **linearly independent** if the vector equation  $x_1\mathbf{v}_1 + x_2\mathbf{v}_2 + ... + x_n\mathbf{v}_n = 0$ 

has only the trivial solution. The set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, ..., \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is said to be **linearly dependent** if there exist weights  $c_1, ..., c_p$ , not all zero, such that

$$C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2 + \dots + C_p V_p = 0$$
 ----(1)

- Equation (1) is called a linear dependence relation among v<sub>1</sub>, ..., v<sub>p</sub> when the weights are not all zero.
- An indexed set is linearly dependent if and only if it is not linearly independent.

• Example 1: Let 
$$V_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $V_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $V_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

- a. Determine if the set  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is linearly independent.
- b. If possible, find a linear dependence relation among v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, and v<sub>3</sub>.
- **Solution:** We must determine if there is a nontrivial solution of the following equation.

$$x_{1}\begin{bmatrix}1\\2\\3\end{bmatrix} + x_{2}\begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix} + x_{3}\begin{bmatrix}2\\1\\0\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}$$

## LINEAR INDEPENDENCE

 Row operations on the associated augmented matrix show that

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

- $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are basic variables, and  $x_3$  is free.
- Each nonzero value of x<sub>3</sub> determines a nontrivial solution of (1).
- Hence,  $\mathbf{v}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_3$  are linearly dependent.

b. To find a linear dependence relation among v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, and v<sub>3</sub>, row reduce the augmented matrix and write the new system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{l} x_1 - 2x_3 = 0 \\ x_2 + x_3 = 0 \\ 0 = 0 \end{array}$$

- Thus,  $x_1 = 2x_3$ ,  $x_2 = -x_3$ , and  $x_3$  is free.
- Choose any nonzero value for  $x_3$ —say,  $x_3 = 5$ .

• Then 
$$x_1 = 10$$
 and  $x_2 = -5$ .

 Substitute these values into equation (1) and obtain the equation below.

$$10v_1 - 5v_2 + 5v_3 = 0$$

This is one (out of infinitely many) possible linear dependence relations among v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, and v<sub>3</sub>.

## LINEAR INDEPENDENCE OF MATRIX COLUMNS

- Suppose that we begin with a matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$  instead of a set of vectors.
- The matrix equation Ax = 0 can be written as  $x_1a_1 + x_2a_2 + \dots + x_na_n = 0.$
- Each linear dependence relation among the columns of A corresponds to a nontrivial solution of Ax = 0.
- Thus, the columns of matrix A are linearly independent if and only if the equation Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution.

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- A set containing only one vector say, v is linearly independent if and only if v is not the zero vector.
- This is because the vector equation  $x_1 v = 0$  has only the trivial solution when  $v \neq 0$ .
- The zero vector is linearly dependent because  $x_1 0 = 0$ has many nontrivial solutions.

 A set of two vectors {v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>} is linearly dependent if at least one of the vectors is a multiple of the other.

• The set is linearly independent if and only if neither of the vectors is a multiple of the other.

- Theorem 7: Characterization of Linearly Dependent Sets
- An indexed set  $S = \{v_1, ..., v_p\}$  of two or more vectors is linearly dependent if and only if at least one of the vectors in S is a linear combination of the others.
- In fact, if *S* is linearly dependent and  $V_1 \neq 0$ , then some  $v_j$  (with j > 1) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors,  $v_1, ..., V_{j-1}$ .

- Proof: If some v<sub>j</sub> in S equals a linear combination of the other vectors, then v<sub>j</sub> can be subtracted from both sides of the equation, producing a linear dependence relation with a nonzero weight(-1) on v<sub>j</sub>.
- [For instance, if  $V_1 = c_2 V_2 + c_3 V_3$ , then  $0 = (-1)V_1 + c_2 V_2 + c_3 V_3 + 0V_4 + \dots + 0V_p$ .]
- Thus *S* is linearly dependent.
- Conversely, suppose *S* is linearly dependent.
- If v<sub>1</sub> is zero, then it is a (trivial) linear combination of the other vectors in S.

• Otherwise,  $V_1 \neq 0$ , and there exist weights  $c_1, ..., c_p$ , not all zero, such that

$$c_1 V_1 + c_2 V_2 + \dots + c_p V_p = 0.$$

- Let *j* be the largest subscript for which  $c_i \neq 0$ .
- If j = 1, then  $c_1 v_1 = 0$ , which is impossible because  $v_1 \neq 0$ .

• So 
$$j > 1$$
, and  
 $C_1 V_1 + \dots + C_j V_j + 0 V_j + 0 V_{j+1} + \dots + 0 V_p = 0$   
 $C_j V_j = -C_1 V_1 - \dots - C_{j-1} V_{j-1}$   
 $V_j = \left(-\frac{C_1}{C_j}\right) V_1 + \dots + \left(-\frac{C_{j-1}}{C_j}\right) V_{j-1}.$ 

- Theorem 7 does not say that every vector in a linearly dependent set is a linear combination of the preceding vectors.
- A vector in a linearly dependent set may fail to be a linear combination of the other vectors.

