

2 Linear Algebra

• linear algebra = study of vectors and rules to manipulate vectors
 to solve the linear equation problem

1) geometric vectors (most familiar)

⇒ can be added or multiplied by scalar. $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$ / $\lambda \vec{x}$

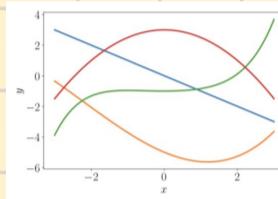
We can present our intuition about "direction", "magnitude"

2) polynomials

A polynomial of degree n is described as:

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n.$$

⇒ can be added or multiplied by scalar



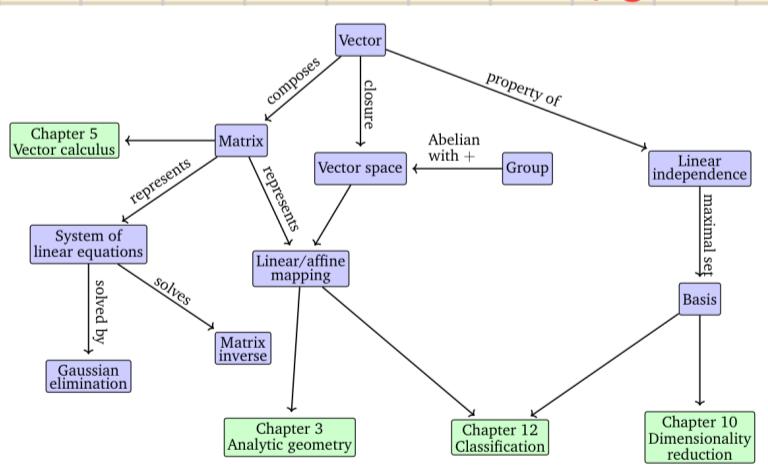
3) Elements of \mathbb{R}^n

= array of numbers in computer

$$\text{ex)} a = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \Rightarrow a+b \in \mathbb{R}^3, 2a \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

\mathbb{R}^n = tuples of n real numbers

= n -dimensional real coordinate space (n차원 실수 공간)



2.1 Systems of Linear Equations = 선형 연립방정식

- Linear algebra gives us tools for solving systems of linear equations
 - These can be one / unique / infinite!
- ↓
- Linear regression
(OLS or MLE 활용)

Matrix inverse
행렬의 소거법
- to find solution

a total of

$$a_{i1}x_1 + \dots + a_{in}x_n \quad (2.2)$$

many units of resource R_i . An optimal production plan $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, therefore, has to satisfy the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ \vdots & , \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

where $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix} + \dots + x_n \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.9) \iff \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.10)$$

2.2 Matrices

- ⇒ 1) represent systems of linear equations
- 2) represent linear functions (linear mappings)

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times n}$ ⇒ set of n column vectors which is (matrix)
- identity matrix ⇒ $n \times n$ matrix containing 1 on the diagonal and 0 everywhere else
- matrix inverse
⇒ square matrix \Rightarrow 22.2. 2 inverse matrix unique etc.

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 3x_2 + 5x_3 &= 1 \\ 4x_1 - 2x_2 - 7x_3 &= 8 \\ 9x_1 + 5x_2 - 3x_3 &= 2 \end{aligned} \quad (2.35)$$

and use the rules for matrix multiplication, we can write this equation system in a more compact form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 4 & -2 & -7 \\ 9 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.36)$$

$$\begin{aligned} AA^{-1} &= I = A^{-1}A & (2.26) \\ (AB)^{-1} &= B^{-1}A^{-1} & (2.27) \\ (A+B)^{-1} &\neq A^{-1} + B^{-1} & (2.28) \\ (A^T)^T &= A & (2.29) \\ (A+B)^T &= A^T + B^T & (2.30) \\ (AB)^T &= B^T A^T & (2.31) \end{aligned}$$

