

<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>reduced row–echelon form</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>rank</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION & THEOREM</p> <p><i>number of solutions of a linear system</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>linear combination</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>image and kernel are subspaces</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>linear independence</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>basis</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>number of vectors in a basis</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>ALGORITHM</p> <p><i>constructing a basis of the image</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>

<p>The <i>rank</i> of a matrix A, is the number of leading 1s in $rref(A)$.</p>	<p>A matrix is in <i>reduced row–echelon form</i> if all of the following conditions are satisfied:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If a row has nonzero entries, then the first nonzero entry is 1. 2. If a column contains a leading 1, then all other entries in that column are zero. 3. If a row contains a leading 1, then each row above contains a leading 1 further to the left.
<p>A <i>linear combination</i> is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n created by adding together scalar multiples of other vectors in \mathbb{R}^n. For example, if c_1, \dots, c_m are in \mathbb{R}, then</p> $\vec{x} = c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m$ <p>is a <i>linear combination</i>. We say \vec{x} is a <i>linear combination</i> of $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$.</p>	<p>If a system has at least one solution, then it is said to be <i>consistent</i>. If a system has no solutions, then it is said to be <i>inconsistent (overdetermined)</i>.</p> <p>A <i>consistent</i> system has either</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • infinitely many solutions (<i>underdetermined</i>) • exactly one solution (<i>exactly determined</i>)
<p>If $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is a linear transformation from \mathbb{R}^m to \mathbb{R}^n, then</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $ker(T) = ker(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m • $im(T) = im(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n 	<p>A subset W of \mathbb{R}^n is called a <i>subspace</i> of \mathbb{R}^n if it has the following three properties:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. W contains the zero vector for \mathbb{R}^n. 2. W is closed under addition (if \vec{w}_1 and \vec{w}_2 are both in W, then so is $\vec{w}_1 + \vec{w}_2$). 3. W is closed under scalar multiplication (if \vec{w} is in W and k is any scalar, then $k\vec{w}$ is also in W).
<p>Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ from a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n. These vectors are said to form a <i>basis</i> of V, if they meet the following two requirements:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. they span V 2. they are linearly independent 	<p>Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n. These vectors are said to be <i>linearly independent</i> if none of them is a linear combination of the preceding vectors. One way to think of this is that none of the vectors is redundant. Otherwise the vectors are said to be <i>linearly dependent</i>.</p>
<p>To construct a basis of the image of A, pick those column vectors of A that correspond to the columns of $rref(A)$ that contain leading 1s.</p>	<p>All bases of a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n consist of the same number of vectors. In other words, they all have the same dimension.</p>

<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>linear relations</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>rank-nullity theorem</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>dimension</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>linear transformation</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>linearity</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p>$\det(A^T) =$</p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p>$\ker(A) =$</p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p>$(\operatorname{im} A)^\perp =$</p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p>$(AB)^T =$</p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>

