

B3D Handout 20: Review of Linear Equations (B3C)

Part (a): Notation.

Vectors

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ a_4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If the vector has two components we call it a **two-dimensional vector**, three components make it a **three-dimensional vector** and so on.

Linear combinations

A linear combination of variables is an expression of the form

$$3x_1 + 2x_2, \quad c_1x + c_2y + c_3z$$

where c_j ($j = 1, 2, 3$) are constants.

In the same way we can write a linear combination of vectors:

$$4 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} - 3 \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

where λ, μ are constants.

Linear equation Examples of linear equations are:

$$x + y - 2z = 6 \quad (\text{a plane in 3D space})$$

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + a_4x_4 = A \quad \text{with } a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, A \text{ constant.}$$

Set of linear equations An example set of linear equations could be

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x & - & y = 2 \\ 3x & + & y = 4 \end{array}$$

or more generally,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_{11}x_1 & + & a_{12}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{1N}x_N & = & b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 & + & a_{22}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{2N}x_N & = & b_2 \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 & + & a_{m2}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{mN}x_N & = & b_m \end{array}$$

This is a set of m linear equations in N unknowns $x_1 \dots x_N$, with constant coefficients $a_{11} \dots a_{mN}$, $b_1 \dots b_m$.

Matrix notation The sets of linear equations above can be written in matrix notation as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for the first, and} \quad \underline{\underline{A}}\underline{x} = \underline{b} \quad \text{for the second,}$$

where $\underline{\underline{A}} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mN} \end{pmatrix}$ is a matrix of constant coefficients,

$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{pmatrix}$ is to be found, and $\underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}$ is a constant vector.

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Part (b): Echelon Form.

One way to solve a set of linear equations is by reduction to row-echelon form: using row operations:

- multiply a row by any constant (i.e. a number)
- interchange two rows
- add a multiple of one row to another

Row-echelon form means:

- any **all-zero** rows are at the bottom of the reduced matrix
- in a non-zero row, the first-from-left nonzero value is 1
- the first '1' in each row is to the right of the first '1' in the row above

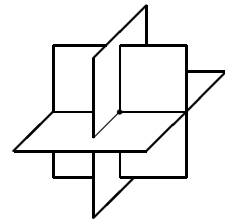
All the operations can be carried out on the augmented matrix

$$\left(\underline{\underline{A}} \mid \underline{\underline{b}} \right).$$

Once complete, it is easy to find the solution by back-substitution.

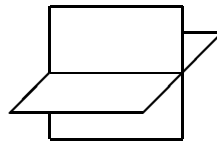
The **rank** of a matrix, R , is the number of non-zero rows when in echelon form. The ranks of the matrix and the augmented matrix determine the type of the solution:

- If we have N variables and N nonzero rows in echelon form, we always get a unique solution.
In three dimensions this means geometrically that three independent planes meet at a point.



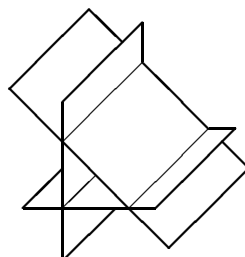
- If there is a zero row of the augmented matrix in echelon form, then the last variable can take any value and the general solution will have the form $\underline{x} = \underline{x}_1 + \lambda \underline{x}_2$ for known vectors \underline{x}_1 and \underline{x}_2 and variable λ . This happens when $R = N - 1$. N is the number of variables in the problem.
- In general if the rank R is less than the number of unknowns N , then there will be $N - R$ variables in the solution.

In three dimensions with two independent rows this means geometrically that two independent planes intersect in a line.



- If the rank of the augmented matrix is greater than the rank of the original matrix, then there is no solution.

Geometrically, this corresponds to a situation where three planes which are not independent do not intersect at all:



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Part (c): Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors.

For an $N \times N$ matrix $\underline{\underline{A}}$, if

$$\underline{\underline{A}}v = \lambda v$$

with $v \neq \underline{\underline{0}}$ then v is an **eigenvector** of $\underline{\underline{A}}$ with **eigenvalue** λ .

(Any multiple of v is also an eigenvector with eigenvalue λ : just pick some convenient form.)

$$\text{Now} \quad \underline{\underline{A}}v = \lambda v \implies (\underline{\underline{A}} - \lambda \underline{\underline{I}})v = \underline{\underline{0}}$$

which has non-zero solutions for v only if the determinant of matrix $\underline{\underline{A}} - \lambda \underline{\underline{I}}$ is zero.

The determinant $\det(\underline{\underline{A}} - \lambda \underline{\underline{I}})$ is a polynomial in λ of degree N , so there are at most N different eigenvalues.

A useful fact (not proved here) is $\det(\underline{\underline{A}}) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_N$.

Two properties of eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- Eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are linearly independent
- There may be multiple eigenvalues with the same value.

Zero eigenvalues

It is possible for $\lambda = 0$ to be an eigenvalue.

However it is not possible for $v = \underline{\underline{0}}$ to be an eigenvector.

Complex eigenvalues

Equally, λ can be complex, in which case we expect the eigenvectors to be complex too. If the matrix $\underline{\underline{A}}$ is real then any complex eigenvalues will appear in complex conjugate pairs:

$$\lambda_1 = a + ib \quad \lambda_2 = a - ib.$$