2.3 Solving Systems of Linear Equations

(연립방정식) → 가우스 소거법 연습

For $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we seek all solutions of the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} -2x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 - x_4 + 4x_5 &= -3 \\ 4x_1 - 8x_2 + 3x_3 - 3x_4 + x_5 &= 2 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 - x_4 + x_5 &= 0 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 - 3x_4 + 4x_5 &= a \end{aligned} \quad (2.44)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} -2 & 4 & -2 & -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 4 & -8 & 3 & -3 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & 4 & a \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{①} \leftrightarrow \text{③}} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & -8 & 3 & -3 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 4 & -2 & 1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & 4 & a \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & 4 & a \end{array} \right] \xleftarrow{\text{③} = \text{③} + \text{①}x_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & -3 & 4 & a \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 & a \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{④} = \text{④} - \text{②}} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 & a \end{array} \right]$$

$$\downarrow \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -3 & 6 & a-2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{③} = \text{③} \times \frac{1}{3}} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a+1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\therefore a = -1$$

$$\downarrow \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{②} = \text{②} - \text{③}}$$

$\left[\begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$ REF Row echelon form

x_1, x_3, x_4 : pivot variable!

x_2, x_5 : free variable : 임의의 A를

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 + 0 + 0 - 2x_5 &= 2 \\ 0 & 0 - x_3 + 0 - x_5 = 1 \\ 0 & 0 0 + x_4 - 2x_5 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\downarrow \quad x_1 = 2x_2 + 2x_5 + 2$$

$$x_3 = -x_5 - 1$$

$$x_4 = x_5 + 1$$

↓

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right] + x_2 \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right] + x_5 \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right] = \text{부여 } a, b, c \text{ 의 선형결합}$$

임의의 실수

2.4 Vector Spaces

\mathbb{R}^n

Closure
Associativity
Neutral element
Inverse
"group"

1. Vector space: $V = (V, +, \cdot)$ is a set of vector V with two operations ($+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$, $\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$)

Definition 2.9 (Vector Space). A real-valued vector space $V = (V, +, \cdot)$ is a set V with two operations

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$$

where

$$1. (V, +) \text{ is an Abelian group } \vec{a} + \vec{b} = \vec{b} + \vec{a}$$

2. Distributivity:

$$1. \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V : \lambda \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{x} + \lambda \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$2. \forall \lambda, \psi \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in V : (\lambda + \psi) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{x} + \psi \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

$$3. \text{Associativity (outer operation)} : \forall \lambda, \psi \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in V : \lambda \cdot (\psi \cdot \mathbf{x}) = (\lambda\psi) \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

$$4. \text{Neutral element with respect to the outer operation} : \forall \mathbf{x} \in V : 1 \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

“ \vec{v} 의 결과 연산”

Scaling

$$(2.62)$$

$$(2.63) \quad \text{REV. } \forall \lambda, \psi \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$1. \text{Closure} : \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v} \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$2. \text{Associativity} : (\lambda \cdot \mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \lambda \cdot (\psi \cdot \mathbf{x})$$

$$3. \text{Neutral element} : \mathbf{v} + \underline{\mathbf{0}} = \mathbf{v} \text{ or } \underline{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{v}$$

$$4. \text{inverse} : \mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \underline{\mathbf{0}}, \mathbf{v} \cdot \underline{v^{-1}} = 1$$

e.g. \mathbb{R}^n : n-dimensional real coordinate space

all n-dimensional real vectors with n components

“(x₁, …, x_n) 으로 정의되는 모든 어떤 정의되는 공간”

(이 벡터 공간)

Example 2.11 (Vector Spaces)

Let us have a look at some important examples:

Vector space

G(V, +, ·)

⊗ + : V × V → V addition

⊗ · : R × V → V multiplication by scalars

* ⊗ : operation

X : operation indicated
(+, ·)

▪ $V = \mathbb{R}^n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ is a vector space with operations defined as follows:

- Addition: $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$ for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- Multiplication by scalars: $\lambda \mathbf{x} = \lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

▪ $V = \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ is a vector space with

- Addition: $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$ is defined elementwise for all $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in V$

- Multiplication by scalars: $\lambda \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda a_{11} & \dots & \lambda a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \lambda a_{m1} & \dots & \lambda a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$ as defined in

Section 2.2. Remember that $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is equivalent to \mathbb{R}^{mn} .

▪ $V = \mathbb{C}$, with the standard definition of addition of complex numbers.

2. Vector Subspace

- 이 벡터 공간

- \mathbb{R}^n 의 벡터가 선형연산에 단한 벡터공간

$$V = (V, +, \cdot), U \subseteq V \text{ 일 때,}$$

$$U(U, +, \cdot) \subseteq \text{vector subspace}$$

vector
space

to use vector subspaces for dimensionality reduction.

