

- Let  $A = (a_{ij})$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix and let  $M_{ij}$  denote the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix obtained from  $A$  by deleting the row and column containing  $a_{ij}$ . The determinant of  $M_{ij}$  is called the minor of  $a_{ij}$ . We define the cofactor  $A_{ij}$  of  $a_{ij}$  by

$$A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij})$$

- Subspace: If  $S$  is a nonempty subset of a vector space  $V$ , and  $S$  satisfies the conditions

- (i)  $\alpha \mathbf{x} \in S$  whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  for any scalar  $\alpha$
- (ii)  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in S$  whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in S$

then  $S$  is said to be a subspace of  $V$ .

- Let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be vectors in a vector space  $V$ . The set

$$\{\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is called the span of  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  and is denoted by  $\text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ .

- The vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  in a vector space  $V$  are said to be linearly independent if

$$c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n = \mathbf{0}$$

implies that all the scalars  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_n = 0$ .

**Theorem 0.1.** Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  be  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let

$$X = (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$$

The vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  will be linearly independent and span  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if  $X$  is nonsingular.

- If vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  are linearly independent and span  $V$ , then  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  form a basis for  $V$  and  $V$  has dimension  $n$ .

**Theorem 0.2.** If vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  form a basis for  $V$ , then any collection of (strictly) more than  $n$  vectors in  $V$ , is linearly dependent.

- The rank of a matrix  $A$ , denoted  $\text{rank}(A)$ , is the number of non-zero rows in the reduced echelon form of  $A$ . The dimension of the null space of a matrix is called the nullity of the matrix.

**Theorem 0.3.** If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix, then the rank of  $A$  plus the nullity of  $A$  equals  $n$ .

- For an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ ,  $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$  is called the characteristic polynomial of  $A$ .  $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$  is called the trace of  $A$ .

**Theorem 0.4.** If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$ , then

$$\lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_n = p(0) = \det(A) \quad (0.1)$$

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n = \text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} \quad (0.2)$$

- An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is said to be diagonalizable if there exists a nonsingular matrix  $X$  and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that  $X^{-1}AX = D$ . We say that  $X$  diagonalizes  $A$ .

**Theorem 0.5.** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable if and only if  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.

- A mapping  $L$  from a vector space  $V$  into a vector space  $W$  is said to be a linear transformation if for all  $v_1, v_2 \in V$  and all scalars  $\alpha$

- (i)  $L(v_1 + v_2) = L(v_1) + L(v_2)$
- (ii)  $L(\alpha v_1) = \alpha L(v_1)$

- Let  $L : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Let  $\mathbf{0}_V$  and  $\mathbf{0}_W$  be the zero vectors in  $V$  and  $W$ , respectively. The kernel of  $L$ , denoted  $\ker(L)$ , is defined by

$$\ker(L) = \{v \in V \mid L(v) = \mathbf{0}_W\}$$

Let  $S$  be a subspace of  $V$ . The image of  $S$ , denoted  $L(S)$ , is defined by

$$L(S) = \{L(v) \mid v \in S\}$$

The image of the entire vector space,  $L(V)$ , is called the range of  $L$ .

- Let  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation. An  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  is called the (standard) matrix representation of  $A$  if

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

**Theorem 0.6.** For any linear transformation  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $L$  has an  $m \times n$  matrix representation  $A$ . Moreover,

$$A = (L(\mathbf{e}_1), L(\mathbf{e}_2), \dots, L(\mathbf{e}_n))$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- Let  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$  be the usual inner product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then
  1.  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
  2.  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$
  3.  $\langle \alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and all scalars in  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

- Let  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$  be the usual 2-norm in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then
  1.  $\|\mathbf{x}\| \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
  2.  $\|\alpha \mathbf{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{x}\|$  for any scalar  $\alpha$
  3.  $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem 0.7** (The Pythagorean Law). *If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  are orthogonal vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$*

- If  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\mathbf{y}$  is given by

$$\alpha = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{y}\|}$$

and the vector projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\mathbf{y}$  is given by

$$\mathbf{p} = \alpha \left( \frac{\mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{y}\|} \right) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{y}\|^2} \mathbf{y}$$

**Theorem 0.8.** *If  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{p}$  is the vector projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\mathbf{y}$ , then  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}$  and  $\mathbf{p}$  are orthogonal.*

- Two subspaces  $X$  and  $Y$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be orthogonal if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and every  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ . If  $X$  and  $Y$  are orthogonal, we write  $X \perp Y$ .

Let  $Y$  a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The set of all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that are orthogonal to every vector in  $Y$  will be denoted  $Y^\perp$ . Thus,

$$Y^\perp = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0, \text{ for every } \mathbf{y} \in Y\}$$

The set  $Y^\perp$  is called the orthogonal complement of  $Y$ .

**Theorem 0.9.** *Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m$  be  $m$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_m^T \end{pmatrix}$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. If  $V = \text{span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m)$ , then  $V^\perp = N(A)$ .*

**Theorem 0.10.** *If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $n$ , the equations*

$$A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$$

*have a unique solution*

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{b}$$

*and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  is the unique least squares solution of the system  $A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .*

- Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  be non-zero vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . If  $\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = 0$  whenever  $i \neq j$ , then  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is said to be an orthogonal set in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . An orthonormal set of vectors is an orthogonal set of unit vectors.

**Theorem 0.11.** *If  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$  is an orthonormal set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . And if  $\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbf{u}_i$ , then  $c_i = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle$ . Moreover,*

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2. \quad (\text{Parseval's Formula})$$

- An  $n \times n$  matrix  $Q$  is said to be orthogonal matrix if the column vectors of  $Q$  form an orthonormal set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem 0.12.**  *$Q$  is an orthogonal matrix if and only if  $Q^T Q = I$ . If  $Q$  is an orthogonal matrix, then*

1.  $Q^T = Q^{-1}$
2.  $\langle Q \mathbf{x}, Q \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$
3.  $\|Q \mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$

- **Theorem 0.13.** *If  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$  is an orthonormal set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the orthogonal (vector) projection of a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  onto  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k)$  is given by*

$$\mathbf{p} = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle \mathbf{u}_i$$

**Theorem 0.14** (The Gram-Schmidt Process). *Let  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  be a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In Step 1, let*

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}_1\|} \mathbf{x}_1$$

*and define  $\mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$  recursively by:*

*in Step  $k + 1$ , let*

$$\mathbf{p}_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle \mathbf{x}_{k+1}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle \mathbf{u}_i$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{p}_k, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{u}_{k+1} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_{k+1}\|} \mathbf{v}_{k+1}$$

*Then  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .*