Lecture 3: Vector equations

Danny W. Crytser

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We have seen that the solution sets to linear equations can often be described as lines in the plane. We have seen that the solution sets to linear equations can often be described as lines in the plane. In today's lecture we will make this precise and extend it to cover systems with more free variables. This will allow us to visually describe the solution set of a system of linear equations. The notion of a vector will allow us to simplify our description of solution sets, and the algebraic relationships between vectors will reflect properties of the solution set. Yesterday we developed the row reduction algorithm, and I mentioned that non-reduced echelon forms, while not super-helpful for describing the solution set, can still answer existence/uniqueness questions.

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- (b) Use steps 1-4 of the row reduction algorithm to obtain an equivalent matrix in echelon form.

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(The computer puts the *w*-column in the fourth column instead of the first. Henceforth, the *w*-column is the fourth column.) We will transform this to echelon form, use the echelon form to check if it is consistent, and then, if it is consistent, further transform this to reduced echelon form.

Γ	2	1	3	2	10]
	1	1	1	1	6
	1	3	2	1	13

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 10 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 13 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 10 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Step 3 Now we clean out the two entries beneath the first pivot position. Add -2 times the first row to the second row, add -1 times the first row to the third row.

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 10 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 13 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 13 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Now we clean out the column above the pivot in the third row, third column, subtracting the third row from each other row.

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Now the matrix is in reduced echelon form. We write down the system of linear equations corresponding to this matrix:

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The basic variables are x, y, z corresponding to the three pivot columns. The variable w is free because the fourth column is not a pivot column.

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We rewrite x in terms of the free variable w appearing in the first equation, thus describing the solution set.

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If you're into 4-dimensional space, this is a line in 4-dimensional space.

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Definition

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Example

The following are vectors:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c}1\\2\\2\end{array}\right]; \left[\begin{array}{c}0\\-1\end{array}\right] \neq \left[\begin{array}{c}-1\\0\end{array}\right]$$

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The following are not vectors:

$$\{1,2\}=\{2,1\},$$
 the concept of melancholy $,\infty$

Notation for vectors

The notation for vectors varies somewhat depending on what context you're working in. Sometimes a vector is represented with parentheses:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n).$$

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When using this form, however, it is important to distinguish between vectors, which are columns, and rows

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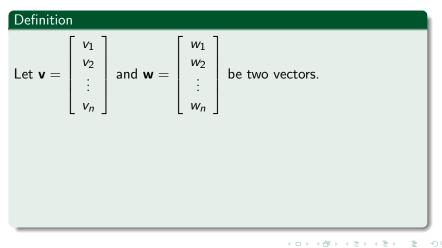
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Rows are not the same as vectors. A row is a matrix with one row. A vector is a matrix with one column. For our purposes the word vector will always mean a column vector, even if we sometimes write them horizontally, in which case we will use parentheses to show that we mean to denote a vector.

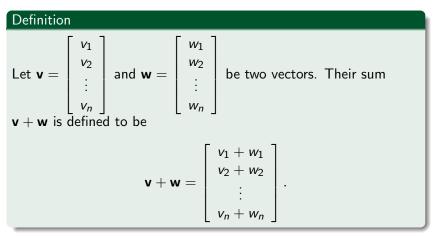
Operations with vectors: addition

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That is, cv is the vector obtained by multiplying each entry of **v** by c.

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Definition

The space of all ordered lists of two real numbers is denoted by \mathbb{R}^2 (read "r-two"). The space of all ordered lists of three real numbers is denoted by \mathbb{R}^3 (read "r-three"). The space of all ordered lists of *n* real numbers is denoted by \mathbb{R}^n (read "r-*n*").

Visualizing vectors in \mathbb{R}^2

Adding vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 has a nice visual interpretation.

Remark

We can visualize vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 as points in the *xy*-plane, where **v** is the point in the plane with *x*-coordinate v_1 and *y*-coordinate v_2 .

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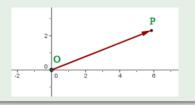
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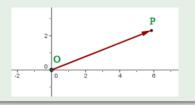
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Example

Let u=(2,2) and v=(-6,1). Then u+v is displayed along with 0,u,v.



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Let $\mathbf{u} = (2,2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (-6,1)$. Then $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is displayed along with $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$.



Photo credit: my camera phone.

Theorem

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For all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and all scalars $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ the following are all true:

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(e) $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$

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(h) $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$

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$$\mathbf{y} := c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + c_p \mathbf{v}_p$$

is called the **linear combination** of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p$ with weights c_1, \ldots, c_p .

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Example

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$$2(1,1) + (-1)(1,0) = (2,2) + (-1,0) = (1,2).$$

Suppose that we have vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

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Now we can decide if the system bas a solution Dan Crytser Lecture 3: Vector equations The previous example shows that determining when a vector $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \ldots, b_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written as a linear combination of some given given vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $\mathbf{a}_i = (a_1^i, \ldots, a_n^i)$, say $\mathbf{b} = x_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + \ldots + x_p \mathbf{a}_p$ is equivalent to solving the system of linear equations whose augmented matrix is

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Any solution to this system is a set of weights (x_1, \ldots, x_p) with $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{b}$.

The set of all vectors that we can obtain as linear combinations of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ has a special name: the **span** of $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$

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$$\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + c_p \mathbf{v}_p$$

for *some* choice of weights $c_1, \ldots, c_p \in \mathbb{R}$.

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What is the span in \mathbb{R}^3 of the set $\{(0,0,0)\}$?

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What is the span in \mathbb{R}^3 of the set {(0,0,0}? The set {(1,0,0), (0,1,0)}?