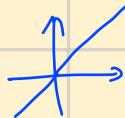
Definition 2.10 (Vector Subspace). Let $V = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space and $U \subseteq V, U \neq \emptyset$. Then $U = (U, +, \cdot)$ is called vector subspace of V (or linear subspace) if U is a vector space with the vector space operations + and · restricted to $U \times U$ and $\mathbb{R} \times U$. We write $U \subseteq V$ to denote a subspace U of V .

[Vector Subspace]

- 이 벡터 공간

- 선형연산에 단한 벡터공간

e.g. in \mathbb{R}^2 , 원점을 지나는 직선



[Column Space] = Matrix Subspace

행렬의 행렬 A의 대체

→ Column들의 선형연산에
단한 Subspace

2.5 Linear Independence

[Linear combination]

$V(v, +, \cdot)$ により v 의 합과 곱의 addition, multiplication by scalar 연산으로 얻어지는 것을 ($v \in V, v = \lambda_1x_1 + \dots + \lambda_nx_n$)

[Linear independency]

($\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$)

in \mathbb{R}^n , n -dimensional vector space, let us consider k vectors (v) and $k \lambda$ ($\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$), then we can get the linear combination like this: $0 = \sum_{i=1}^k v_i \lambda_i$. and if we cannot get the solution of this equation with at least one $\lambda_i \neq 0$, then $V(v_1, \dots, v_k)$ is linearly dependent.

if there is only unique solution with $\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_k = 0$, then, $V(v_1, \dots, v_k)$ is linearly independent.

[선형독립 학습 방법]

1. Gaussian Elimination 통해 Row Echelon form의 Pivot variable 학습. (free variable 존재하면 종속)

2. $m \begin{bmatrix} n \end{bmatrix}$: if $m > n$ 이면, 선형종속. Why? $m > n$ 이면, 해의 개수가 무수히 많아짐, 즉, $\begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$ 의 solution set이 '0' 벡터 외에도 더 많다는 의미로,

[선형 종속의 예시]

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_2 &= x_1 + x_3 \\ \Rightarrow \text{Linearly Dependent} \\ &\quad (x_1 - x_3) \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} \Rightarrow x_1 - 3x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \\ \downarrow \\ x_1, x_2, x_3 &= 1, -3, 1 \end{aligned}$$

선형 종속일 수 밖에 없다!

2.6 Basis and Rank

1. generating sets : Sets of vectors that span Vector space or vector subspace

2. Span of A : Set of all linear combination of vectors in vector space (H) or subspace (A)

3. basis :

A basis is a minimal generating set and a maximal linearly independent set of vectors.

• dimension : the number of basis vector

4. rank : 선형독립인 Column vector의 개수

5. *square matrix 를, full-rank 이면 가능

6. *full-rank, $M \times N$ matrix A

$$\text{rank}(A) = \min(M, n)$$

2.7 Linear Mappings

1. Linear mapping

if, $\forall x, y \in V, \forall \lambda, \varphi \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(\lambda x + \varphi y) = \lambda f(x) + \varphi f(y) \text{ holds,}$$

$f: V \rightarrow W$, (V, W are vector spaces) is linear mapping

2. Matrix

① linear mapping

② collection of vectors

3. injective, surjective, bijective

$f: V \rightarrow W$. linear mapping f

one-to-one
unique solution

onto

for every y ,
 x has unique
solution

① injective : $\forall x, y \in V, f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x = y$.

② surjective : $f(V) = W$

"codomain is equal to its image"

③ bijective : injective and surjective

4. invertible

'f' is invertible if and only if there is unique solution
of x , for every y subject to

$\exists x$, bijective \Leftrightarrow invertible \Leftrightarrow function of 될 수 있다.

[inversible 여부 증명]

$$T: \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{(V)} \mathbb{R}^m \xrightarrow{(W)}, T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \text{ 일 때, } (n \times 1) \quad (m \times n)$$

T, A는 invertible?

Ans) No, A, T is not invertible because it is not bijective.

① Surjective 하가?

* Surjective: if, $E(v) = W$, E is surjective mapping

Surjective라면, A의 REF 가 pivot variable이 m (span of $V = W$) 이면, $\text{rank}(A) = m$ 이면, A, T는 surjective mapping (이어야 함)

② injective 하가?

* injective: $E(x) = E(y) \Rightarrow x = y$, E is injective mapping

injective라면, $N(A) = \{\emptyset\}$, 즉 선형독립

$\therefore \text{rank}(A) = n$ 이면. 선형독립 $\rightarrow E$ is injective mapping.

