

MA253: Linear Algebra

①

Feb 7, 2018

Office hrs: MWF 10:00 - 10:50 pm } Davis 330
MW 1:30 - 3:30 pm }
T 4:30 - 6:30 (by appointment) } Davis 301

LOL: "Resurrection Policy"

thw: past Thu/Fri — due Wednesday

Help session: LALAH: Linear algebra after hours, Tue 7-9pm

Algebra is the art of solving (systems of) equations...

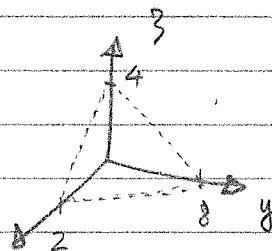
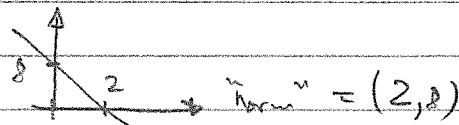
↳ LINEAR ALGEBRA is the art of solving (systems of) linear equations.

Examples

$$4x = 8$$

$$4x + y = 8$$

$$4x + y + 2z = 8$$



more variables, more dimensions... x

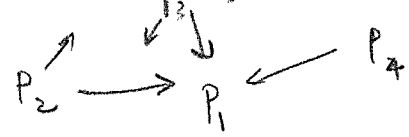
General form

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = c$$

Linear combination
of variables

a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, c → constants
 x_1, \dots, x_n → variables

Why linear systems are important?



(2)

(1)
Application

(Larry) Page Rank Ex $P_1 = \frac{1}{2}P_2 + \frac{1}{3}P_3 + P_4$

importance of page ~ traffic from other pages...
Google (solving trillions of them...)

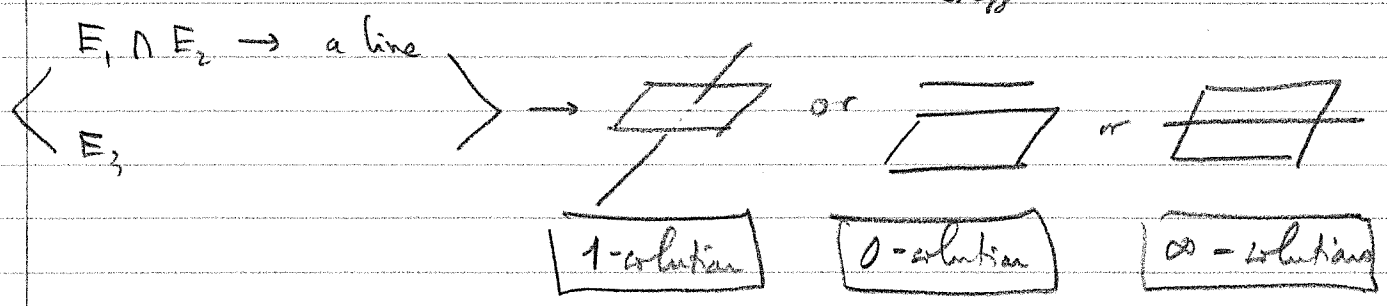
(2) → they are the only systems that can be solved w/ a step-by-step algorithm
↳ other systems of eqn are linearized to become system of linear eqn

First goal Discuss an algorithm that solves a system of linear equations.

Ex $\begin{cases} x+y+z=2 \\ x+2y+3z=2 \\ 2x+5y+7z=3 \end{cases} \left| \begin{matrix} F_1 \\ F_2 \\ F_3 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{planes} \rightarrow \text{find intersection } F_1 \cap F_2 \cap F_3$

F_1, F_2 not parallel because their normals are not parallel

↳ normal $\vec{N} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$
↑
coeffs...



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Example

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} x & +y & +z & = 2 \\ x & +3y & +5z & = 2 \\ 2x & +5y & +7z & = 3 \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} -(\text{I}) \\ -2(\text{I}) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{rd of } x \end{array}$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} x & +y & +z & = 2 \\ +2y & +4z & & = 0 \\ +3y & +5z & & = -1 \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} -\frac{1}{2}(\text{II}) \\ \div 2 \\ -\frac{3}{2}(\text{II}) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{rd of } y \end{array}$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} x & & -z & = 2 \\ & y & +2z & = 0 \\ & & -z & = -1 \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} -(\text{III}) \\ +2(\text{III}) \\ \times (-1) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{rd of } z \end{array}$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc|c} x & & & = 3 \\ & y & & = -2 \\ & & z & = 1 \end{array} \right|$$

Short-hand notation

$$M = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

A matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

M is a 3 x 4 matrix
 ↓ ↓
 row column

$$C = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 \end{array} \right]$$

coefficient matrix of the system

M is called augmented matrix

↳ can tell whether system has ? # of solutions...

\mathbb{R} is the set of all real numbers.

$\mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4}$ is the set of all 3×4 matrices. $M \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4}$; $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$

Example $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ 4×1 matrix $\in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 1}$

\rightarrow a list of numbers \rightarrow A vector, or a column vector with 4 components.

$\mathbb{R}^{4 \times 1}$ is simply denoted as \mathbb{R}^4

$C = [1 \ 8 \ 7 \ 0] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 4}$ is a row vector with 4 components.

Example

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 3 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 6 \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} -4(I) \\ -7(I) \end{array}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & -6 & -12 & 6 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 & 3 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

leading
variable

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{---} \rightarrow \textcircled{x} \\ \text{---} \rightarrow \textcircled{y} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} -z = 2 \\ +2z = -1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{let } z = t \Rightarrow \\ \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} x = 2 + t \\ y = -1 - 2t \end{array}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2+t \\ -1-2t \\ t \end{bmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$$

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Example: Solve system with augmented matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 - x_2 + 2x_4 = -2 \\ x_3 + x_4 = 3 \\ x_5 = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

Leading variables x_1, x_3, x_5
 Free variables x_2, x_4

→ Solve for free variables

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= -2 + x_2 - 2x_4 \\ x_3 &= 3 - x_4 \\ x_5 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

* Assign parameters to free variables: $x_2 = t, x_4 = r$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 + t - 2r \\ t \\ 3 - r \\ r \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad t, r \in \mathbb{R}$$

What does it mean to parametrize a set?

↳ to give a function whose values make the set
 the parameter is the input value.

⇒ Reduced-row echelon form (rref)

- (a) First non-zero entry in each row (if any) is a 1 (called a leading 1)
- (b) All entries above & below a leading 1 are 0.
- (c) If a row contains a leading 1, then all the rows above contain a leading 1 farther to the left.

Goal: given any matrix M , reduce it to a matrix E in rref, using elementary row operations (eros)

- (a) divide row by a non-zero constant
- (b) subtract a multiple of a row from another row (row subtraction)
- (c) rearrange the rows

→ Gauss-Jordan elimination: $M \xrightarrow{\text{row reduction}} E$

A possible algorithm for row reduction

Proceed row by row, from top to bottom, skipping rows of zeros. In each non-zero row:

- Divide by the first non-zero entry to create a leading 1.
- Make all entries above & below this leading 1 equal to 0, by row subtraction.

At the end rearrange to rref matrix to rref

Theorem

Every matrix has a unique rref (proof in book)

$$E = \text{rref}(M)$$

→ rref is a function

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On the number of solutions of a linear system.

Example How many solutions do the systems of with the augmented M have, and why?

$$M = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow 1 \text{ solution } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$N = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \text{no solution since last eqn reads } 0 = 1$$

→ The system is inconsistent

$$P = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \text{infinitely many solutions since there is a free variable } z \text{ is consistent.}$$

→ $y = t$

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 - 2t \\ y = t \\ z = t \end{cases}$$

Theorem

A linear system has

- (a) no solution if there is an equation $0=1$ in the rref
- (b) infinitely many solutions if it is consistent and there are free variables.
- (c) 1 solution if it is consistent & there are no free variables.

Definition

For a matrix A , the number of leading 1's in rref of A is called the rank(A)

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{rank}(M) = 2$$

What are the possible ranks of a (a) 2×3 matrix?
(b) 3×2 matrix?

(a) 0, 1, 2

(b) 0, 1, 2 as well

So if A is an $n \times m$ matrix, then $\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(n, m)$

Example The system $[A | \vec{b}] = M$ (augmented matrix) is inconsistent \Leftrightarrow

$$\text{rank}(A) \neq \text{rank}[A | \vec{b}]$$

$$M = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Example Let $n \times m$ matrix A be the coefficient matrix of a linear system.

(a) If the system has a unique solution, then $\text{rank}(A) = m$

$\hookrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = \#$ of leading variables, no free variables.

$\hookrightarrow = \#$ of unknowns.

(*) Proof: $\#$ of free variables = $m - \#$ leading var = $m - \text{rank}(A)$

(b) If the system has infinitely many solutions, then: $\boxed{\text{rank}(A) < m}$ there are still free variables...

(c) If the system is inconsistent, then $\boxed{\text{rank}(A) < \text{row } n}$
because there must be a row of 0.

Theorem A system of n equations with n variables $\rightarrow A (n \times n)$
as a unique solution \Leftrightarrow (iff)
 $\rightarrow \boxed{\text{rank}(A) = n}$ (rank(A) maximum)

coefficient matrix
↓

Theorem $\boxed{\text{If the system has a unique solution, then } m \geq n}$
(more eqns than / as many eqns as variables)
 \rightarrow need at least as many eqns as vars

"high system"

Contradiction
 $\boxed{\text{If } m > n, \text{ then the system has no or infinitely many solutions}}$

"wide matrix"

more variables than eqns

or

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MATRIX ALGEBRA

Addition $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 10 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$

"entry by entry"

Scaling $5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 10 \\ 15 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{matrix} 2 \times 2 & 2 \times 2 \\ BA = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 2 & 4 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 3 \\ 6 \cdot 0 + 7 \cdot 2 & 6 \cdot 1 + 7 \cdot 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$AB \neq BA$, In general,

(*) Matrix multiplication fails to be commutative

If $AB = BA$ for some specific cases A, B , then A, B are said to commute

$$\text{Ex } \begin{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} \text{UNDEFINED} \\ ? \end{bmatrix} \\ 2 \times 3 & 2 \times 2 & & \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

The $n \times n$ matrix w/ all 1 on the diagonal & all 0 elsewhere is ~~denoted by~~ called the Identity matrix of size $n \times n$

denoted by I_n $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Ex

$$I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Summarize

$$A I_n = I_n A = A \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

Ex $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -6 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(*) The product of non-zero matrices can be the zero matrix

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, \vec{x} is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , then

$$A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \leftarrow \vec{w}_1 \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ \leftarrow \vec{w}_m \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{w}_1 \cdot \vec{x} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{w}_m \cdot \vec{x} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

Express $A\vec{x}$ in terms of the columns of A

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 6 \\ 3 \cdot 5 + 4 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\downarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 5 \\ 3 \cdot 5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 6 \\ 4 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} \nearrow$$

So $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2 \vec{v}_2$

We can do this for any size

$$A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \vec{v}_i \rightarrow \text{call a linear combination!}$$

rules of matrix algebra → NOT commutative

- Distributive $A(B+C) = AB + AC$
 $(B+A)C = BC + AC$
- Associative $(AB)C = A(BC)$
↳ we can simply write ABC
- Scaling $k(AB) = A(kB) = (kA)B \quad k \in \mathbb{R}$

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An alternative notation for linear systems for linear systems.

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} 3x_1 + x_2 = 9 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 = 8 \end{array} \right| \rightarrow \text{augmented matrix}$$

Vector form

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 3 & 1 & 9 \\ 1 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_A \quad \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\vec{b}}$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} 3x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 + 2x_2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{l} 9 \\ 8 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{l} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{l} 9 \\ 8 \end{array} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_A \quad \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\vec{x}} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\vec{b}}$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{A\vec{x} = \vec{b}}$$

Fact The linear system w/ augmented matrix $[A|\vec{b}]$ can be written as

$$\boxed{A\vec{x} = \vec{b}}$$

where \vec{x} is the vector of unknowns.

Aside A vector $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ can be written as $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} =$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{i}} + x_2 \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{j}} + x_3 \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{k}} = x_1 \vec{i} + x_2 \vec{j} + x_3 \vec{k}$$

In \mathbb{R}^n , let \vec{e}_i be the vector with a 1 in the i^{th} component, 0's elsewhere

Ex \vec{e}_2 in \mathbb{R}_4 is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

A vector in \mathbb{R}^n \vec{x} can be written as

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{e}_1 + x_2 \vec{e}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{e}_n$$

$\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n$: standard vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .

CHAPTER 2: LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

Ex Encoding message. \rightarrow need a coding transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 \\ 3x_1 + 4x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{y} = A\vec{x}$$

Def

A function T from \mathbb{R}^m to \mathbb{R}^n is called a linear map (domain) (codomain) (transformation)

if \exists a matrix A ($n \times m$) such that

$$T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \quad \text{for all } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$



Ex $\vec{y} = T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$ from \mathbb{R}^3 to \mathbb{R}^2

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 \\ 4x_1 + 5x_2 + 6x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

linear maps \neq linear functions.

\downarrow
no constant terms.

