

MATH405: Linear Algebra

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1 Vector Space

Goals of this course is to discuss

- Vector spaces
- Linear transformations between vector spaces
- Other operations on vector spaces

1.1 Definitions

Definition - Field: A set of numbers containing 0, 1 that can be added, subtracted, multiplied, and divided (except cannot divide by 0) that satisfy the following **Field Axioms**

1. $a, b \in K \implies a + b, ab \in K$
2. $+, \times$ are commutative so $a + b = b + a$ and $ab = ba$
3. $+, \times$ are associative so $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ and $a(bc) = (ab)c$
4. Distributive Law: $a(b + c) = ab + ac$
5. Additive Identity: $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$
6. Multiplicative Identity: $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$
7. Additive Inverse: $\forall a \in K, \exists b$ such that $a + b = 0$, namely $b = -a$ which is unique
8. Multiplicative Inverse: $\forall a \in K, \exists b$ such that $ab = 1$, name $b = 1/a$ which is unique

Example: R, Q are fields. Z is not a field since there is no multiplicative inverse of 2

Example: $C = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in R\}$, where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ is a field under

- $+$: $(a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i$
- \times : $(a + bi)(c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$

Example: $F_2 = \{0, 1\}$ is a field under

- $+$: where
$$0 + 0 = 0$$
$$0 + 1 = 1 + 0 = 1$$
$$1 + 1 = 0$$
- \times : where
$$0 \cdot 0 = 0$$
$$0 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 0 = 0$$
$$1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

Example: For a prime p , let $F_p = \{0, \dots, p-1\}$. Then F_p is a field under

- $+$: $a + b \pmod{p}$
- \times : $ab \pmod{p}$

Definition - Vector Space: For an arbitrary field K , a K -vector space is a set V , with a distinguished element O , such that any 2 elements in V can be added and scalar multiplied by $c \in K$

- $u, v \in V \implies u + v \in V$
- $c \in K, u \in V \implies cu \in V$

Satisfying the following properties

1. Commutative Addition: $u + v = v + u$
2. Associative Addition: $(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$

3. Additive Identity: $u + O = u$
4. Additive Inverse: $\forall u \in V, \exists v \in V$ such that $u + v = O$, namely $v = -u$ which is unique
5. Distributive Laws: $\forall a, b \in K, a(u + v) = au + av$ and $(a + b)u = au + bu$
6. Commutative Scalar Multiplication: $(ab)u = a(bu)$
7. Multiplicative Identity: $1 \cdot u = u$

Example: R^3 is an R -vector space defined by the operations

$$R^3 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in R\}$$

- $+$: add componentwise so $(a, b, c) + (d, e, f) = (a + d, b + e, c + f)$
- Scalar \times : for $r \in R, r(a, b, c) = (ra, rb, rc)$
- Additive Identity is $O = (0, 0, 0)$

Example: For any field K, K^2 is a K -vector space defined by the operations

$$K^2 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in K\}$$

- $+$: add componentwise so $(a, b) + (c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$
- Scalar \times : for $k \in K, k(a, b) = (ka, kb)$
- Additive Identity is $O = (0, 0)$

Example: R is an R -vector space since clearly the necessary properties hold

Example R is a Q -vector space since clearly the necessary properties hold

- Notably, for $q \in Q$ and $r \in R$, we have $qr \in R$. Thus scalar multiplication is closed

Example: For any field K , the set $\{O\}$ is a K -vector space

Example: Let X be any non-empty set and let $\mathcal{F}(X)$ be the set of all functions $f : X \rightarrow R$. Then \mathcal{F} is an R -vector space under the operations

- $+$: for $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(X)$, define $f + g := (f + g)(x)$
- Scalar \times : let $r \in R$, then define $rf := r(f(x))$
- Additive Identity is $O = f(x) = 0$, the function that takes any x to 0

Example: Take $X = N$ and let $F(X) = \{ \text{all functions } f : N \rightarrow R \}$ is a vector space

- **Note:** $f : N \rightarrow R$ is a sequence (a_0, \dots, a_n) where $a_n = f(n)$

Lemma 1 - Cancellation: For $u, v, w \in V$ and if $u + v = w + v$, then $u = w$

Proof: $v \in V$ has an additive inverse, namely $-v$. Thus we have

$$u + v - v = w + v - v \implies u = w$$

Lemma 2 - Unique Additive Inverse: For all $v \in V$, there is a unique additive inverse, namely $-v$