• Example 2: Let 
$$u = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Describe the

set spanned by **u** and **v**, and explain why a vector **w** is in Span  $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\}$  if and only if  $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$  is linearly dependent.

- Solution: The vectors u and v are linearly independent because neither vector is a multiple of the other, and so they span a plane in R<sup>3</sup>.
- Span {**u**, **v**} is the  $x_1x_2$ -plane (with  $x_3 = 0$ ).
- If w is a linear combination of u and v, then {u, v, w} is linearly dependent, by Theorem 7.
- Conversely, suppose that {u, v, w} is linearly dependent.
- By theorem 7, some vector in {u, v, w} is a linear combination of the preceding vectors (since u ≠ 0).
- That vector must be **w**, since **v** is not a multiple of **u**.

• So w is in Span {u, v}. See the figures given below.





Linearly dependent, w in Span{u, v} Linearly independent, w not in Span{u, v}

- Example 2 generalizes to any set {u, v, w} in R<sup>3</sup> with u and v linearly independent.
- The set {u, v, w} will be linearly dependent if and only if w is in the plane spanned by u and v.

Theorem 8: If a set contains more vectors than there are entries in each vector, then the set is linearly dependent. That is, any set {v<sub>1</sub>, ..., v<sub>p</sub>} in ℝ<sup>n</sup> is linearly dependent if p > n.

• **Proof:** Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_p \end{bmatrix}$$
.

- Then A is  $n \times p$ , and the equation Ax = 0corresponds to a system of n equations in p unknowns.
- If p > n, there are more variables than equations, so there must be a free variable.

- Hence Ax = 0 has a nontrivial solution, and the columns of A are linearly dependent.
- See the figure below for a matrix version of this theorem.

If p > n, the columns are linearly dependent.

Theorem 8 says nothing about the case in which the number of vectors in the set does *not* exceed the number of entries in each vector.

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• Theorem 9: If a set  $S = \{V_1, ..., V_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains the zero vector, then the set is linearly dependent.

- **Proof:** By renumbering the vectors, we may suppose  $V_1 = 0$ .
- Then the equation  $1v_1 + 0v_2 + ... + 0v_p = 0$  shows that *S* in linearly dependent.



2.1

#### MATRIX OPERATIONS





David C. Lay



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- If A is an m×n matrix—that is, a matrix with m rows and n columns—then the scalar entry in the *i*th row and *j*th column of A is denoted by a<sub>ij</sub> and is called the (*i*, *j*)-entry of A. See the figure below.
- Each column of *A* is a list of *m* real numbers, which identifies a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .



- The columns are denoted by  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ , and the matrix *A* is written as  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}$ .
- The number a<sub>ij</sub> is the *i*th entry (from the top) of the *j*th column vector a<sub>i</sub>.
- The diagonal entries in an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$  are  $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, \dots$ , and they form the main diagonal of A.
- A **diagonal matrix** is a sequence *n*×*m* matrix whose nondiagonal entries are zero.
- An example is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix,  $I_n$ .

### SUMS AND SCALAR MULTIPLES

- An *m*×*n* matrix whose entries are all zero is a zero matrix and is written as 0.
- The two matrices are equal if they have the same size (*i.e.*, the same number of rows and the same number of columns) and if their corresponding columns are equal, which amounts to saying that their corresponding entries are equal.
- If A and B are  $m \times n$  matrices, then the sum A + B is the  $m \times n$  matrix whose columns are the sums of the corresponding columns in A and B.

### SUMS AND SCALAR MULTIPLES

- Since vector addition of the columns is done entrywise, each entry in A + B is the sum of the corresponding entries in A and B.
- The sum A + B is defined only when A and B are the same size.

• Example 1: Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 5 \\ -1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix},$$
  
 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

and 
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Find  $A + B$  and  $A + C$ .

### SUMS AND SCALAR MULTIPLES

• Solution: 
$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$
 but  $A + C$  is not

defined because A and C have different sizes.

- If *r* is a scalar and *A* is a matrix, then the **scalar multiple** *rA* is the matrix whose columns are *r* times the corresponding columns in *A*.
- **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

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

• Each quantity 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.

- When a matrix *B* multiplies a vector **x**, it transforms **x** into the vector *B***x**.
- If this vector is then multiplied in turn by a matrix A, the resulting vector is A (Bx). See the Fig. below.



Multiplication by *B* and then *A*.

Thus A (Bx) is produced from x by a composition of mappings—the linear transformations.