\downarrow
can have constant terms

Theorem

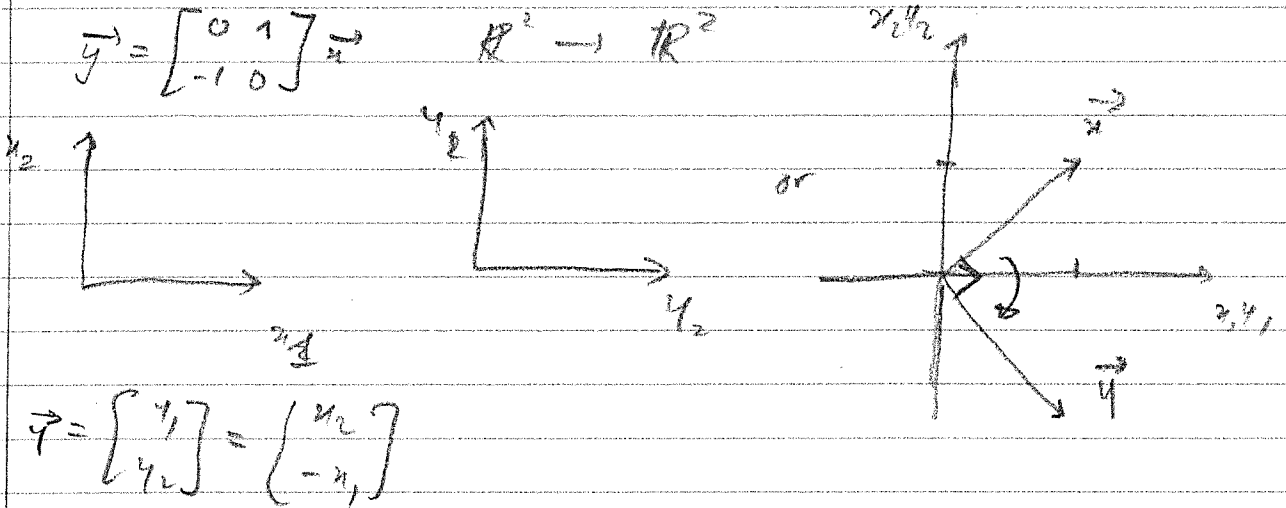
A function $T: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map iff its component functions are linear functions without constant terms

\Leftrightarrow

can be written as matrix

Example Geometrical Interpretation of linear map

$$\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} \quad \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$



$$\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y} \cdot \vec{x} = 0 \rightarrow \vec{y} \perp \vec{x} \quad \text{and} \quad |\vec{y}| = |\vec{x}|$$

Rotation through $-\frac{\pi}{2}$

Feb 21, 2018

Theorem A function $T: \mathbb{R}^m$ to \mathbb{R}^n is a linear map if it satisfies the following equivalent conditions.

- (1) The component functions are linear functions w/o constant terms
- or (2) There exists an $n \times m$ matrix A such that $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- or (3) T takes $\begin{cases} T(\vec{v}) + T(\vec{w}) = T(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) \quad \forall \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^m \\ \text{and } T(h\vec{v}) = h(A\vec{v}) \quad \forall \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m \text{ and } \forall h \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases}$

Example Consider linear map $T(\vec{v}) = A\vec{v} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

(Sum rule)

(a) what is the relationship among $T(\vec{v})$, $T(\vec{w})$ and $T(\vec{v} + \vec{w})$ for $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$\boxed{T(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A\vec{v} + A\vec{w} = T\vec{v} + T\vec{w}}$$

(Scaling rule)

(b) what is the relationship between $T(\vec{v})$ and $T(h\vec{v})$? for $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m, h \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\boxed{T(h\vec{v}) = hA\vec{v}}$$

$T: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map \iff sum rule, scaling rule applies

show that (3) \implies (2)

$$\begin{aligned}
T(\vec{x}) &= T(x_1 \hat{e}_1 + x_2 \hat{e}_2 + \dots + x_m \hat{e}_m) \\
&= T(x_1 \hat{e}_1) + T(x_2 \hat{e}_2) + \dots + T(x_m \hat{e}_m) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^m T(x_i \hat{e}_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^m x_i T(\hat{e}_i) \quad \leftarrow \text{linear combination.} \\
&= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} T(\hat{e}_1) & \dots & T(\hat{e}_m) \end{bmatrix}}_{A} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \\
&= A\vec{x}
\end{aligned}$$

Corollary

if $T: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear map, then its matrix is

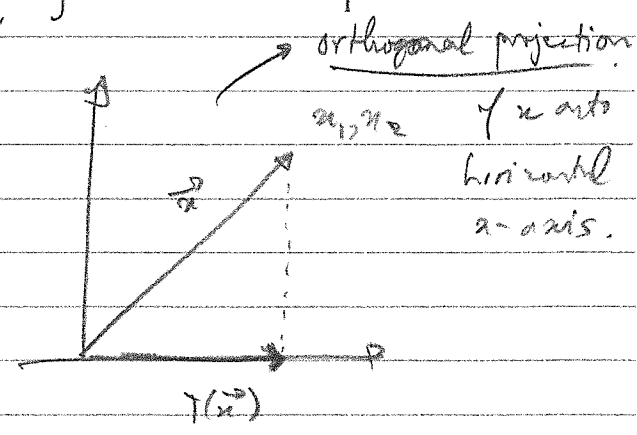
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ T(\hat{e}_1) & \dots & T(\hat{e}_n) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2. Linear Transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^2$ in geometry

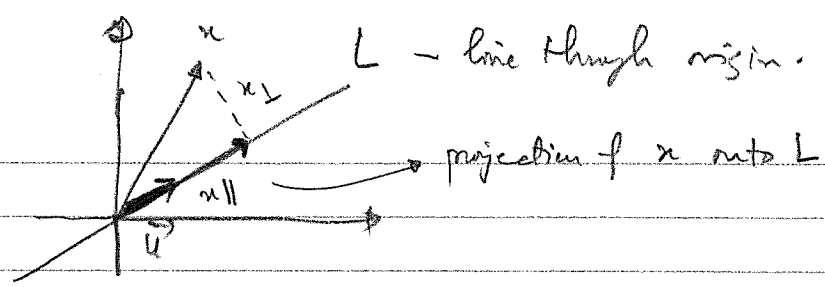
Example Interpret $T(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ geometrically

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

2×2 2×1



Generalize



Let \vec{u} be a unit vector parallel to L . Find a formula for the projection of \vec{x} onto L in terms of \vec{x} and \vec{u} .

$$x_{\parallel} = \text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = k\vec{u} \quad = 1 \text{ (unit)}$$

Now $\vec{x}_{\parallel} \cdot \vec{u} = (\vec{x}_{\parallel} + \vec{x}_{\perp}) \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{x}_{\parallel} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{x}_{\perp} \cdot \vec{u} = k|\vec{u}|^2 = k$

$$\vec{x}_{\parallel} = (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{u} \quad \text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{u}$$

Are projections linear maps? Let's see whether T is given by a matrix!

$$\text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = (x_1 u_1 + x_2 u_2) \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 u_1^2 + x_2 u_1 u_2 \\ x_1 u_1 u_2 + x_2 u_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

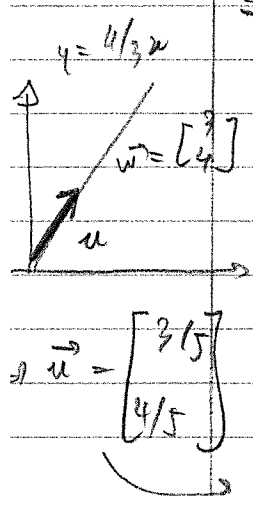
$$\text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^2 & u_1 u_2 \\ u_1 u_2 & u_2^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

matrix of projection

$$\vec{u} = (3, 4)$$

Example

Find the matrix of proj of the orthogonal proj to the line $y = \frac{4}{3}x$



$$\begin{bmatrix} 9/25 & 12/25 \\ 12/25 & 16/25 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

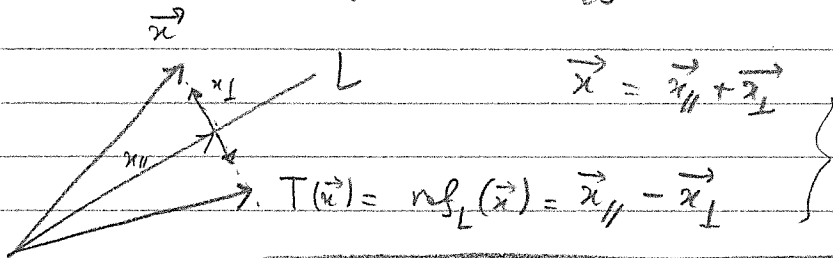
So to check $\text{proj}_L \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$

\uparrow
I to L $\rightarrow \vec{0}$ for proj

Feb 23, 2018

interpret linear map $T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$ geometrically

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{reflection through } x\text{-axis.}$$



$$\rightarrow \boxed{\text{ref}_L(\vec{x}) + \vec{x} = 2\vec{x}_{\parallel} = 2\text{proj}_L(\vec{x})}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \boxed{\text{ref}_L(\vec{x}) = 2\text{proj}(\vec{x}) - \vec{x} = 2P\vec{x} - \vec{x} = (2P - I_2)\vec{x}}$$

Find the matrix S of the ref_L for the line $\frac{4}{3}x$ S

$$S = 2P - I_2 = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 0.36 & 0.48 \\ 0.40 & 0.64 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -0.28 & 0.96 \\ 0.96 & 0.28 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\| \cdot \| = 1$ $\| \cdot \| = 1 \rightarrow$ reflect, preserve length

By definition, reflection preserve length

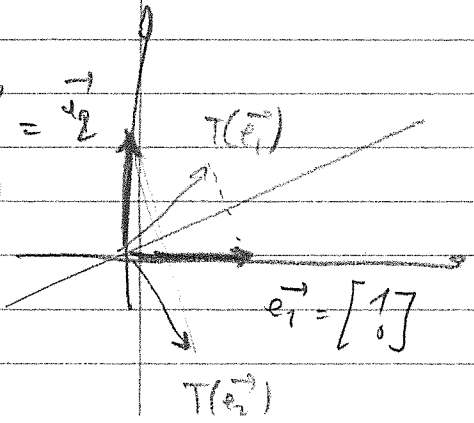
"Format" of reflection matrix $T(\vec{e}_i) = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \boxed{a^2 + b^2 = 1}$

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad T(\vec{e}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{where } \boxed{a^2 + b^2 = 1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{e}_2$$

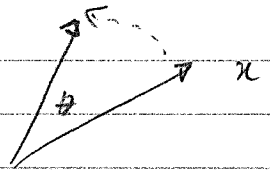


$$\rightarrow \boxed{S = \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{e}_1) & T(\vec{e}_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & -a \end{bmatrix}}$$

Determinant how much the transform stretches/shrinks the original vector.

$$T(\vec{x}) = \text{rot}_\theta(\vec{x})$$

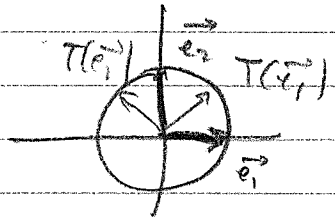
Rotation



preserves length
preserves oriented angles.

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\vec{e}_1) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\vec{e}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix of rotation through $\theta =$
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Format

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } a^2 + b^2 = 1$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & -a \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } a^2 + b^2 = 1$$

unit vectors, perpendicular to each other.

What about in \mathbb{R}^3 ?

→ onto a line

Projection in \mathbb{R}^3

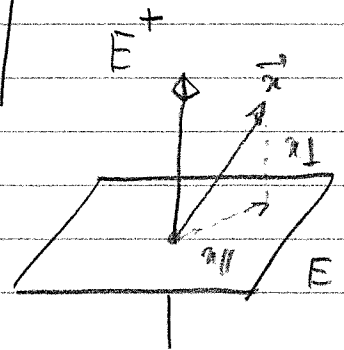
\vec{x}

$$\text{proj}_L = (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{u}$$

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^2 & u_1 u_2 & u_1 u_3 \\ u_2 u_1 & u_2^2 & u_2 u_3 \\ u_3 u_1 & u_3 u_2 & u_3^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Onto a plane



\vec{x}_{\parallel} becomes $\text{proj}_E(\vec{x})$

\vec{x}_{\perp} becomes $\text{proj}_L(\vec{x})$

$$\vec{x} = \text{proj}_E(\vec{x}) + \text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow \text{proj}_E(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} - \text{proj}_L(\vec{x})$$

$$\text{proj}_E(\vec{x}) = (\mathbf{I}_3 - P)\vec{x}$$

$$E: x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$$

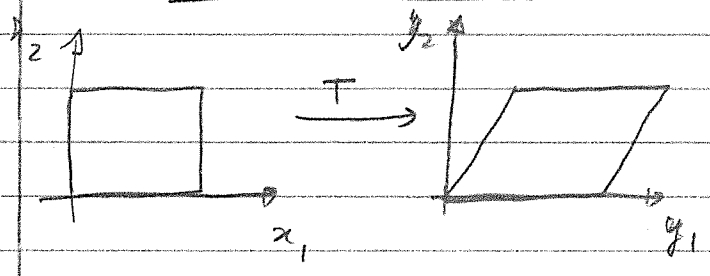
$$\vec{w} = (1, 1, 1) \rightarrow \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{proj}_E(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} - \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$$

Feb 26, 2018

Horizontal Shear

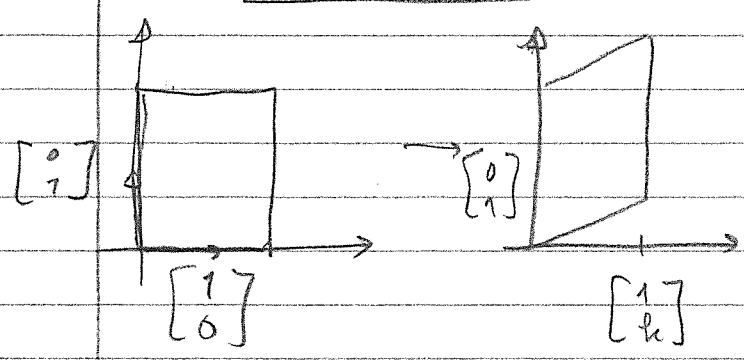


$$\text{Matrix: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & k \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$So, T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & k \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} k \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+kb \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