③ $\therefore \text{rank}(A) = m = n$, A가 square matrix 여야
bijection \Leftrightarrow invertible!

$\therefore A$ 는 Not invertible



* 왜 injective 이면 선형독립 ($N(A) = \{\emptyset\}$)인가?

injective라면, $E(x) = E(y) \rightarrow x = y \iff E(x) - E(y) = 0 = x - y$

\iff

$\iff E(x) - E(y) = 0 = x - y \iff E(x - y) = 0$ ($\because E$ is linear mapping)

$\iff \iff E(x - y) = 0 = x - y$ 일 때, $x - y$ 를 'v'라는 벡터 ($v \in V$)로 치환.

$\iff E(v) = 0 = v$

$\iff E(\sum c_i v_i) = 0 = \sum c_i v_i$

* $N(A) = ?$ $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$, $N(A)$: all \vec{x} that satisfies $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$



* 왜 injective 이면 선형동형 ($N(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$)인가?

injective 라면, $\mathcal{F}(x) = \mathcal{F}(y) \rightarrow x = y \iff \mathcal{F}(x) - \mathcal{F}(y) = 0 = x - y$

$\iff \mathcal{F}(x) - \mathcal{F}(y) = 0 = x - y \iff \mathcal{F}(x - y) = 0$ ($\because \mathcal{F}$ is linear mapping)

$\iff \mathcal{F}(x - y) = 0 = x - y$ 일 때, $x - y$ 는 벡터 ($v \in V$)를 치환.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}(v) = 0 = v$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}(\sum c_i v_i) = 0 = \sum c_i v_i$

5. Morphism

① Isomorphism : $\mathcal{F} : V \rightarrow W$, linear and bijective 동형

* homomorphism : $\mathcal{F} : V \rightarrow W$, linear and surjective or injective 준동형

② Endomorphism : $\mathcal{F} : V \rightarrow V$, linear 자기

③ Automorphism : $\mathcal{F} : V \rightarrow V$, linear and bijective 자기동형

* Space V and W is isomorphic if and only if $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$

(\mathcal{F} should be linear and bijective, T is square)

($\mathcal{F} : V \rightarrow W$, $AT = B$ ($A \in V$, $B \in W$))

6. Coordinates (좌표)

: 어떤 벡터를 표기하기 위해, 기저 벡터의 선형조합, 선형조합의 계수벡터

7. Transformation Matrix

Definition 2.19 (Transformation Matrix). Consider vector spaces V, W with corresponding (ordered) bases $B = (\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n)$ and $C = (\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m)$. Moreover, we consider a linear mapping $\Phi : V \rightarrow W$. For $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\Phi(\mathbf{b}_j) = \alpha_{1j}\mathbf{c}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{mj}\mathbf{c}_m = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_{ij}\mathbf{c}_i \quad (2.92)$$

is the unique representation of $\Phi(\mathbf{b}_j)$ with respect to C . Then, we call the $m \times n$ -matrix A_Φ , whose elements are given by

$$A_\Phi(i, j) = \alpha_{ij}, \quad (2.93)$$

the *transformation matrix* of Φ (with respect to the ordered bases B of V and C of W).

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_\Phi & \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ A_\Phi & \mathbf{b}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

basis of W transformation matrix basis of V

8. basis change

① Coordinate의 변환 (기저변환과 관계)

2.7 Linear Mappings

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[좌표변환]

A basis effectively defines a coordinate system. We are familiar with the Cartesian coordinate system in two dimensions, which is spanned by the canonical basis vectors e_1, e_2 . In this coordinate system, a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ has a representation that tells us how to linearly combine e_1 and e_2 to obtain x . However, any basis of \mathbb{R}^2 defines a valid coordinate system, and the same vector x from before may have a different coordinate representation in the (b_1, b_2) basis. In Figure 2.8, the coordinates of x with respect to the standard basis (e_1, e_2) is $[2, 2]^\top$. However, with respect to the basis (b_1, b_2) the same vector x is represented as $[1.09, 0.72]^\top$, i.e., $x = 1.09b_1 + 0.72b_2$. In the following sections, we will discover how to obtain this representation.