Proof: Suppose u, w are both additive inverses of v . Then we have

$$v + u = v + w \implies u = w$$

Lemma 3 - 0 Times a Vector: For all $v \in V$, $0v = O$

Proof: $v = 1v = (0 + 1)v = 0v + 1v = 0v + v \implies 0v = O$

Lemma 4 - $(-1)v$ is the Additive Inverse: For all $v \in V$, $(-1)v$ is the unique additive inverse of v

Proof: $(-1)v + v = (-1 + 1)v = 0v = O$. Thus $(-1)v$ is the additive inverse of v , which is unique by Lemma 2

Definition - Subspace: For a K -vector space V and a non-empty subset $W \subseteq V$, W is a **subspace** if it satisfies

- $w_1, w_2 \in W \implies w_1 + w_2 \in W$
- $\forall a \in K, w \in W \implies aw \in W$
- $O \in W$

Theorem 1: Every subspace of a K -vector space is a K -vector space

Proof: We need to show that $W \subseteq V$ satisfies all the necessary properties of a vector space

1. Verify $O \in W$

Since W is non-empty and closed under scalar multiplication, take $0w = O \in W$ by Lemma 3

2. $u, v \in W \implies u + v \in W$ and $a \in K, v \in W \implies av \in W$ by definition of subspace

3. Every $w \in W$ has an additive inverse, namely $-w$

Since W is closed under scalar multiplication, $(-1)w = -w \in W$ by Lemma 4

4. Other conditions (associative addition, commutative addition, etc.) hold because $u, v, w \in W \implies u, v, w \in V$

For example, choose $u, v \in W$, then $u + v = v + u$, since $u, v \in V$. Thus commutative addition is satisfied

Example: Take $(5, 3, 2) \in R^3$. Then let $W = \{r(5, 3, 2) \mid r \in R\}$

Then W is an R -vector space. We prove this by showing that W is a subspace of R^3

- $+$: Choose 2 arbitrary elements of W , $r(5, 3, 2)$ and $s(5, 3, 2)$ for $r, s \in R$

Then $r(5, 3, 2) + s(5, 3, 2) = (r + s)(5, 3, 2) \in W$

- \times : Choose $r(5, 3, 2) \in W$ and take $s \in R$

Then $s(r(5, 3, 2)) = (sr)(5, 3, 2) \in W$

Example: Let $U = \{(x, y, z) \in R^3 \mid 2x + 3y = 0\}$. We show that U is a vector space by showing it's a subspace of R^3

- $+$: Take (x_1, y_1, z_1) and $(x_2, y_2, z_2) \in U \implies 2x_1 + 3y_1 = 0$ and $2x_2 + 3y_2 = 0$

Then $2(x_1 + x_2) + 3(y_1 + y_2) = 0$

Thus $(x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2, z_1 + z_2) \in U$

- \times : Let $(x, y, z) \in U$ and $r \in R$

Then $2x + 3y = 0 \implies r(2x + 3y) = 2rx + 3ry = 0$

Thus $r(x, y, z) \in U$

Example: Consider $\sin(x), \cos(x) \in \mathcal{F}(R)$ and let $W = \{a \sin(x) + b \cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$. Then W is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(R)$

- $+$: Take $a_1 \sin(x) + b_1 \cos(x)$ and $a_2 \sin(x) + b_2 \cos(x) \in W$. Then $(a_1 + a_2) \sin(x) + (b_1 + b_2) \cos(x) \in W$
- \times : Take $r \in R$. Then $r(a \sin(x) + b \cos(x)) = (ra) \sin(x) + (rb) \cos(x) \in W$

1.2 Basis

Definition - Linear Combination: For vectors $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq V$, a **linear combination** of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a vector of the form

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \quad a_i \in K$$

Definition - Span: $\text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}) = \{ \text{all linear combinations of } \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \}$

Proposition 1: $W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$ is a subspace of V and thus is itself a K -Vector Space

Proof: We show that W satisfies the necessary criteria to be a subspace of V

- $+$: Let $a = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \in W$ and $b = b_1v_1 + \dots + b_nv_n \in W$

Then $a + b = (a_1 + b_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_n + b_n)v_n \in W$

Thus W is closed under addition

- Scalar \times : Let $a = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \in W$ and let $c \in K$