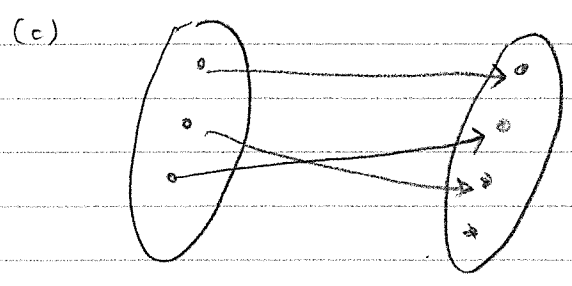
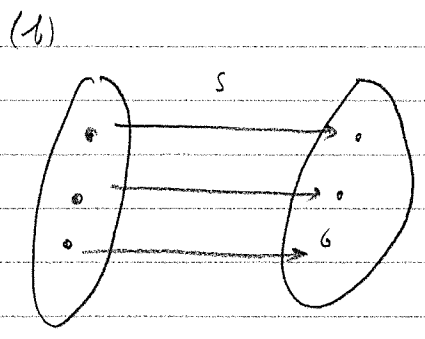
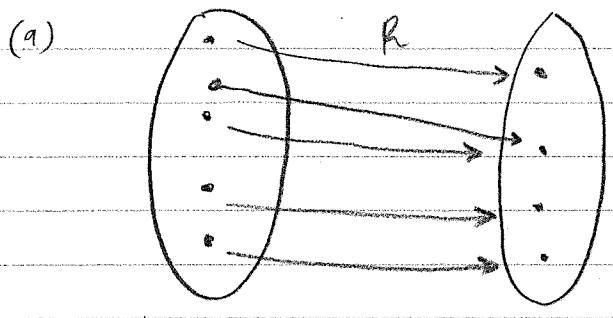
keep a same row to horizontally

Vertical shear



$$\text{matrix: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ k & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverses



bijective

Definition A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is invertible iff the equation $F(x) = b$ has a unique solution for all $b \in Y$

In this case, we can define the inverse function $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$. The equation $f^{-1}(y) = x$ means that $f(x) = y$

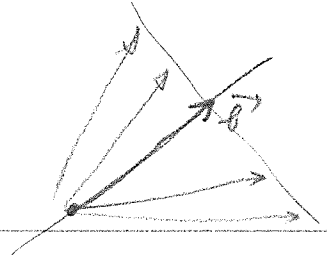
$$F^{-1}(F(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X \text{ and vice versa}$$

Conversely, if $G(F(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X$ and $F(G(y)) = y \quad \forall y \in Y$, then $G = F^{-1}$

If F is invertible, then F^{-1} is invertible, and $(F^{-1})^{-1} = F$

T/F: if $G(F(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X$, then F must be invertible

FALSE if $F(x)$ not onto \rightarrow can find $G(F(x)) = x$ but F is not invertible.



not (F)

Example I, $\text{proj}_L(\vec{x})$ in \mathbb{R}^2 invertible?

NO there are infinitely many solutions to $\text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = \vec{b}$

↳ 2 suffice to show that $\text{proj}_L(\cdot)$ not invertible.

I → Example II reflection $\text{ref}_L(\vec{x})$ in \mathbb{R}^2 invertible?

↳ $[\text{reflection matrix}_L \times \text{reflection matrix}_L] = [\text{identity}]$

$\text{ref}_L(\text{ref}_L(\vec{x})) = \mathbb{I}\vec{x} \Rightarrow \text{so } \boxed{\text{ref}_L^{-1} = \text{ref}_L}$

I → Shear

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & k \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -k \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

I → Rotation $[\text{rotate } (-\theta)]^{-1} = [\text{rotate } (\theta)]$

When is a linear transformation invertible?

When is $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ invertible

↳ required that the equation $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for all $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

This is the case ~~iff~~ iff :

- (1) $\text{rank}(A) = n$
- OR (2) $\text{ref}(A) = \mathbb{I}_n$
- OR (3) $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ has only the solution $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

Feb 28, 2018

Inverses

For a linear map $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n , the following are equivalent.

- (1) T is invertible
- (2) The equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution $\vec{x} \neq \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- (3) $\text{rank}(A) = n$
- (4) $\text{ref}(A) = I_n$
- (5) The equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ has only the solution $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

In this case, T^{-1} is a linear map as well, and the matrix of T^{-1} is denoted by A^{-1}

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{y} = T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \\ \vec{x} = T^{-1}(\vec{y}) = A^{-1}\vec{y} \end{array} \right\}$$

Exercise If $y = T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$ invertible?

If so, find the matrix of the inverse!

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} x_1 + 2x_2 = y_1 \\ 3x_1 + 5x_2 = y_2 \end{array} \right| \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 = -5y_1 + 2y_2 \\ x_2 = 3y_1 - y_2 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{y} \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Do this w/ matrices

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -3 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightsquigarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & -5 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

Theorem if an $n \times n$ matrix is invertible, then $\text{ref}[A | I_n] = [I_n | A^{-1}]$

$I_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ invertible? \rightarrow NO $\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq I_2$.

T/F if $BA = I_n$ for $n \times n$ matrices A, B , then B and A are each other's inverses?

Consider $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$
 $\hookrightarrow BA\vec{x} = B\vec{0} = \vec{0}$
 $\rightarrow \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ (unique)

So A is invertible.

$\hookrightarrow BAA^{-1} = I_n A^{-1} = A^{-1}$

$\hookrightarrow B = A^{-1} \rightarrow B$ invertible, $B^{-1} = A$.

~~4~~

★ $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ad-bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad-bc \end{bmatrix} = (ad-bc) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

If $ad-bc \neq 0$, then if $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, then $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$

Determinants \rightarrow The determinant of a 2×2 matrix A is defined as

$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$

(a) A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$

(b) if A is invertible, then

$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$



For example

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}, a^2 + b^2 = 1$

$\det(A) = 1$, inverse = $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$ rotation

reflection $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & -a \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \det(A) = -1$

Nov 2, 2018

Question If A, B are invertible $n \times n$ matrices, is BA invertible?

IF $BA = I_n$, then BA is invertible. (Recall: if $CD = I_n$ and CD are $n \times n$ then they are each other's inverses)

well $A^{-1}(BA) = A^{-1}A = I_n$

So $(BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$

Is the converse true? \rightarrow if AB is invertible, then A, B are invertible?

YES

AB invertible

$\begin{cases} AB(AB)^{-1} = I_n \\ (AB)^{-1}AB = I_n \end{cases} (2)$

$(2) \Rightarrow (AB)^{-1}A = B^{-1} \rightarrow B$ invertible
 $B(AB)^{-1} = A^{-1} \rightarrow A$ invertible.

A, B square matrix

BA invertible \Leftrightarrow both A & B are invertible
 $(BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$

The kernel of a linear map/matrix

Notation We often study the zeros of a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$
i.e. \rightarrow the x with $f(x) = 0$

Definition \Rightarrow If $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is a linear map $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, then the set of all solutions \vec{x} of the equation $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ is called the kernel of T or of A

denote : $\ker(T) = \ker(A) = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m, T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \}$

Note $\vec{0}$ is always in $\ker(T)$

Ex. Find $\ker(T)$ for $T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$ ($\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$)

Solve $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \vec{0}$
 $\hookrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{cases} x_1 - x_3 = 0 \\ x_2 + 2x_3 = 0 \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix} \quad \ker(T) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

rank(A)	dimension of $\ker(T)$
0	3
1	2
2	1

a line (1-D)

Find kernel of a projection onto a line in \mathbb{R}^2

$\text{proj}_L(\vec{x}) = \vec{0} \iff \vec{x} \perp \vec{l} \implies \text{kernel} = \text{line } \perp \text{ to } L$

$\ker(T) = L^\perp$

Example Find $\ker(A)$ for invertible matrix A.

$A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$
 $A^{-1}A\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{0} = \vec{0}$
 $\hookrightarrow (\vec{x} = \vec{0})$
kernel is $\vec{0}$

Invertible \implies bijective.

\hookrightarrow only one solution to kernel.

Theorem (a) ~~If~~ A is an $n \times m$ matrix, with $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$
 $\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = m$

(b) A is $n \times n$ matrix, with $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$
 $\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = n$
 $\Leftrightarrow A$ is invertible

(c) If A is a wide matrix ($m > n$), then
 $\ker(A) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ (not just singleton $\{\vec{0}\}$)
 $\hookrightarrow \{\vec{0}\} \subset \ker(A)$.

March 5, 2018

Question if $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \ker(A)$ is $\vec{v} + \vec{w} \in \ker(A)$?

$$A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A\vec{v} + A\vec{w} = \vec{0} + \vec{0} = \vec{0}$$

" $\ker(A)$ is closed under addition"

Question if $\vec{v} \in \ker(A)$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, is $c\vec{v} \in \ker(A)$?

$$\hookrightarrow A(c\vec{v}) = c(A\vec{v}) = c\vec{0} = \vec{0}$$

" $\ker(A)$ is closed under scaling"

Definition

A subset V of \mathbb{R}^n is said to be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n

if (a) $\vec{0} \in V$

(b) V closed under addition

(c) V closed under scaling

Theorem if A is an $n \times m$ matrix, then $\ker(A)$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^m

Example In the plane $E: x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$ a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^3

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{A}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\vec{x}} = 0$$

So E is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 because it is $\ker(A)$.

Theorem linear map $T(\vec{v}) = A\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ is one-to-one iff $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$

← Assume $A\vec{v} = A\vec{w}$ and $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$

$$\hookrightarrow A(\vec{v} - \vec{w}) = \vec{0}, \text{ but } \ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$$

$$\text{So } \vec{v} - \vec{w} = \vec{0} \text{ so } \vec{v} = \vec{w}$$

So if $A\vec{v} = A\vec{w}$ and $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\} \rightarrow T(\vec{v})$ 1-1.

The image of a function

$$f: X \rightarrow ?$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{Im}(f) = \{f(x) : x \in X\}$$

① Example $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f(x) = x^2$

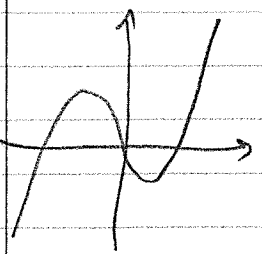
$$\hookrightarrow \text{Im}(f) = [0, +\infty)$$

② Example $f: x \rightarrow y$ invertible

$$\hookrightarrow \text{Im}(f) = y$$

3) Give an example of a non-invertible function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\text{Im}(f) = \mathbb{R}$.

↳ onto, but not 1-1

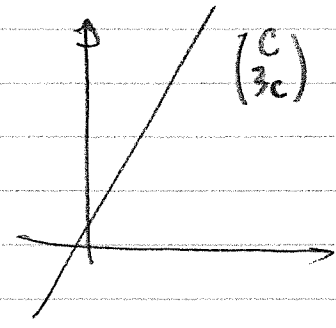


$f(x) = x^2 - x$

Definition A function $f: x \rightarrow y$ is said to be onto iff $\text{Im}(f) = y$

Image of a linear transformation

1) $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \quad T\left(\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} x+2y \\ 3x+y \end{bmatrix}$



Find image of T.

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = T\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) \in \text{Im}(T)$

$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = T\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) \in \text{Im}(T)$

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = T\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) \in \text{Im}(T)$

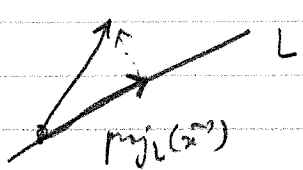
$L = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \in \text{Im}(T)$

→ parallel
 $\left. \begin{matrix} c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Im}(T) \\ \text{Im}(T) \in c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} \right\}$

$T\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = (x_1 + 2x_2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

The image of T is the line spanned by vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

2) Projection onto a line? in \mathbb{R}^2 .



$\text{Im}(P) = L \quad \left\{ \begin{matrix} l \in L \Rightarrow l \in \text{Im}(P) \\ l \in \text{Im}(P) \Rightarrow l \in L \end{matrix} \right.$

$$(n \times m)(m \times 1) \rightarrow (n \times 1)$$

Theorem a linear map $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ from \mathbb{R}^m to \mathbb{R}^n is onto/surjective
(meaning that $\text{Im}(T) = \mathbb{R}^n$)
iff $\text{rank}(A) = n$

T is onto $\Leftrightarrow \forall \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \exists \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$

\Leftrightarrow

All linear system with coefficient matrix A are consistent.

$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{\text{rank}(A) = n}$ \Leftrightarrow dimension of image.

Example

$$T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} \quad \text{from } \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ to } \mathbb{R}^3 \quad (\text{not onto})$$

+

Find image of T

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{can't map } 2D \rightarrow 3D. \\ \rightarrow \text{but } 1 \rightarrow 1 \end{array} \right.$

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{linear combination of the columns.}$$

So, Image of T consists of all linear combinations of the columns of the matrix of $T \rightarrow$ columns of A .

\hookrightarrow geometrically \rightarrow plane spanned by $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Definition The span of vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n consists of all linear combinations of these vectors $(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m)$

$$\text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \vec{v}_i, x_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

Theorem $\text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m)$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n

\hookrightarrow check if it is closed under addition.

Suppose \vec{v}, \vec{w} in the span $(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{v} = x_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m \vec{v}_m \\ \vec{w} = y_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + y_m \vec{v}_m \end{array} \right.$

$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = (x_1 + y_1)\vec{v}_1 + \dots + (x_m + y_m)\vec{v}_m \in \text{span}$ (bc = linear combination)

Theorem if $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is a linear map from $\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, then $\text{Im}(T)$ is the span of the columns of A

$\text{Im}(T) = \text{span} = \text{subspace of } \mathbb{R}^n$

"Proof" $\rightarrow T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = x_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m\vec{v}_m$

$\hookrightarrow \text{Im}(T) = \{ T(\vec{x}), \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m \} = \{ x_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m\vec{v}_m, x_1, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{R} \}$

$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4$
 $= \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m)$

Example $V = \text{Im} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \text{Im}(A) \quad (\mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3)$
(not 1-1)
↳ highest lower dimension...