<p>For any $n \times m$ matrix A the following equation holds:</p> $\dim(\text{im}(A)) + \dim(\text{ker}(A)) = m$ <p>Alternatively, if we define the $\dim(\text{ker}(A))$ to be the <i>nullity</i> of A, then we can rewrite the above as:</p> $\text{rank}(A) + \text{nullity}(A) = m$ <p>Some mathematicians refer to this as the fundamental theorem of linear algebra.</p>	<p>Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n. An equation of the form</p> $c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$ <p>is called a <i>linear relation</i> among the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$. The <i>trivial relation</i> with $c_1, \dots, c_m = 0$ is always true. <i>Non-trivial relations</i> (where at least one of the coefficients c_i is nonzero) may or may not exist among the vectors.</p>
<p>A function T that maps vectors from \mathbb{R}^m to \mathbb{R}^n is called a <i>linear transformation</i> if there is an $n \times m$ matrix A such that</p> $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ <p>for all \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^m.</p>	<p>For any subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n, the number of vectors in a basis of V is called the <i>dimension</i> of V and is denoted by $\dim(V)$.</p>
$\det(A^T) = \det(A)$	<p>A transformation T is <i>linear</i> iff (if and only if), for all vectors \vec{v}, \vec{w} and all scalars k</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $T(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = T(\vec{v}) + T(\vec{w})$ • $T(k\vec{v}) = kT(\vec{v})$
$(\text{im}A)^\perp = \text{ker}(A^T)$	$\text{ker}(A) = \text{ker}(A^T A)$
<p>Square matrix A is <i>symmetric</i> $\Leftrightarrow A^T = A$</p> <p>Square matrix A is <i>skew-symmetric</i> $\Leftrightarrow A^T = -A$</p>	$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>orthogonal complement</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>properties of orthogonal matrices</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>determinants of similar matrices</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>determinant of an inverse</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>the determinant in terms of the columns</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>elementary row operations and determinants</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>eigenvectors and eigenvalues</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>eigenvalues and characteristic equation</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>
<p>DEFINITION</p> <p><i>trace</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>	<p>THEOREM</p> <p><i>characteristic equation of a 2×2 matrix</i></p> <p>LINEAR ALGEBRA</p>

<p>Consider an $n \times n$ matrix A. The following statements are equivalent:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A is an orthogonal matrix 2. The columns of A form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n 3. $A^T A = I_n$ 4. $A^{-1} = A^T$ 5. $\forall \vec{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \quad \ A\vec{x}\ = \ \vec{x}\$ (preserves length) 	<p>Consider a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n. The <i>orthogonal complement</i> V^\perp of V is the set of those vectors \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^n that are orthogonal to all vectors in V:</p> $V^\perp = \{\vec{x} : \vec{v} \cdot \vec{x} = 0, \forall \vec{v} \in V\}$ <p>Note that V^\perp is the kernel of the orthogonal projection onto V.</p>								
$\det(A^{-1}) = (\det A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$	$A \sim B \Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B)$								
<p>For any $n \times n$ matrix A, and any scalar k:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="214 999 737 1150"> <thead> <tr> <th>Elementary row op</th> <th>Effect on determinant</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>scalar multiplication</td> <td>$\det(A) \rightarrow k \cdot \det(A)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>row swap</td> <td>$\det(A) \rightarrow -\det(A)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>multiple of one row added to another</td> <td>$\det(A) \rightarrow \det(A)$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Analogous results hold for column operations.</p>	Elementary row op	Effect on determinant	scalar multiplication	$\det(A) \rightarrow k \cdot \det(A)$	row swap	$\det(A) \rightarrow -\det(A)$	multiple of one row added to another	$\det(A) \rightarrow \det(A)$	<p>If A is an $n \times n$ matrix with columns, $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$, then,</p> $ \det(A) = \ \vec{v}_1\ \ \vec{v}_2^\perp\ \cdots \ \vec{v}_n^\perp\ $ <p>where $\vec{v}_1^\perp, \dots, \vec{v}_n^\perp$ are defined as in the Gram-Schmidt process.</p>
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multiple of one row added to another	$\det(A) \rightarrow \det(A)$								
<p>The eigenvalues of an $n \times n$ matrix A correspond to the solutions of the <i>characteristic equation</i> given by:</p> $ A - \lambda I = 0$	<p>Consider an $n \times n$ matrix A. A nonzero vector \vec{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is called an <i>eigenvector</i> of A if $A\vec{v}$ is a scalar multiple of \vec{v}. That is, if</p> $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ <p>for some scalar λ. Note that this scalar may be zero. This scalar λ is called the <i>eigenvalue</i> associated with the eigenvector \vec{v}.</p>								
<p>Given a 2×2 matrix A:</p> $\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 - \text{tr}(A)\lambda + \det(A) = 0$	<p>The sum of the diagonal entries of a square matrix A is called the <i>trace</i> of A, and is denoted by $\text{tr}(A)$.</p>								