Example 2.20

Let us have a look at a geometric vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with coordinates $[2, 3]^\top$ with respect to the standard basis (e_1, e_2) of \mathbb{R}^2 . This means, we can write $x = 2e_1 + 3e_2$. However, we do not have to choose the standard basis to represent this vector. If we use the basis vectors $b_1 = [1, -1]^\top, b_2 = [1, 1]^\top$ we will obtain the coordinates $\frac{1}{2}[-1, 5]^\top$ to represent the same vector with respect to (b_1, b_2) (see Figure 2.9).

$$\begin{aligned} [e_1^\top \ e_2^\top] \begin{bmatrix} x_{e_1} \\ x_{e_2} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{b_1} \\ x_{b_2} \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} x_{b_1} \\ x_{b_2} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

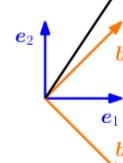
Figure 2.9
Different coordinate representations of a vector x , depending on the choice of basis.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 2e_1 + 3e_2 \\ x &= -\frac{1}{2}b_1 + \frac{5}{2}b_2 \end{aligned}$$

기저변환
다를
좌표는 달라진다.

Remark. For an n -dimensional vector space V and an ordered basis B of V , the mapping $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V, \Phi(e_i) = b_i, i = 1, \dots, n$, is linear (and because of Theorem 2.17 an isomorphism), where (e_1, \dots, e_n) is the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

◊



Now we are ready to make an explicit connection between matrices and linear mappings between finite-dimensional vector spaces.

(2) Transformation Matrix의 변환 (기준 베이스의 변환과 다른)

$$\tilde{A}_{\mathbb{B}} = T^{-1} A_{\mathbb{S}} T$$

Theorem 2.20 (Basis Change). For a linear mapping $\Phi : V \rightarrow W$, ordered bases

$$B = (\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n), \quad \tilde{B} = (\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_1, \dots, \tilde{\mathbf{b}}_n) \quad (2.103)$$

$$C = (\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m), \quad \tilde{C} = (\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_1, \dots, \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_m) \quad (2.104)$$

of V and W , and a transformation matrix A_{Φ} of Φ with respect to B and C , the corresponding transformation matrix \tilde{A}_{Φ} with respect to the bases \tilde{B} and \tilde{C} is given as

$$\tilde{A}_{\Phi} = T^{-1} A_{\Phi} S. \quad (2.105)$$

Here, $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the transformation matrix of id_V that maps coordinates with respect to \tilde{B} onto coordinates with respect to B , and $T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is the transformation matrix of id_W that maps coordinates with respect to \tilde{C} onto coordinates with respect to C .

Example 2.24 (Basis Change)

Consider a linear mapping $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ whose transformation matrix is

$$A_{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 7 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.117)$$

with respect to the standard bases

$$B = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right), \quad C = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right). \quad (2.118)$$

We seek the transformation matrix \tilde{A}_{Φ} of Φ with respect to the new bases

$$\tilde{B} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^3, \quad \tilde{C} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right). \quad (2.119)$$

Then,

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.120)$$

where the i th column of S is the coordinate representation of $\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i$ in terms of the basis vectors of B . Since B is the standard basis, the coordinate representation is straightforward to find. For a general basis B , we would need to solve a linear equation system to find the λ_i such that

$\tilde{\mathbf{b}}_i = \sum \lambda_j \mathbf{b}_j$

$$\begin{aligned} & S(\tilde{B} \text{ onto } B) \\ & A_{\mathbb{B}} \left(\begin{array}{c|c} B & \tilde{B} \\ \hline C & \tilde{C} \end{array} \right) \tilde{A}_{\mathbb{B}} \\ & \tilde{A}_{\mathbb{B}} = T^{-1} A_{\Phi} S \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.23 (Basis Change)

Consider a transformation matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{based on } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.100)$$

with respect to the canonical basis in \mathbb{R}^2 . If we define a new basis

$$B = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad \text{Are they linearly independent?} \quad (2.101)$$

we obtain a diagonal transformation matrix

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = B A B^{-1} \quad (2.102) \quad \text{(not } B^{-1} A B)$$

with respect to B , which is easier to work with than A .

$$\begin{aligned} & E = (e_1, e_2) \xrightarrow{B^{-1}} B = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \xrightarrow{A} \tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ & \text{* A mapping is } V \rightarrow V, \\ & \therefore \text{Transformation matrix } \tilde{A} \text{ is also } 2 \times 2. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } \tilde{A} = B A B^{-1}$$