- (a) Find vectors that A span V?
- (b) what is the minimum number of we need to span V?

(a) $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4$ (all column) (4 vectors > 3 dimension)

Dimension of the span

Prune unnecessary ones... $\vec{v}_1 \sim \vec{v}_2 = \text{span a line!}$

↑
redundant

$\vec{v}_4 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_3 \Rightarrow \vec{v}_4$ redundant

↳ span by \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3 , enough

(b) 2 vectors suffice, e.g. $\begin{matrix} \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3 \\ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_4 \\ \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4 \end{matrix}; \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_4; \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_4; \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$

Last time $\text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4) = \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3) = \text{Im} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Def (a) Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1 \rightarrow \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n . A vector \vec{v}_j in this list is said to be redundant if it is a linear combination of the preceding vector(s), $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_{j-1}$.

\vec{v}_1 is said to be redundant if it is $\vec{0}$.

(in the example, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_4 are dependent/redundant)

(b) We say that vectors $\vec{v}_1 \rightarrow \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n are said linearly independent if none of them is redundant.

(c) Vectors $\vec{v}_1 \rightarrow \vec{v}_m$ in a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n are said to form a basis of V if they span V and are independent.
(i.e. $\{x, \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$ is a basis) as is $\{\vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3\}$, for example.

Example of a basis in $\mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3, \vec{e}_4$ (standard basis)

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{e}_1 + x_2 \vec{e}_2 + x_3 \vec{e}_3 + x_4 \vec{e}_4$$

Why independent? each \vec{e}_j has 1 in j th row, others don't.
(the 0-1 argument)

Example Find the basis of here $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Find ker (using row-reduction) \rightarrow solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_1 + x_2 - x_4 = 0 \\ x_3 + 2x_4 = 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 = -x_2 + x_4 \\ x_3 = -2x_4 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -r+t \\ r \\ -2t \\ t \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{So ker} = \begin{pmatrix} -r+t \\ r \\ -2t \\ t \end{pmatrix}$$

$r, t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -r \\ r \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ -2t \\ t \end{pmatrix} = r \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So the basis consists of $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

↳ span $\ker(A)$ by construction.
Independent by the 0-1 argument!

Find a basis of $\ker(A) \rightarrow$ (1) r/r to solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$
 ↳ (2) write typical element of kern as linear combo w/ param = coefficient
 ↳ (3) the vectors in this combo form the basis of $\ker(A)$

Q. are $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$ independent?

\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 are not redundant. Is \vec{v}_3 redundant? Is the system

$\vec{v}_3 = \alpha_1 \vec{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{v}_2$ consistent?

$$\hookrightarrow = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \downarrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & -6 & -12 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = -1, \alpha_2 = 2$$

$\vec{v}_3 = -\vec{v}_1 + 2\vec{v}_2$

↳ NO, not independent.

Mar 12, 2018

Let $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$ such that $\boxed{1\vec{v}_1 - 2\vec{v}_2 + 1\vec{v}_3 = \vec{0}}$

Def an equation of the form
 $c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$
 is called a linear relation among the vectors
 $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n .
 There is always the trivial relation where $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_m = 0$

Theorem $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ are linearly dependent
 $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ a non-trivial relation among them

We can write $\vec{v}_1 - 2\vec{v}_2 + \vec{v}_3 = \vec{0}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^3)$$

redundant vectors
 give relations
 #relations \Rightarrow basis vectors

Theorem (a) The relations among the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ correspond to the vectors in $\ker[\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m]$
 (b) Vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n are independent
 $\Leftrightarrow \ker[\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m] = \{\vec{0}\}$

Use redundant vectors to find a basis of the kernel

(*)

$$V = \ker \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 & \vec{v}_4 & \vec{v}_5 \end{matrix}$$

redundant:

$$\begin{cases} \vec{v}_2 = 0 \\ \vec{v}_3 = 2\vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{v}_5 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_4 \end{cases}$$

Aside Basis of the Image $\rightarrow \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_4$ (non-redundant columns)

Basis of the ker $\rightarrow \vec{v}_1 - 2\vec{v}_3 + \vec{v}_5 - \vec{v}_4 = \vec{0}$

$$\hookrightarrow -3\vec{v}_1 + 1\vec{v}_2 + \vec{v}_3 - \vec{v}_4 + \vec{v}_5 \rightarrow$$

→ 2 basis vectors

3 relations:
$$\begin{cases} \vec{v}_1 = \vec{0} \\ -2\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 = \vec{0} \\ -\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_4 + \vec{v}_5 = \vec{0} \end{cases}$$

basis of ker →
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

→ span the kernel. (proof in book) independent.

Summary

(TFAE)

For an $n \times m$ matrix $A = [\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m]$, the following are equivalent,

- (1) $\vec{v}_1 \rightarrow \vec{v}_m$ are independent. \neq
- (2) No \vec{v}_k is redundant.
- (3) $\ker A = \{\vec{0}\}$ (no relations except the trivial)
- (4) $\text{rank}(A) = m$
- (5) There are no free variables
- (6) $\text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} I_m \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ($n \times m$) (e.g.) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
- (7) Basis of image = $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m\}$ (since they are all independent)
- (8) $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has 1 or no solution (has at most 1 solution)
↳ since $\text{rank}(A) = m$
- (9) The linear map $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is 1-to-1 (since $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$)

Exercise. Show that non-zero, orthogonal vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are ind

↳ Write a relation $c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$

Show that $c_j = 0$ $\hookrightarrow \vec{v}_j (c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m) = \vec{0}$

orthogonal → dot product = 0

→ $c_1 \underbrace{\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1}_0 + \dots + c_j \underbrace{\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_j}_{\text{sum of } 2} + \dots + c_m \underbrace{\vec{v}_m \cdot \vec{v}_j}_0 = \vec{0} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{c_j = 0}$

↳ Only trivial relation
↳ TRINDEPENDENT

Mar 19, 2018

Define Dimension of V is the number of vectors in any basis of V

Theorem Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and $\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ in subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n . If the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ are independent and the vectors $\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ span V , then $q \geq p$

Form matrices $A = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_p]$ ($n \times p$) $\ker(A) = \vec{0}$

$B = [\vec{w}_1 \dots \vec{w}_q]$ ($n \times q$) $\text{Im}(B) = V$

$\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p \in V = \text{Im}(B) \rightarrow$ we can write $\vec{v}_1 = B\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p = B\vec{u}_p$ for some $\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q$

$\rightarrow A = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_p] = [B\vec{u}_1 \dots B\vec{u}_p] = B \underbrace{[\vec{u}_1 \dots \vec{u}_p]}_C$

$A = B \cdot C$

$(n \times p) \quad (n \times q) \quad (q \times p)$ \rightarrow so $\ker(C) \subseteq \ker(B) = \ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$
so $\ker(C) = \{\vec{0}\}$

so $q \geq p$ since C cannot be a wide matrix

Corollary if $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and $\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ are 2 bases of a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n then $p = q$

\hookrightarrow basis = independent + span \rightarrow to prove \rightarrow use theorem both ways!

Definition Consider subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n
The number of vectors in any basis of V is called the Dimension of $V \equiv \dim V$

(Proof: V has a basis, ... any all subspaces have a basis, ...)

Example $\dim(\mathbb{R}^n) = n$ since e_1, \dots, e_n is a basis.

Ex V is given by $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + 4x_4 = 0$ in \mathbb{R}^4

"general element" $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2a - 3b - 4c \\ a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\hookrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ form a basis of V .

$\boxed{\dim V = 3}$

A subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n with $\dim V = n-1$ is called a hyperplane in \mathbb{R}^n

Ex find \dim of Im & ker of

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

Note $\dim(\text{Im}) + \dim(\text{ker}) = 5$

redundant

Basis of Im : $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3 \rightarrow \dim(\text{Im}) = 2$

Basis of $\text{ker} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \dim(\text{ker}) = 3$

$\rightarrow \dim(\text{ker}) + \dim(\text{Im}) = 2 + 3 = 5.$

For general $n \times m \rightarrow \boxed{\dim(\text{Im}) + \dim(\text{ker}) = m}$

Nov 21, 2018

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & -5 & 6 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 4 & 8 & 5 & -8 & 9 \\ 3 & 6 & 1 & 5 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find basis and dimension of Im & ker of A

$$\text{rref}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note $\text{Im}(A) \neq \text{Im}(\text{rref} A)$

Note \vec{v} with leading 1's are non redundant \Rightarrow form basis of $\text{Im}(\text{rref} A)$

The redundant \vec{v} of $\text{rref} A$ are those w/o leading 1's.

So $\text{ker}(\text{rref} A) = \text{ker}(A)$

Note $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ and $(\text{rref} A)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ have the same solutions

\hookrightarrow by construction, so $\text{ker}(\text{rref} A) = \text{ker}(A)$

\Rightarrow The relations among $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_5$ correspond to those among $\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_5$

$\hookrightarrow \vec{v}_j$ redundant $\Leftrightarrow \vec{w}_j$ redundant

\rightarrow Basis of $\text{Im}(A) = \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_3 \rightarrow \dim(\text{Im}(A)) = 2 = \text{rank}(A)$

Note $\text{Dim}(\text{Im}(A)) = \text{rank}(A)$

To construct a basis of the Im of A , pick the columns of A that corresponds to the columns of $\text{rref} A$ containing leading 1's.

Ex A linear map $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ from \mathbb{R}^5 to \mathbb{R}^4 is onto iff $\text{rank}(A) = 4$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 - 4x_4 = 0 \\ x_3 - 4x_4 + 5x_5 = 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4a - 3b - 2c \\ c \\ 4b - 5a \\ b \\ a \end{bmatrix}$$

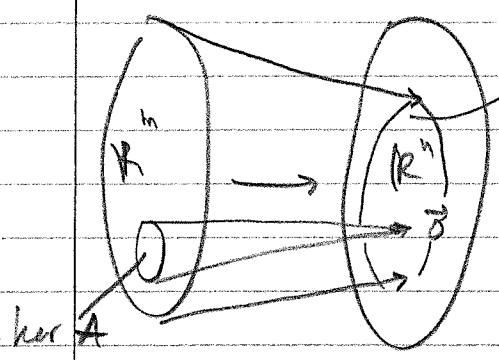
$$= a \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\dim(\ker A) = 3 \rightarrow \boxed{\dim(\ker A) = m - \text{rank}(A)}$

$\Delta \boxed{\dim(\ker A) + \dim(\text{Im} A) = m}$ ← rank-nullity theorem

↑ nullity ↑ rank(A)

$\boxed{\dim(\text{Im} A) = m - \dim(\ker A)}$ $n \left[\begin{matrix} m \\ \end{matrix} \right]$



Ex $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ projection onto plane V

$\text{Im} A = V$
 $\ker A = \text{norm of } V = V^\perp$

$\dim A = \overset{\text{Im}}{3} - \dim(\ker A) \leftarrow \text{a line}$
 $= 3 - 1$
 $\dim(\text{Im} A) = 2$

Mar 23, 2019

Notation for bases

↳ $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F}, \dots$ → denote bases

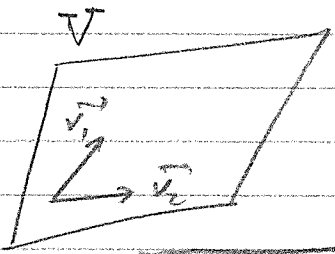
Ex $\mathcal{B} = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2)$

$\mathcal{A} = (\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n)$ → standard basis

3.4 Coordinates

Def A coordinate system on a set X is a 1-to-1 function from X to \mathbb{R}^n for some n .

Ex Consider plane V in \mathbb{R}^3 with $B = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2)$ uniquely



Any vector \vec{x} on V can be expressed as

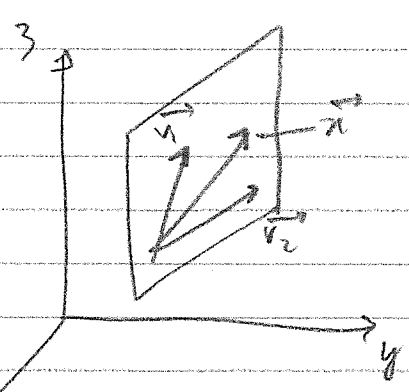
$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 \text{ for some scalars } c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

c_1 and c_2 are called the B -coordinates of \vec{x}

$\hookrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = B\text{-coordinate vector.}$

Numerical Ex $\rightarrow \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$ \mathbb{R}^3

$$\vec{x} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ so } c_1 = 3, c_2 = 2$$



$$\text{so } \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x} \text{ in } V$$

$\uparrow \vec{x} \text{ in } B$

Coordinates in a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n

\hookrightarrow Consider a basis $B = (\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m)$ of a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n ($m \leq n$). Any \vec{x} in V can be written uniquely as
$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m \text{ for some } c_1, \dots, c_m \in \mathbb{R}$$

Scalars c_1, \dots, c_m are the B -coordinates of \vec{x} ,

and $[c_1, \dots, c_m] \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the B -coordinate vector, denoted by

$$[\vec{x}]_B$$

$\hookrightarrow [\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix}$ means that $\boxed{\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m}$

Show \rightarrow linear combinations are unique!

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x} &= c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m \\ &= d_1 \vec{v}_1 + d_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + d_m \vec{v}_m \end{aligned}$$

this is the trivial vln

$$\Rightarrow \vec{0} = (c_1 - d_1) \vec{v}_1 + \dots + (c_m - d_m) \vec{v}_m = \sum_1^m (c_j - d_j) \vec{v}_j$$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{c_j = d_j \forall j}$ since $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ are independent, ...

