

Chp 1: Intro to Vectors

1.1 Vectors and Linear Combinations

Vector addition: $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}$ add to $\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ v_2 + w_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Scalar multiplication: If $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and c is a scalar, then $c\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} cv_1 \\ cv_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

The sum of $c\vec{v}$ and $d\vec{w}$ is a linear combination (LC) $c\vec{v} + d\vec{w}$. The LCs $c\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} + d\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}$ fill the xy -plane. The LCs $c\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} + d\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix}$ fill a plane in xyz space.

The length of $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$.

The dot product of \vec{v} and \vec{w} is $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_1w_1 + v_2w_2$.

The column space of a matrix A is all combinations $A\vec{x}$ for all \vec{x} .

If a matrix A has n column vectors v_1, \dots, v_n in m -dimensional space, then A is the $m \times n$ matrix $A = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n]$.

To solve an equation $c\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} + d\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$, use elimination to solve $\begin{cases} cv_1 + dw_1 = b_1 \\ cv_2 + dw_2 = b_2 \end{cases}$. In matrix form, this is $\begin{bmatrix} v_1 & w_1 \\ v_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

If \vec{v}, \vec{w} , and $\vec{0}$ aren't on the same line, then there's exactly one solution c, d . Then the LCs of \vec{v} and \vec{w} exactly fill the xy -plane. In this case, \vec{v} and \vec{w} are linearly independent (LI) and the 2×2 matrix $A = [\vec{v} \ \vec{w}]$ is invertible.

If \vec{v} and \vec{w} lie on the same line through $(0,0)$, and $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$ isn't on that line, then the system has no solution. Then the LCs of \vec{v} and \vec{w} fill the line they're on, but not the plane.

In this case, \vec{v} and \vec{w} are linearly dependent (LD)

LCs of two LI vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} in 2-dim space can produce any vector \vec{b} in that plane. So $c\vec{v} + d\vec{w} = \vec{b}$ has a solution.

LCs of two LI vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} in 3-dim space do not fill the whole 3D space; they only fill a 2D plane.

LCs of three LI vectors in 3D space fill the whole 3D space.

The standard unit basis vectors in 3D space are $\vec{i} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\vec{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Any vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a LC of \vec{i}, \vec{j} , and \vec{k} : $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = v_1\vec{i} + v_2\vec{j} + v_3\vec{k}$.

The 3×3 identity matrix is $I = [\vec{i} \ \vec{j} \ \vec{k}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Multiplying by I leaves every vector unchanged.

1.2 Lengths and Angles from Dot Products

The dot product of $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the scalar $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_1w_1 + \dots + v_nw_n$.

A unit vector \vec{u} has length $\|\vec{u}\| = 1$. If $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$, then $\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$ is the unit vector in the direction of \vec{v} .

\vec{v} and \vec{w} are perpendicular if $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$. In this case, $\|\vec{v} + \vec{w}\|^2 = \|\vec{v}\|^2 + \|\vec{w}\|^2 = \|\vec{v} - \vec{w}\|^2$.

Cosine formula: If $\|\vec{v}\| = 1$ and $\|\vec{w}\| = 1$, then the angle θ b/w \vec{v} and \vec{w} has $\cos\theta = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$.

Cosine formula: If \vec{v} and \vec{w} are nonzero vectors, then the angle θ b/w them has $\cos\theta = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{\|\vec{v}\|\|\vec{w}\|}$.

Schwarz Inequality: $|\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}| \leq \|\vec{v}\|\|\vec{w}\|$.

Triangle Inequality: $\|\vec{v} + \vec{w}\| \leq \|\vec{v}\| + \|\vec{w}\|$.

If $\vec{i} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a unit vector, then the vectors $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ s.t. $\vec{w} \cdot \vec{i} = 0$ fill a 2D plane in \mathbb{R}^3 .

1.3 Matrices and their Column Spaces

The row picture of $A\vec{x}$ comes from dot products of \vec{x} w/ the rows of A .

The column picture of $A\vec{x}$ comes from a LC of the columns of A : $A\vec{x} = x_1(\text{column } a_1) + \dots + x_n(\text{column } a_n)$.

The columns of a matrix A are independent if the only combination of columns s.t. $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ is $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$. Otherwise, the columns are dependent.

The column space (CA) contains all vectors $A\vec{x}$: all combos of the columns.

The span of a set of vectors describes all the LCs of those vectors. So the span of the columns of A is the column space.

The possibilities for column spaces of a 3×3 matrix A are: (1) the whole space \mathbb{R}^3 , if A has 3 indep columns; (2) a plane in \mathbb{R}^3 going through $(0,0,0)$, if A has 2 indep columns; a line in \mathbb{R}^3 going through $(0,0,0)$, if A has 1 indep column; or (4) the point $(0,0,0)$, if A is a matrix of zeros.

Every matrix of rank r is the sum of r matrices of rank 1. Rank r is the # of indep columns.

A matrix has rank 1 if all the rows are multiples of one row when the column space is a single line in n D space, the row space is a single line in n D space.

For all matrices, the row rank equals the column rank.

1.4 Matrix Multiplication AB and CR

To multiply matrices A and $B = [b_1 \ \dots \ b_p]$, we take $AB = [Ab_1 \ \dots \ Ab_p]$. The row length of A must equal the column length of B . If A is $m \times n$ and B is $n \times p$, then AB is $m \times p$.

Matrix multiplication is not commutative. In general, $AB \neq BA$.

Matrix multiplication is associative. If A is $m \times n$, B is $n \times p$, and C is $p \times q$, then $(AB)C = A(BC)$ is $m \times q$. It's also distributive: $A(B+C) = AB+AC$.

If A is a rank one matrix, then all columns of A lie on the same line, and that line is the column space of A . The rows also lie on a line, and that line is the row space of A .

If the column space of A is a line, then the row space of A is also a line.

If $\text{rank}(A) = 1$ for an $m \times n$ matrix A , then we can factor A into $A = CR$ where C is $m \times 1$ and R is $1 \times n$.

If $\text{rank}(A) = r$ for an $m \times n$ matrix A , we can still factor $A = CR$. We go from left to right: if column 1 of A is not all zero, put it into C . Then if column 2 isn't a multiple of column 1, put it into C . Then if column 3 isn't a LC of columns 1 and 2, put it into C . Continue. At the end, C will have $r = \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(C)$ columns taken from A . While the n columns of A might be dependent, the r columns of C will be independent. This means that no column of C is a LC of previous columns, and no combination of columns gives $Cx = \vec{0}$ except when $x = \vec{0}$. The r independent columns in C combine to give all n columns in A .

R is the $r \times n$ matrix that tells us how to produce the columns of A from the columns of C . R contains the columns of the $r \times r$ identity matrix in the columns corresponding to

the columns of A that are also in C .

C has the same column space as A . R has the same row space as A .

Column j of A is equal to C times column j of R . Row i of A is equal to row i of C times R .

If all columns of A are independent, then $C=A$ and $R=I$.

We find R through elimination. We perform Gaussian elimination on A , then remove any rows of all zeros to obtain R .

The r columns of C are a basis for the column space of A . The r rows of R are a basis for the row space of A .

We can also multiply matrices by taking $AB = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ | & & | \\ 1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & b_1^* & - \\ \vdots & \vdots & \\ - & b_n^* & - \end{bmatrix} = a_1 b_1^* + a_2 b_2^* + \dots + a_n b_n^*$, where the matrices $a_i b_i^*$ are outer products of rank 1.

R is the row reduced echelon form of A .