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• Our goal is to represent this composite mapping as multiplication by a single matrix, denoted by AB, so that A(Bx)=(AB)x. See the figure below.



Multiplication by AB.

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

Then

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

• By the linearity of multiplication by *A*,

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

- The vector A (Bx) is a linear combination of the vectors Ab<sub>1</sub>, ..., Ab<sub>p</sub>, using the entries in x as weights.
- In matrix notation, this linear combination is written as A(D-1)

$$A(B\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{b}_1 & A\mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & A\mathbf{b}_p \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

- Thus multiplication by  $Ab_1 Ab_2 \cdots Ab_p$ transforms **x** into  $A(B\mathbf{x})$ .
- **Definition:** If *A* is an  $m \times n$  matrix, and if *B* is an  $n \times p$  matrix with columns  $\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_p$ , then the product *AB* is the  $m \times p$  matrix whose columns are  $A\mathbf{b}_1, ..., A\mathbf{b}_p$ .

That is,

$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Ab_1 & Ab_2 & \cdots & Ab_p \end{bmatrix}$$

 Multiplication of matrices corresponds to composition of linear transformations.

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• Example 2: Compute *AB*, where  $A = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 \end{vmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 9 \\ 1 & -2 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$ .

• Solution: Write  $B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$  and compute:

$$Ab_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, Ab_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, Ab_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} b_{1} & b_{2} & b_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 0 & 21 \\ -1 & 13 & -9 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Each column of AB is a linear combination of the columns of A using weights from the corresponding column of B.
- Row—column rule for computing AB
- If a product AB is defined, then the entry in row i and column j of AB is the sum of the products of corresponding entries from row i of A and column j of B.
- If (AB)<sub>ij</sub> denotes the (i, j)-entry in AB, and if A is an m×n matrix, then

$$(AB)_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + \dots + a_{in}b_{nj}$$

- Theorem 2: Let A be an m×n matrix, and let B and C have sizes for which the indicated sums and products are defined.
  - a. A(BC) = (AB)C (associative law of multiplication)
  - b. A(B + C) = AB + AC (left distributive law) c. (B + C)A = BA + CA (right distributive law)
  - d. r(AB) = (rA)B = A(rB) for any scalar r
  - e.  $I_m A = A = AI_n$  (identity for matrix multiplication)

Proof: Property (a) follows from the fact that matrix multiplication corresponds to composition of linear transformations (which are functions), and it is known that the composition of functions is associative.

• Let 
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & \cdots & c_p \end{bmatrix}$$

By the definition of matrix multiplication,

$$BC = \begin{bmatrix} Bc_1 & \cdots & Bc_p \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A(BC) = \begin{bmatrix} A(Bc_1) & \cdots & A(Bc_p) \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The definition of *AB* makes  $A(B\mathbf{x}) = (AB)\mathbf{x}$  for all **x**, so  $A(BC) = \begin{bmatrix} (AB)\mathbf{c}_1 & \cdots & (AB)\mathbf{c}_p \end{bmatrix} = (AB)C$
- The left-to-right order in products is critical because *AB* and *BA* are usually not the same.
- Because the columns of *AB* are linear combinations of the columns of *A*, whereas the columns of *BA* are constructed from the columns of *B*.
- The position of the factors in the product AB is emphasized by saying that A is *right-multiplied* by B or that B is *left-multiplied* by A.

- If AB = BA, we say that A and B commute with one another.
  - Warnings:
    - 1. In general,  $AB \neq BA$ .
    - 2. The cancellation laws do *not* hold for matrix multiplication. That is, if AB = AC, then it is *not* true in general that B = C.
    - 3. If a product *AB* is the zero matrix, you *cannot* conclude in general that either A = 0 or B = 0.

 If A is an n×n matrix and if k is a positive integer, then A<sup>k</sup> denotes the product of k copies of A:

$$A^k = \underbrace{A \cdots A}_k$$

- If *A* is nonzero and if **x** is in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $A^k \mathbf{x}$  is the result of left-multiplying **x** by *A* repeatedly *k* times.
- If k = 0, then  $A^0 \mathbf{x}$  should be  $\mathbf{x}$  itself.
- Thus  $A^0$  is interpreted as the identity matrix.

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#### THE TRANSPOSE OF A MATRIX

- Given an  $m \times n$  matrix A, the **transpose** of A is the  $n \times m$  matrix, denoted by  $A^T$ , whose columns are formed from the corresponding rows of A.
- **Theorem 3:** Let *A* and *B* denote matrices whose sizes are appropriate for the following sums and products.

a. 
$$(A^{T})^{T} = A$$
  
b.  $(A + B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T}$   
c. For any scalar  $r, (rA)^{T} = rA^{T}$   
d.  $(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$ 

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• The transpose of a product of matrices equals the product of their transposes in the *reverse* order.