Conversion formula between \vec{x} and $[\vec{x}]_B$

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix}$$

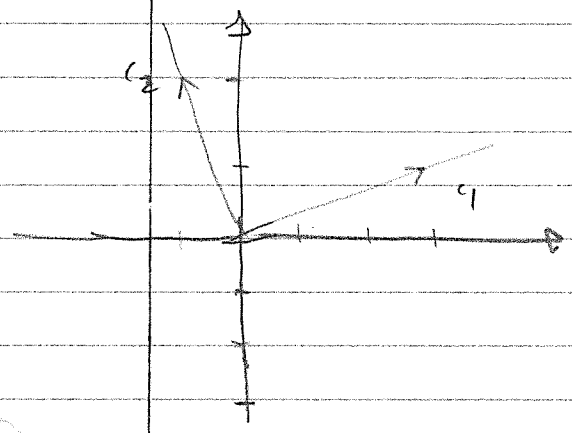
$$\vec{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}}_{[B] \text{ or } S} [\vec{x}]_B \rightarrow \vec{x} = [B] [\vec{x}]_B$$

$\hookrightarrow \boxed{\vec{x} = S [\vec{x}]_B}$ where $S = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$

In our ex $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, x = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$

$\hookrightarrow x = S[x]_B \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Ex Consider B of \mathbb{R}^2 : $B = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right)$



if $x = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ find $[x]_B$

$\hookrightarrow x = S[x]_B$

$\nearrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\hookrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} [x]_B$

or $x = S[x]_B \rightarrow [x]_B = S^{-1}x$

$\hookrightarrow [x]_B = \frac{1}{10} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

if $[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \hookrightarrow x = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$

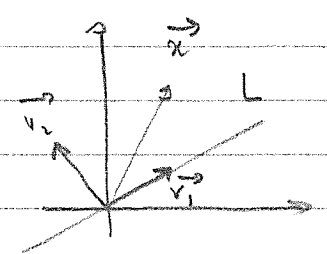
Apr 12, 2018

Change of basis for a linear map

Ex let $T(x) = \text{proj}_L = \text{span} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ in \mathbb{R}^2 .

\hookrightarrow choose a basis B that is "well-adjusted" to T

\hookrightarrow choose $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$



So $[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $[T(\vec{x})]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 \implies [\vec{x}]_B = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$T(\vec{x}) = c_1 T(\vec{v}_1) + c_2 T(\vec{v}_2) = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + 0 \implies [T(\vec{x})]_B = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\hookrightarrow [T(\vec{x})]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

So $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$

\rightarrow diagonal

$[T(\vec{x})]_B = B [\vec{x}]_B$ and $B \equiv$ B-matrix of $T(\vec{x})$

Theorem 1

Consider a linear transform T from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n and $B = (\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_n)$ of \mathbb{R}^n , there exists a unique matrix B such that

$[T(\vec{x})]_B = B [\vec{x}]_B \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

B is called the B-matrix of T

$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n$

$T(\vec{x}) = c_1 T(\vec{v}_1) + \dots + c_n T(\vec{v}_n)$

$[T(\vec{x})]_B = c_1 [T(\vec{v}_1)]_B + c_2 \dots + c_n [T(\vec{v}_n)]_B$

$= \left([T(\vec{v}_1)]_B \dots [T(\vec{v}_n)]_B \right) \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}$

So $[T(\vec{x})]_B = \left([T(\vec{v}_1)]_B \dots [T(\vec{v}_n)]_B \right) [\vec{x}]_B$

$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow$ simple solutions

Addendum to Theorem 4

$$B = \left([T(\vec{v}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \dots \quad [T(\vec{v}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}} \right)$$

Recall Example 1

$$\begin{aligned} T(\vec{v}_1) = \vec{v}_1 &\longrightarrow [T(\vec{v}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ T(\vec{v}_2) = \vec{0} &\longrightarrow [T(\vec{v}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Why is B diagonal? because \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 are eigenvectors!

Example Let $T(\vec{x})$ be a linear transform $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$B = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2) \text{ be a basis of } \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ such that } \begin{aligned} T(\vec{v}_1) &= \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ T(\vec{v}_2) &= \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \end{aligned}$$

Find the \mathcal{B} -matrix of T .

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2$$

$$T(\vec{x}) = c_1 \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \quad \underline{\text{So}} \quad [T(\vec{x})]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 c_1 \\ \lambda_2 c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ? \\ ? \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

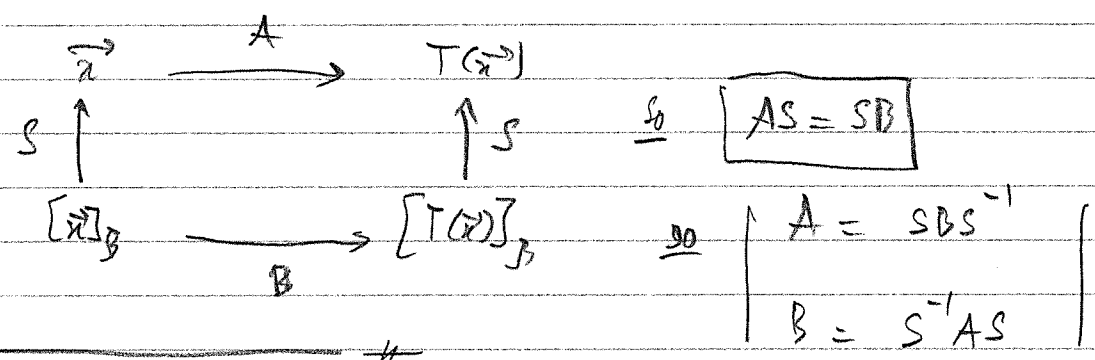
So $B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$

Theorem Let T be a linear transform \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n and let $\mathcal{B} = (\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n)$ be a basis of \mathbb{R}^n s.t. $T(\vec{v}_k) = \lambda_k \vec{v}_k$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. Then the matrix B of T will be diagonal with

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

What is the relationship between A & B ?

Question \rightarrow If $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$, and B is the \mathcal{B} -matrix of T , what is the relationship between A and B ?



April 4, 2018

Rules for vector algebra

- (1) $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$
- (2) $\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \vec{w} + \vec{v}$
- (3) $\exists \vec{n}$ unique $\in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $\vec{v} + \vec{n} = \vec{v} \forall \vec{v}$, namely $\vec{n} = \vec{0}$
- (4) For every \vec{v} , \exists a unique \vec{v}^* s.t. $\vec{v} + \vec{v}^* = \vec{0} \vec{n} = \vec{0}$.
- (5) $k(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = k\vec{v} + k\vec{w}$
- (6) $(c+k)\vec{v} = c\vec{v} + k\vec{v}$
- (7) $(ck)\vec{v} = c(k\vec{v})$
- (8) $1\vec{v} = \vec{v}$

Aside

A fn $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be smooth (or C^∞) if it has derivatives of all orders.

\hookrightarrow The set of all smooth functions $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is denoted by C^∞

Ex polynomials, $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$, e^x , ...

Non-example $\frac{1}{x}$, $|x|$, $\tan x$, $x|x|$, $x^n|x|^n$

4.1. Intro to Linear Spaces (Vector Spaces)

Ex Find all smooth fn, $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t $f''(x) = -f(x)$, with solution set V

Guess: $\sin(x), \cos(x)$ & their linear combinations...

$$f(x) = a \sin(x) + b \cos(x)$$

We are told (Problem 4.1.5D) that all fns in V are of this form

$$V = \{ a \sin(x) + b \cos(x) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \} \subseteq C^\infty$$

How many solutions are there? \rightarrow well, infinitely many, but...

by analogy, $(\sin x, \cos x)$ is a "basis" of V , and $\dim V = 2$

Def \rightarrow A linear space / vector space V is a set endowed with a rule for addition and a rule for multiplication with real numbers subject to rules (1-8)

for $u, v, w \in V, c, k \in \mathbb{R}$

- (1) $u + (v+w) = (u+v) + w$
- (2) $v+w = w+v$
- (3) $\exists n \in V$ s.t $v+n = v \forall v$, denoted by $n=0$
- (4) for any $v \in V \exists v^*$ s.t $v+v^* = 0$, denoted by $v^* = -v$
- (5) $c(v+w) = cv + cw$
- (6) $(c+k)v = cv + kv$
- (7) $(ck)v = c(kv)$
- (8) $1v = v$

msl 6, LTP

If x, y are sets, then $F(x, y)$ denotes the set of all functions $f: x \rightarrow y$

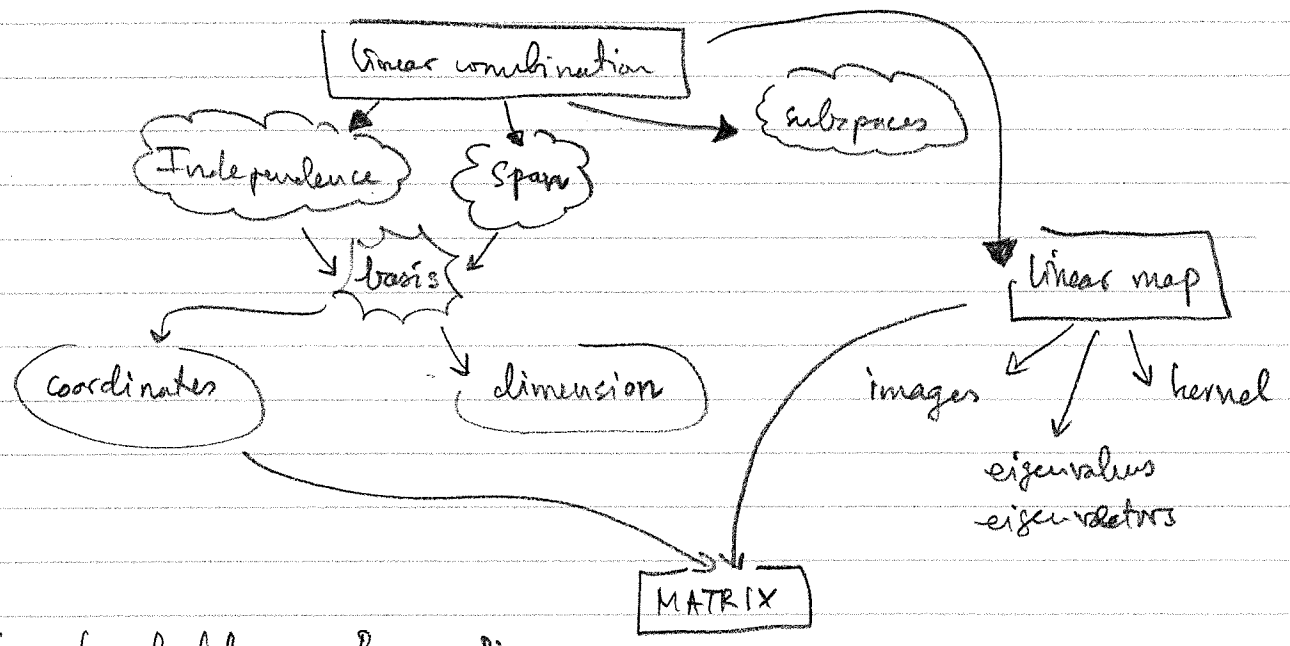
4.1 - Linear Spaces

Def: A linear space ... (previous page)

Example (1) \mathbb{R}^n (2) $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ (3) $F(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ (4) $F(X, \mathbb{R})$ where X is any set
 (5) Sequences (infinite) (6) Exotic Example $V = \mathbb{R}^+$

where $x \oplus y = xy$ so $n = 1$
 $k \odot v = v^k$

Diagram



Example of Subspace, Basis, Dimension:

(1) Find basis and dim of 2×2 matrices. ($\mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$)

↳ With a typical element with parameters, as linear combination, with parameters as the coefficient

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + d \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

span by construction
 independent by 0-1 argument

So $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ (argument)

So $\dim(\mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}) = 4$

So $\dim(\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}) = (n \cdot m)$

(2) Let $P_2 = \{a + bx + cx^2, a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}\} \subseteq F(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$

(a) show that P_2 is a subspace of $F(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$

$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 \in P_2 \\ P_2 \text{ closed under addition: } a_1 + b_1x + c_1x^2 + a_2 + b_2x + c_2x^2 \in P_2 \\ P_2 \text{ closed under scalar multiplication} \end{cases}$

(b) Find the basis of P_2

$\hookrightarrow a + bx + cx^2 \Rightarrow 1, x, x^2$ is a basis of P_2 by construction.

$1, x, x^2$ are independent

So $\dim(P_2) = 3$

So $\dim(P_n) = n+1$

Let P be set of all polynomials \Rightarrow a subspace of $F(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$

Is there a finite basis? **NO**

\hookrightarrow assume basis

$\begin{cases} f_1, \dots, f_n \\ \text{Let } N \text{ be the max of the degrees of } f_1, \dots, f_n \\ \rightarrow x^{N+1} \notin \text{span}(f_1, \dots, f_n) \end{cases}$

So f_1, \dots, f_n not a basis

April 9, 2018

Let P be the space of all polynomials, a subspace of C^∞ . P doesn't have a (finite) basis

Convention: All bases considered in this course are assumed to have finite bases

Def: A linear space V is said to have finite-dimensionality if it has a (finite) basis, otherwise it is said to be infinite-dimensional

Theorem } if the number of independent vectors in a linear space V is } unbounded, then V is infinite-dimensional }
→ proof by contraposition if n -dim, then dim bounded by n .

Theorem | P is infinite-dimensional, $1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}$ are n -independent polynomials for any n

Other example: $C^\infty = F(\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$ is infinite-dimensional

• The space of all infinite sequences $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)$ is infinite-dimensional
↳ $(1, 0, 0, \dots), (0, 1, 0, \dots), \dots, (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots)$ are independent by the 0-1 argument.

Example $V = \{ f \in P_2, f(3) = 0 \}$, a subspace of P_2

Find a basis and the dim of V

by inspection $(x-3), x^2-9$ is a basis \Rightarrow dim $V = 2$

Systematic approach → write a typical element of P_2 :
→ $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$

basis $(x-3), (x^2-9)$
 ~~$(x-3), (x^2-9)$~~

→ It is required that $9a + 3b + c = 0$
→ solve for leading variable
→ $a = -\frac{1}{3}b - \frac{1}{9}c$
→ plug in

then write linear combination \rightarrow ~~$(-\frac{1}{3}b - \frac{1}{9}c)x^2 + bx + c = a$~~ → solve for c
check it is linearly independent

Linear map

Consider linear spaces V and W . A fn $T: V \rightarrow W$ is said to be a linear map if

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T(x+y) = T(x) + T(y) \text{ for all } x, y \in V \text{ (sum rule)} \\ T(\lambda x) = \lambda T(x) \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (scaling rule)} \end{array} \right.$$

Example $D: C^\infty \rightarrow C^\infty$ $D(f) = f'$, the derivative.

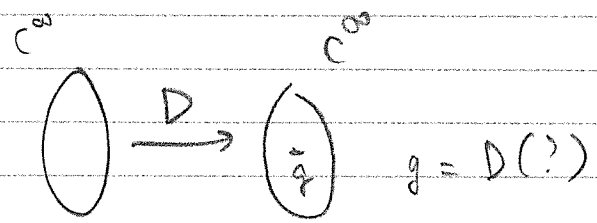
$$D(f+g) = (f+g)' = f' + g' = D(f) + D(g)$$

$$\ker(D) : D(f) = 0 = f' \Rightarrow f(x) = k \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ker(D) = \text{span}\{1\}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \dim(\ker(D)) = 1$$

Im(D)



Since g is continuous, it has an antiderivative

$$\hookrightarrow G, \text{ so } G' = g = D(G), G \in C^\infty$$

$$\text{So } \boxed{\text{Im}(D) = C^\infty}$$

$\hookrightarrow D$ close to invertible

Example

$$\hookrightarrow T: \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$$

$$T(A) = S^{-1}AS \quad \text{linear map? Yes!}$$

$$\text{kernel } T(A) = 0 = S^{-1}AS \Rightarrow A = 0$$

$$\ker(T) = \{0\}$$

$$\rightarrow 1-1-1$$

$$\dim(\text{Im} T) = 4 \Rightarrow \text{Im} T = \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$$

\rightarrow onto

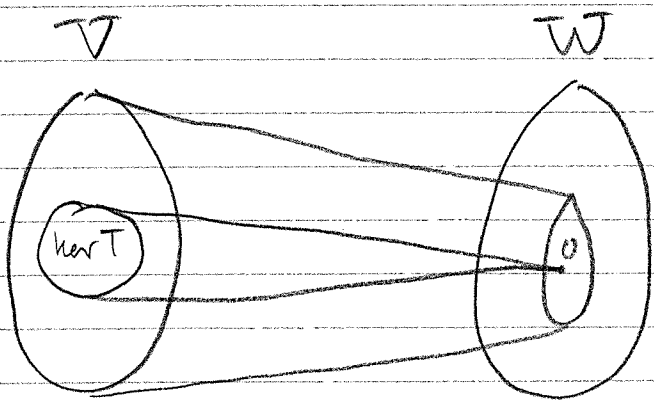
So T invertible.

April, 2018

Rank - Nullity Theorem

If $T: V \rightarrow W$ is a linear map, and if V is finite-dimensional then

$$\dim V = \underbrace{\dim \ker T}_{\text{nullity}} + \underbrace{\dim \text{Im } T}_{\text{rank}}$$



4.2. Isomorphism

"Isos": Same
"morphe": Structure

Coordinates → Consider a linear space V with a basis $B = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$
Then any f in V can be written uniquely as a linear combination

$$f = c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_n f_n$$

The coefficients c_1, \dots, c_n are called the B -coordinates of f

$\begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the B -coordinate vector, denoted with $[f]_B$

We can define the coordinate map: L_B

$$L: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n ; L(f) = [f]_B$$

$$L(c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_n f_n) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Claim that L is a linear map, meaning that

$L(f+g) = L(f) + L(g)$ and $L(kf) = kL(f)$ (*)

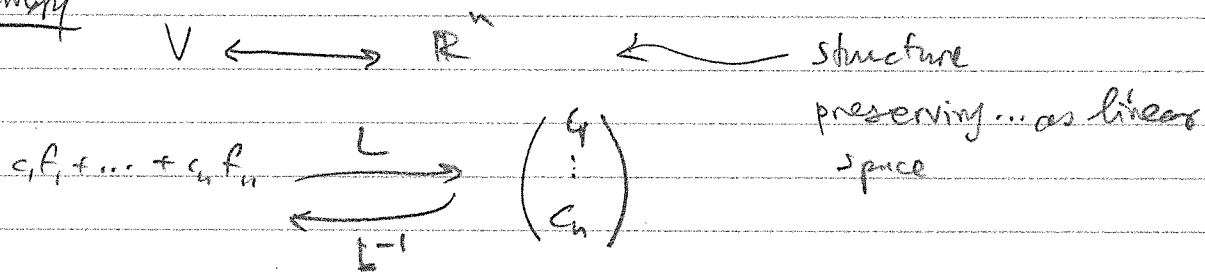
Show (*) $f = c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_n f_n \rightarrow kf = kc_1 f_1 + \dots + kc_n f_n$

$$L(kf) = \begin{pmatrix} kc_1 \\ \vdots \\ kc_n \end{pmatrix} = k \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix} = kL(f)$$

Note L is invertible, its inverse is:

$$L^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V, \quad L^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix} = c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_n f_n$$

Summary

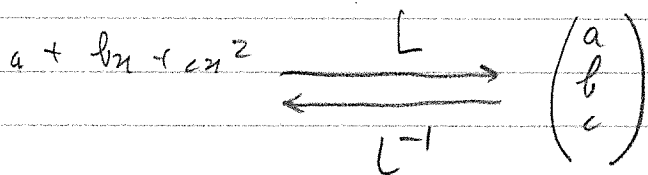


Example

$V = P_2$, $B = (1, x, x^2)$ standard basis

$$L(a + bx + cx^2) = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_2 \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$



isomorphic

P_2 and \mathbb{R}^3 have the same structure as linear spaces

↳ what do we mean by this?

Isomorphism = Invertible + Linear

Definition (a) An invertible linear map L from $V \rightarrow W$ is called an isomorphism

(b) The space V is said to be isomorphic to W if there exists invertible an isomorphism $L: V \rightarrow W$

Ex $P_2 \xrightarrow{\quad} \mathbb{R}^3$ We write $V \cong W$

$L(a + bx + cx^2) = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$ is an isomorphism. Therefore P_2 is isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^3 .

More generally, if V is n -dimensional, then V is isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n

Proof: Consider a coordinate transformation...

Theorem

- ↳ Isomorphism is an equivalence relation
- (a) Reflexive $V \cong V$ since $\text{id}: V \rightarrow V$ isomorphism
- (b) Symmetric if $V \cong W$, then $W \cong V$

If T is an isomorphism $V \cong W$ then $T^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$ is also an isomorphism

We need to show that T^{-1} is linear (so that it's an isomorphism)

Consider sum rule $T^{-1}(f+g)$

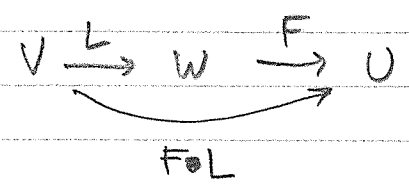
$$= T^{-1}(T(T^{-1}(f)) + T(T^{-1}(g)))$$

(since T - linear)

$$= T^{-1}(T(T^{-1}(f) + T^{-1}(g)))$$
$$= T^{-1}(f) + T^{-1}(g)$$

↳ $T^{-1}(f+g) = T^{-1}(f) + T^{-1}(g)$

→ (c) Transitivity: If $V \cong W$, and $W \cong U$ then $V \cong U$



Claim $F \circ L$ is an isomorphism from $V \rightarrow U$

Proof $F \circ L$ invertible, linear

Scaling rule

$$\begin{aligned}
 F(L(\alpha f)) &= F(\alpha L(f)) = \alpha F(L(f))
 \end{aligned}$$

Apr 12, 2018

An isomorphism is an invertible linear map

Theorem a linear map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is an isomorphism iff $\ker T = \{0\}$ and $\text{Im} T = W$

Theorem Two finite-dimensional spaces V and W are isomorphic $\Leftrightarrow \dim V = \dim W$

Proof Suppose $V \cong W$ (isomorphic)

$\hookrightarrow \exists$ an isomorphism $T: V \rightarrow W$
 by rank-nullity theorem
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \ker T = 0 \\ \dim \text{Im} T = W \end{array} \right\}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \dim V &= \dim \ker T + \dim \text{Im} T \\
 &= 0 + \dim W
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{\text{So}} \dim V = \dim W$$

Converse Suppose $\dim W = \dim V = n$

UBD $V \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ (coordinate...)
 $W \cong \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \cong W$ (sym)

So $V \cong W$ (transitivity)

Example 1 Is $T: P_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 : T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(1) \\ f(2) \end{pmatrix}$ an isomorphism? not onto

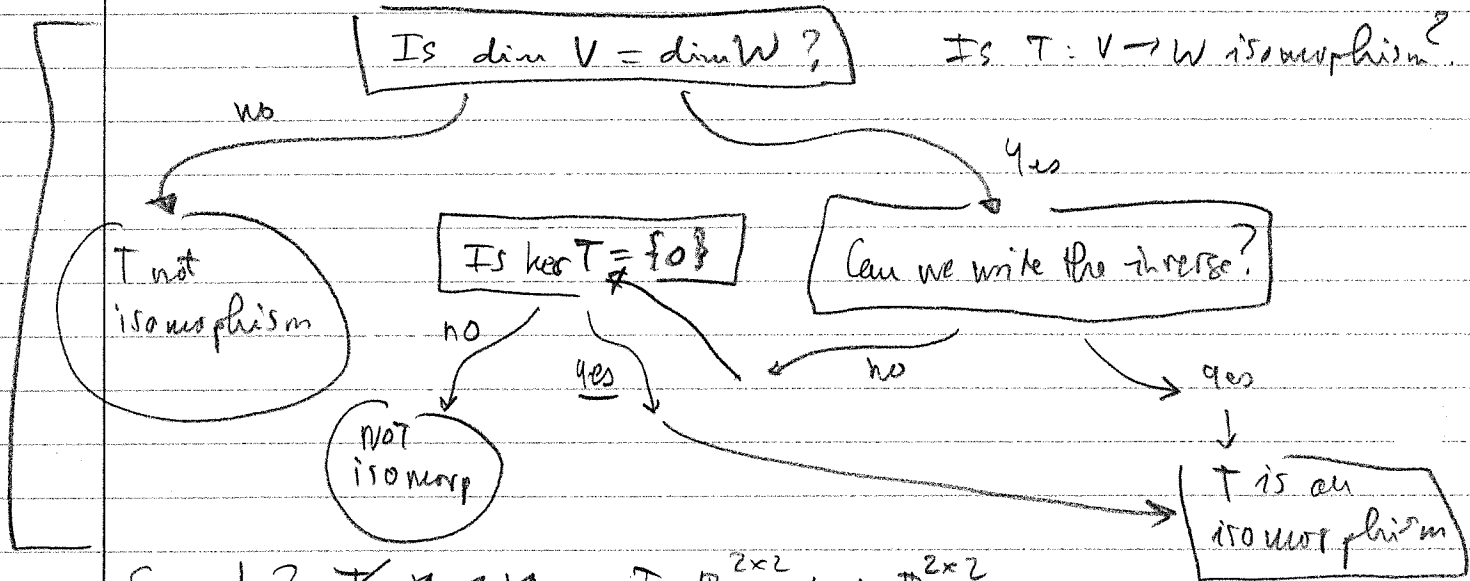
\downarrow

$$\begin{cases} \dim P_2 = 3 \\ \dim \mathbb{R}^2 = 2 \end{cases} \rightarrow T \text{ not isomorphism}$$

or counter example

$\rightarrow f(x) = (x-1)(x-2)$

NOTE THIS!



Example 2 ~~$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$~~ : $T: \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$

$B = T(A) = S^{-1}AS$ where $S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

Solve for A $A = SBS^{-1} = T^{-1}(B)$ ✓ T is an isomorphism

Example 3 \rightarrow Is $T: P_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

$T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(1) \\ f(2) \\ f(3) \end{pmatrix}$ isomorphism?

$\ker T = \{ f(x) \in P_2 : f(1) = f(2) = f(3) = 0 \} = \{ 0 \}$

$\text{Im } T = \mathbb{R}^3$

Since rank nullity $\rightarrow \dim P_2 = \dim \ker T + \dim \text{Im } T$

but $\dim P_2 = \dim \mathbb{R}^3 = 3 \rightarrow \boxed{\text{Im } T = \mathbb{R}^3} \rightarrow T$ is isomorph

The matrix of a linear map

↳ Consider linear map $T: P_2 \mapsto P_2$

$$T(f) = f' + f''$$

$$T(a + bx + cx^2) = b + 2cx + 2c = (b+2c) + (2c)x$$

$$f(x) = a + bx + cx^2 \xrightarrow{T} (b+2c) + 2cx$$

$B = (1, x, x^2)$

standard basis
of P_2

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 [f(x)]_B = (a, b, c)^T & \xrightarrow{\quad} & [T(f(x))] = \begin{pmatrix} b+2c \\ 2c \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
 & & B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

$$\text{So } [T(f(x))]_B = B [f]_B$$

$\text{Im } B = \text{span} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$ eigenvalue of $B = \{0\}$

$\text{Im } T = \text{span} (1, 2+2x) = P_1$ so as eigenvalue of T

$\text{ker } B = \text{span} (\vec{e}_1)$

$\text{ker } T = \text{span} (1) = P_0$

April 16, 2019

→ Consider a linear map $T: V \mapsto V$ and a basis $B = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ of V
then the B -matrix B of T is defined by

$$[T(f)]_B = B [f]_B \text{ for all } f \in V$$

We can construct B column by column

$$B = \left([T(f)]_B \quad \dots \quad [T(f_n)]_B \right)$$

Proof

$$f = c_1 f_1 + \dots + c_n f_n$$

$$T(f) = c_1 T(f_1) + \dots + c_n T(f_n)$$

$$[T(f)]_B = c_1 [T(f_1)]_B + \dots + c_n [T(f_n)]_B = B [f]_B$$

Remark $T(f) = f' + f''$ $B = (1, x, x^2)$

$$B = \left([T(1)]_B, [T(x)]_B, [T(x^2)]_B \right)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We write

	$T(1)$	$T(x)$	$T(x^2)$	
$B =$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 1 \\ x \\ x^2 \end{matrix}$		$\underline{\text{so}} \quad T(x^2) = 2 + 2x$

Example $T: V \rightarrow V$ $B = (f_1, f_2)$ basis of V

$$T(f_1) = a f_1 + b f_2$$

$$T(f_2) = c f_1 + d f_2$$

B of T is? $B =$

	$T(f_1)$	$T(f_2)$	
$B =$	$\begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{matrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{matrix}$	

When is B diagonal?

B is diagonal $\Leftrightarrow b = c = 0$

$\hookrightarrow \Leftrightarrow T(f_1) = af_1$ and $T(f_2) = df_2$

$\Leftrightarrow f_1, f_2$ are eigenvectors of T

Theorem Consider a linear map $T: V \rightarrow V$ and a basis $B(f_1, \dots, f_n)$

Then the B matrix of T is diagonal \Leftrightarrow
 f_1, \dots, f_n are eigenvectors of T .

Example

$T(f(x)) = f(1+2x)$ P_2 to P_2

For $B = (1, x, x^2)$, Find B -matrix of T , use it to find eigenvalues & eigenfunctions of T .

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} [T(1)]_B & [T(x)]_B & [T(x^2)]_B \\ [1]_B & [1+2x]_B & [(1+2x)^2]_B \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda = 1, 2, 4$$

Eigenvectors of $B = ? \rightarrow$

1-eigenvectors \rightarrow find ker($B - \lambda I$)

1-eigenvectors: $\ker(B - I_3) = \ker \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \text{span} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{look for relations})$$

2-eigenvectors: $\ker(B - 2I_n) = \ker \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \text{span} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

4-eigenvectors: $\ker(B - 4I_n) = \ker \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \text{span} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So what ~~are~~^{is} basis of P_2 consisting of eigenvectors of T ?

$$(1 \ x \ x^2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

$$(1 \ x \ x^2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1+x$$

$$(1 \ x \ x^2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1+2x+x^2 = (1+x)^2$$

$$T(1+x) = f(1+2x) = 1+2(1+x) = 2x+2 = 2(1+x)$$

$$T((1+x)^2) = 4(1+x)^2$$

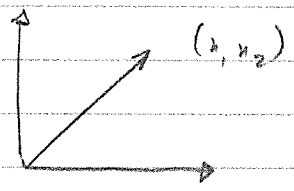
C \mathcal{E} -matrix C of T ($\mathcal{E} = (1, 1+x, (1+x)^2)$)

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

April 23, 2018

Chapter 5: Euclidean Geometry in \mathbb{R}^n

in \mathbb{R}^2 : Length

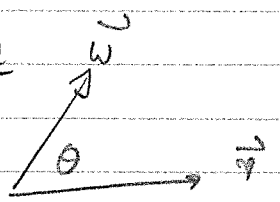


$$\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

$$\|\vec{x}\|^2 = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}$$

$\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \neq \vec{0}$

Angle



$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\| \cos \theta$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{\|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\|} \right)$$

Geometry in \mathbb{R}^n

Define Length $\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}}$ for $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Angle

$$\Delta(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \arccos \left(\frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{\|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\|} \right) \quad \text{for } \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$$

Need to show $\frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{\|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\|} \in [-1, 1]$

need to ~~prove~~ the Cauchy-Schwarz-inequality $|\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}| \leq \|\vec{v}\| \|\vec{w}\|$

\vec{v}, \vec{w} in \mathbb{R}^n are said to be orthogonal if $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$

Vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ in \mathbb{R}^n are said to be orthonormal if they are orthogonal unit vectors

$$\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Q/F n of the normal vectors in \mathbb{R}^n form a basis?

↳ ^{ortho} suffices to show that they're ^{must} independent

↳ Consider a relation $c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$

Show $c_k = 0$

$$\sum c(\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_k) + \dots + c_k(\vec{v}_k \cdot \vec{v}_k) + \dots + c_n(\vec{v}_n \cdot \vec{v}_k) = \vec{0} \cdot \vec{v}_k$$

$$\sum c_k = 0$$

Examples of orthonormal basis (ONB)

$\mathbb{R}^n : \vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n$

$\mathbb{R}^2 : \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ -0.6 \end{bmatrix}$

$\mathbb{R}^3 : \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

Theorem of Pythagoras

Consider \vec{x}, \vec{y} in \mathbb{R}^n $\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 = \|\vec{x}\|^2 + \|\vec{y}\|^2$ iff $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$

Proof $\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\|^2 = (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) \cdot (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y} + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$
 $= \|\vec{x}\|^2 + \|\vec{y}\|^2 + 0$

Definition

weird

A linear map $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be an orthogonal map if it preserves length, meaning that the

$$\|T(\vec{x})\| = \|\vec{x}\| \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

↳ unfortunate term

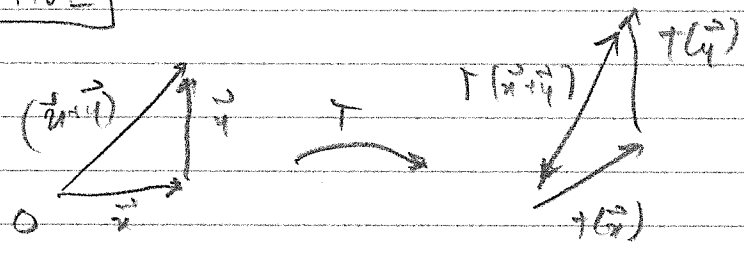
Example $\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3$; rotations; reflections about lines in \mathbb{R}^2 , about lines/planes in \mathbb{R}^3 ...

Non-example \rightarrow a projection onto a line in \mathbb{R}^2

$$\|T(\vec{x})\| \leq \|\vec{x}\|$$

T/F If $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is an orthogonal map, then it preserves orthogonality, meaning that $T(\vec{v}) \perp T(\vec{w})$ if $\vec{v} \perp \vec{w}$

TRUE



Congruent triangles
 \hookrightarrow \perp preserves...

April 25, 2518

Aside

Transpose of a matrix

Ex $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ then $A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

Def

For an $n \times m$ matrix A , the transpose A^T is the $m \times n$ matrix whose ij th entry is the ji th entry of the original matrix

Properties

① $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$

② $(A^T)^T = A$

③ $kA^T = (kA)^T$

④ $(AB)^T = B^T A^T \rightarrow$ Proof the ij th entry of $(AB)^T$ is the ji th entry of AB

⑤ If A invert, then entry of $AB = (j$ th row of A) \cdot (i th col. of B)

Square

A^T invertible

$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

same for $B^T A^T$. ij th element of $(A^T)^{-1} A^T = (j$ th row of A^{-1}) (i th column of B)

Proof $AA^{-1} = I_n \Rightarrow (AA^{-1})^T = I_n^T = I_n$

$\hookrightarrow (A^{-1})^T A^T = I$ so $(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$
and both of them are invertible

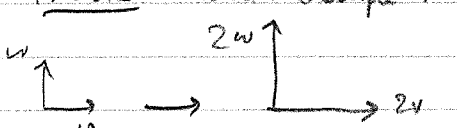
Back to orthogonal

Theorem For an $n \times n$ matrix A , the following are equivalent

- (1) A is an orthogonal matrix
- (2) A preserves length (meaning that $\|A\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\| \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$)
- (3) The columns $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ of A are orthonormal

T/F If A preserves orthogonality, then it is an orthogonal matrix

FALSE Counter example: $A = 2I \rightarrow$ does not preserve length, it preserves ~~not~~ orthogonality
the only counter example.



Q Is $A = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Example

Is $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ orthogonal? N. $A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Is $A = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ orthogonal?

$\vec{e}_1 \cdot \vec{e}_2 = 0$, $(A\vec{e}_1) \cdot (A\vec{e}_2) = \frac{8}{9} \neq 0 \rightarrow$ does not preserve orthogonality
 \rightarrow fails to be orthogonal matrix

Theorem

If A is an orthogonal matrix, then the columns of A form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n

since the columns are $A\vec{e}_1, \dots, A\vec{e}_n$.

Is the converse true? \rightarrow assume from ONB

Proof $\rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$

Show $\|A\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$

$$\begin{aligned} \hookrightarrow \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 &= \left\| x_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{v}_n \right\|^2 \\ &= \|x_1 \vec{v}_1\|^2 + \dots + \|x_n \vec{v}_n\|^2 \quad \hookrightarrow \text{dot product } \vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_i = 0 \\ &= x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = \|\vec{x}_n\|^2 \quad \uparrow \text{ since ONB} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (cont)

- (4) $A^T A = I_n$
- (5) $A^{-1} = A^T$

$$A = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T A = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow columns of A are ON

Apr 27, 2018 Prove that (3) \Leftrightarrow (4) ~~is true~~

$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$ are orthogonal $\Leftrightarrow A^T A = I_n$

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \\ \vec{v}_2^T \\ \vec{v}_3^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_n \\ \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & 1 & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_n$$

iff $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are orthonormal
 $\downarrow \quad \downarrow$
 $1 \quad \|\cdot\| = 1$

(6) A preserves the dot product: $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = (A\vec{v}) \cdot (A\vec{w})$, $\forall \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$(A\vec{v}) \cdot (A\vec{w}) = (A\vec{v})^T (A\vec{w}) = \vec{v}^T A^T A \vec{w} = \vec{v}^T I \vec{w} = \vec{v}^T \vec{w} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$

show (6) \Rightarrow (2) by 6

$\|A\vec{v}\|^2 = (A\vec{v}) \cdot (A\vec{v}) = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{v}\|^2$ (real)

Example what are the possible λ if orthogonal matrix?

$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ $\vec{v} \neq 0$

preserves length \rightarrow

$\|\vec{v}\| = \|A\vec{v}\| = \|\lambda\vec{v}\| = |\lambda| \|\vec{v}\|$ so $|\lambda| = 1$ so $\lambda = \pm 1$

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ λ are ± 1

$A = I_n$ $\lambda = 1$

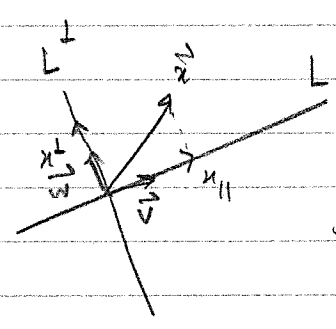
$A = -I_n$ $\lambda = -1$

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ no real λ ($\lambda^2 + 1 = 0$)

(no real λ with even sizes)
(if odd sizes, then there are with λ)

Reflections

Special case



$A\vec{v} = \vec{v}$
 $A\vec{w} = -\vec{w}$

B matrix B of $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$

$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Reflections in general

Consider a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n . Define the orthogonal complement

$$W^\perp = \{ \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \vec{w} \cdot \vec{v} = 0 \ \forall \vec{v} \in W \}$$

Properties

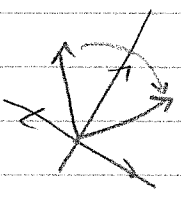
(a) W^\perp is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n

(b) $W^\perp \cap W = \{ \vec{0} \}$

(c) $(W^\perp)^\perp = W$

(d) $\dim W^\perp + \dim W = n$

(e) Every \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^n can be written uniquely as $\vec{x} = \vec{x}_W + \vec{x}_L$ where $\vec{x}_W \in W$ and $\vec{x}_L \in W^\perp$



Define reflection L in W is defined as

$$L(\vec{x}) = L(\vec{x}_W + \vec{x}_L) = \vec{x}_W - \vec{x}_L, \text{ and orthogonal}$$

$$\{ \vec{x} : L(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} \} = W$$

$$\{ \vec{x} : L(\vec{x}) = -\vec{x} \} = W^\perp$$

T/F? A reflection matrix A must satisfy $A^T = A$ (we say that A is a symmetric matrix)

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A \text{ orthogonal} \Rightarrow A^T = A^{-1} \\ \text{But since } A^2 = I_n \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow A = A^{-1} = A^T$$

T/F A reflection matrix A must be similar to a diagonal matrix

↳ equivalently, is there a basis of \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A ?

Let $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ be a basis of V & $\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ basis of V^\perp

Then $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p, \vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n (TRUE)

April 30, 2018

DETERMINANTS

2x2 $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$

$\det A = ad - bc$

Theorem $\det A \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow A$ is invertible

3x3

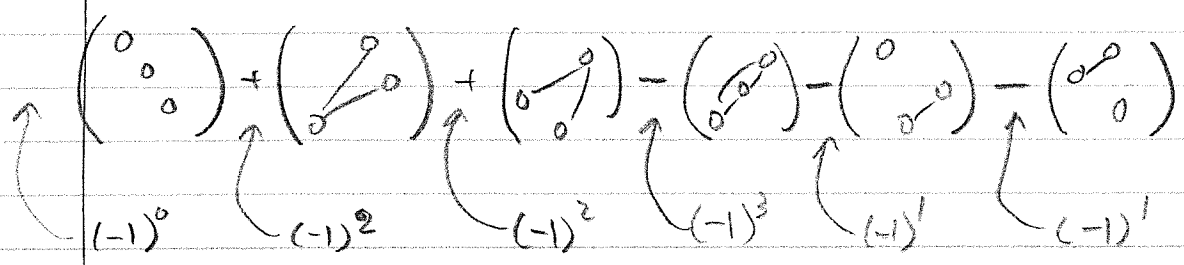
$\det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

$= a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33}$

Def A pattern in an $n \times n$ matrix is a way to choose n entries of the matrix, 1 in each row and in each column

With a pattern P we associate the product of its entries, $\text{prod}(P)$

We can write $\det A = \sum_P \pm \text{prod}(P)$
all patterns



Def 2 entries in a pattern are said to form an inversion (Fehlstand) if one of them is to the right and above the other.

Def The sign as $\text{sign}(P) = (-1)^{\# \text{ inversions}}$

For 3×3

$$\det A = \sum_P \text{sign}(P) \cdot \text{prod}(P)$$

Def determinant of $n \times n$ matrix A as

$$\det A = \sum_P \text{sign}(P) \text{prod}(P)$$

Ex $\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ only one pattern ^{number} for product, count inversions

$$\det A = (-1)^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 = -5! = -120$$

Ex $\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = 4!$ (no inversions...)

Theorem The determinant of a triangular matrix (upper or lower) is the product of its diagonal entries

Ex $\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ $\det A = (-1)^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 1 = 150$

Is the determinant a linear map? NO

$$\det \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

C.E. $\det(2I_3) = 8 \neq 2 \cdot 1$

(scaling of lines...)

$\mathbb{R}^3 \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{R}^3$

$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & 4 \\ z & y & 5 \\ 3 & z & 6 \end{pmatrix}$ a linear map?

YES! $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = (6y - 5z) + x(15 - 12) + 4(2z - 3y)$

linear
we never multiply the variables together...

"Determinant is linear in the rows and in the columns"

May 2, 2018

TRUE $\det A = \det(A^T)$?

Ex 4×4 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 7 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 8 & 7 & 6 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ $A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & 9 & 5 \\ 2 & 6 & 8 & 4 \\ 7 & 7 & 7 & 3 \\ 4 & 8 & 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

de Take
 $\text{sgn}(P) \text{prod}(P) = \text{sgn}(P^T) \text{prod}(P^T)$
TRUE for all P

so $\det A = \det(A^T)$

Determinants \rightarrow rules of Gaussian elimination

How do elementary row operations affect the determinant?

row div

$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{div}]{\div k} \begin{pmatrix} a/k & b/k \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = B$
 $\det B = \frac{ad}{k} - \frac{bc}{k} = \frac{1}{k} \det A$ **so** $\det B = \frac{1}{k} \det A$

row swap

$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{swap}} B = \begin{pmatrix} c & d \\ a & b \end{pmatrix}$ $\det B = -\det A$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[\text{subtraction}]{\text{row}} B = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c - ka & d - kb \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boxed{\det B = \det A}$$

Proof

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ v_p + kv_i \\ \vdots \\ v_p \\ \vdots \\ v_i \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ v_p \\ \vdots \\ v_i \end{pmatrix} + k \det \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ v_i \\ \vdots \\ v_i \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ v_p \\ \vdots \\ v_i \end{pmatrix}$$

2 same row

A $\xrightarrow[\text{reduction}]{\text{row}}$ B such that $\det B$ easy to find
 s swaps
 div by k_1, \dots, k_r

$$\boxed{\det B = (-1)^s \frac{1}{k_1 \dots k_r} \det A}$$

\hookrightarrow

$$\boxed{\det A = (-1)^s k_1 \dots k_r \det B}$$

Example

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \downarrow \end{matrix}$$

swaps: 1
 det: 3

$$\hookrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \div 3$$

$$\hookrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} - 1(R)$$

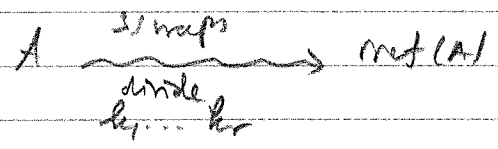
$$\det A = (-1)^1 \cdot 3 \det B \\ = (-1)^1 \cdot 3 \cdot (-4) \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \\ = \boxed{12}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -3 & -10 \end{pmatrix} + 3R$$

$$\hookrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

$\det A = (-1)^k k_1 \dots k_r \det B$

If $\det B = \text{rref}(A)$



$\det A = (-1)^s k_1 \dots k_r \det B$

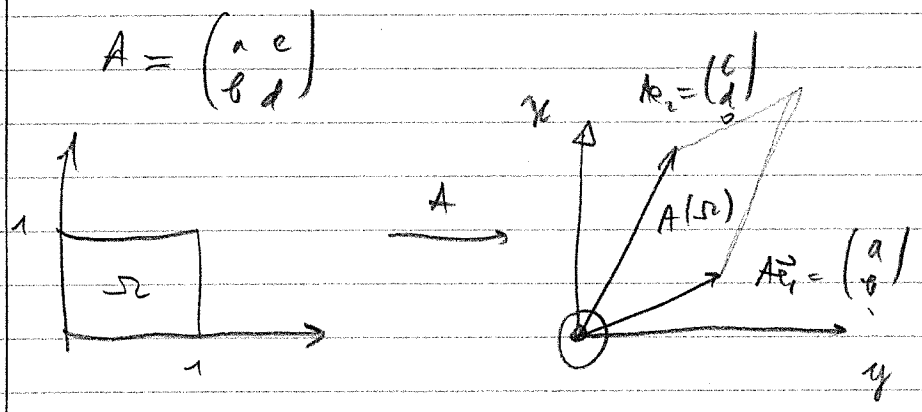
or $\det(\text{rref } A)$

If A invertible $\Rightarrow \text{rref } A = I \rightarrow \det(\text{rref } A) = 1 \rightarrow \det A \neq 0$

If A fails to be invertible $\Rightarrow \text{rref} =$ upper triangular with at least 1 zero on the diag $\rightarrow \det(\text{rref } A) = 0 \Rightarrow \det A = 0$

A invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det A \neq 0$

Geometrical meaning of the det in 2x2 case



area of $A(\Omega)$
 $= \|A\vec{e}_1 \times A\vec{e}_2\|$
 $= \left\| \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \right\|$
 $= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ ad-bc \end{bmatrix} \right\|$

So $A(\Omega) = |ad-bc| = |\det A|$

So $A(\Omega) = |\det A| \Omega$

One can show that $|\det A|$ is the scaling factor on parallelograms

Sign of determinant \rightarrow orientation of image

For 2×2 matrices, A, B , what is the relationship among $\det A, \det B, \det BA$

$$\det(BA) = (\det B)(\det A)$$

Claim this is true for all $n \times n$ matrices A, B (proof w/ rref)

T/F $\det(A^{-1}) = ?$

$$\det A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A}$$

$$AA^{-1} = I$$

$$\det(AA^{-1}) = \det A \cdot \det A^{-1} = 1$$

$$\det A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} = (\det A)^{-1}$$

T/F $A \sim B$, then $\det A = \det B$

$$AS = SB \quad \text{for some invertible } S$$

$$\hookrightarrow \det(AS) = \det A \det S = \det S \det B \rightarrow \det A = \det B$$

6

Finding λ

Consider $n \times n$ matrix A

λ is an eigenvalue for $A \iff A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$ for some nonzero $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$\iff (A - \lambda I_n)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$ for some nonzero $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$\iff \ker(A - \lambda I_n) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$

$\implies A - \lambda I_n$ fails to be invertible

$\iff \det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$

May 7, 2018

Theorem 1 λ is eigenvalue of $n \times n$ A iff $\det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$

Ex
 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I_n) = (1-\lambda)(4-\lambda)(6-\lambda) = 0$

$\Leftrightarrow \lambda \in \{1, 4, 6\}$

Theorem 2 λ of diag matrix are its diagonal entries

Ex
 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \det(A - \lambda I_3) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$
 $= (-\lambda)^2(2-\lambda) - \lambda$
 $\Leftrightarrow 2\lambda^2 - \lambda^3 - \lambda = 0$
 $\Leftrightarrow (-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1) = 0$
 $\Leftrightarrow (-\lambda)(\lambda - 1)^2 = 0$

eigenvalues $\{0, 1\}$

Theorem 3

(a) $\det(A - \lambda I_n)$ is a polynomial of degree n , called the "characteristic polynomial" of A , denoted by

$P_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_n)$

(b) eigenvalues of A are the roots of $P_A(\lambda)$

Describe some of the coefficients of $P_A(\lambda)$

$3 \times 3 : P_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_3) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$

$= (a_{11} - \lambda)(a_{22} - \lambda)(a_{33} - \lambda) + \dots \rightarrow \text{EP}_1$

$= (-\lambda)^3 + (a_{11} + a_{22} + a_{33})(-\lambda)^2 + \dots + \det(A)$

④

The sum of diagonal entries of $n \times n$ matrix A is called its trace

$$\text{tr}(A) = \text{sum of diag-entries of } A = \sum_i a_{ii}$$

Theorem 5 If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then

$$f_A(\lambda) = (-\lambda)^n + b(A)(-\lambda)^{n-1} + \dots + \det A$$

Review Ex 2

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad f_A(\lambda) = -\lambda(\lambda-1)^2$$

$\lambda = 1$ is said to have algebraic multiplicity 2, meaning that the factor $(1-\lambda)$ appears twice in polynomial (but not 3 times...)

Abild

Find ~~the~~ geometric $\text{geom}(1) = \dim \ker(A - I_3)$

$$= \dim \left(\ker \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad \text{eigenspace } E_1$$

$$= 1$$

$$\text{algebraic}(1) = 2$$

$$\text{but geom}(1) = 1$$

Theorem 6 (proof is tough)

$$1 \leq \text{geom}(\lambda) \leq \text{algebraic}(\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda \text{ eigenvalue of } A$$

geom(λ) cannot be 0 (duh...)

Example $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$f_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_3) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda^2(1-\lambda) + (1-\lambda)$$

$$= (1-\lambda)(\lambda^2+1) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 1 \rightarrow \text{algebraic multiplicity} = 1$$

and non-real eigenvalues...

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leading argument page 283 - 286

Theorem 7 An $n \times n$ matrix A has at most n eigenvalues, even if they are connected with their algebraic multiplicity, algebraic

Theorem 8 if n is odd, then $n \times n$ matrix has at least 1 (real) eigenvalue

Theorem 9

when is an $n \times n$ matrix diagonalizable?

know A diagonalizable $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ an eigenbasis for A

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{\lambda} \text{geom}(\lambda) = n = \sum_{\lambda} \text{algebraic}(\lambda)$$

Remarks

$f_A(\lambda)$ splits iff $\sum_{\lambda} \text{algebraic}(\lambda) = n$

~~iff~~ $\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{geom}(\lambda) \leq \text{algebraic}(\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda \\ \sum_{\lambda} \text{geom}(\lambda) \leq \sum_{\lambda} \text{algebraic}(\lambda) \leq n \end{array} \right)$

$\Leftrightarrow \text{geom}(\lambda) = \text{algebraic}(\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda$
and $f_A(\lambda)$ splits...

Theorem 9

$n \times n$ matrix A diagonalizable
iff $\text{geom}(\lambda) = \text{algebraic}(\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda$
and $f_A(\lambda)$ splits

Determinant = Trace = Eigenvalues

Special case A = [lambda_1 * ... * lambda_n]

{ det A = lambda_1 * lambda_2 * ... * lambda_n }
{ tr A = lambda_1 + lambda_2 + ... + lambda_n }

Theorem 10 Let A be nxn matrix with eigenvalues lambda_1, ..., lambda_n listed with their algebras...

then { det A = lambda_1 * ... * lambda_n }
{ tr A = lambda_1 + ... + lambda_n }

f_A(lambda) = det(A - lambda I_n)
= (lambda_1 - lambda)(lambda_2 - lambda)...(lambda_n - lambda)

Let lambda = 0 -> f_A(0) = det A = lambda_1 * ... * lambda_n

tr A = lambda_1 + ... + lambda_n

f_A(lambda) = (-lambda)^n + (-lambda)^(n-1) tr(A) + ... + det A (duh...)
= (-lambda)^n + (-lambda)^(n-1) (lambda_1 + ... + lambda_n) + ... + det A

So tr A = sum_{i=1}^n lambda_i

(T/A) -> If A is similar to B then they have the same characteristic polynomial...

B = S^-1 A S -> det(B - lambda I_n) = det(S^-1 A S - lambda I_n)
= det(S^-1 (A - lambda I_n) S)
= det(S^-1) * det(A - lambda I_n) * det(S)
= det(A - lambda I_n) = f_A(lambda) show = det(A - lambda I_n) = f_A(lambda)

Theorem 11

$\boxed{\text{If } A \sim B \text{ then } f_A(\lambda) = f_B(\lambda)}$

Thus $A \sim B$ have the same eigenvalues with the same algebraic

mult

$\det A = \det B$

and $\text{tr} A = \text{tr} B$

$\boxed{\text{T/F if } f_A(\lambda) = f_B(\lambda), \text{ then } A \sim B}$

FALSE

$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$f_A(\lambda) = f_B(\lambda) = (1-\lambda)^2$

But $A \not\sim B$ because $I_n \text{ only } \sim I_n$