Then $ca = (ca_1)v_1 + \dots + (ca_n)v_n \in W$

Thus W is closed under scalar multiplication

Example: Take $(5, 3, 1)$ and $(4, 0, -2) \in R^3$

$\text{span}(\{(5, 3, 1), (4, 0, -2)\})$ is a plane in R^3 passing through $(0, 0, 0)$

Example: Take $(5, 3, 1)$ and $(10, 6, 2) \in R^3$

$\text{span}(\{(5, 3, 1), (10, 6, 2)\})$ is a line in R^3 passing through $(0, 0, 0)$

- **Note:** $(10, 6, 2) = 2(5, 3, 1)$. Thus $\text{span}(\{(5, 3, 1), (10, 6, 2)\}) = a_1(5, 3, 1) + a_2(10, 6, 2) = (a_1 + 2a_2)(5, 3, 1)$

Definition - Linearly Independent: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is **linearly independent** if whenever $a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = 0$, then $a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$

- Otherwise $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is **linearly dependent**

Proposition 2: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent if and only if no v_i is a linearly combination of the other $n - 1$ vectors

Proof: \implies Assume $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent

BWOC, assume some $v_i = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n$ for some $v_i \notin \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Then we have

$$O = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n + (-1)v_i$$

Since v_i is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, the above equation shows that $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly dependent. Contradiction

Thus v_i cannot be written as a linear combination of the other vectors

\Leftarrow Assume by way of contraposition that $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is not linearly independent

Thus choose $a_1, \dots, a_n \in K$, not all 0 such that

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = O$$

WLOG, assume $a_1 \neq 0$. Then $v_2a_2 + \dots + a_nv_n = -a_1v_1$

Since $a_1 \neq 0$ and K is a field, we have

$$v_1 = \frac{a_2}{-a_1}v_2 + \dots + \frac{a_n}{-a_1}v_n$$

Thus we have shown that v_1 is a linear combination of the other $n - 1$ vectors

Corollary 3: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent if and only if for each i , $v_i \notin \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \setminus \{v_i\})$

Proof: This follows from the previous proposition

Definition - Spans: Let W be a K -Vector Space and $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq W$. If $\text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}) = W$, then $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ **spans** W , so every $w \in W$ is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Definition - Basis: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a **basis** of W if it spans W and is linearly independent

Example: $\{(5, 3, 1), (4, 0, -2)\}$ is a basis for $\text{span}(\{(5, 3, 1), (4, 0, -2)\})$

Example: $\{(5, 3, 1), (10, 6, 2)\}$ is not a basis for $\text{span}(\{(5, 3, 1), (10, 6, 2)\})$ since it is not linearly independent

Proposition 4: Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for W and let $w \in W$ be arbitrary. Then w can be written uniquely as

$$w = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \quad a_i \in K$$

Proof: Since $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ spans W , every $w \in W$ is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

For uniqueness, suppose

$$w = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = b_1v_1 + \dots + b_nv_n$$

Then we have

$$0 = (b_1 - a_1)v_1 + \dots + (b_n - a_n)v_n$$

Since $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent, we must have $b_i - a_i = 0$, and thus $b_i = a_i$ for each i

Thus each $w \in W$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Example: Let $W = \text{span}(\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\}) = \{a \sin(x) + b \cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$

We know that W is an R -Vector Space

$\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\}$ is linearly independent. Otherwise $\sin(x) = r \cos(x)$ for all $x \in X$ and some $r \in R$. However, this cannot hold for when $x = \pi/2$ since $\sin(\pi/2) = 1 \neq r \cos(\pi/2) = r \cdot 0$

1.3 Dimension

Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq V$ and let $W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$

Now let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$. Then there are 2 desirable properties of X

- **X is Big:** X spans W if $\text{span}(X) = W$, i.e. all $w \in W$ is a linear combination of elements from X
- **X is Small:** X is linearly independent, i.e. no element in X is a linear combination of the remaining elements

Note: the empty set \emptyset is linearly independent since no element in \emptyset is a linear combination of the others. More notably, \emptyset is a basis for $\{0\}$

Shrinking Lemma: Let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ and spans W but X is not linearly independent. Then $X \setminus \{w_i\}$ still spans W for some $w_i \in X$

Proof: Since X is not linearly independent, we know that some w_i is a linear combination of elements in $X \setminus \{w_i\}$. Suppose

$$w_i = a_1w_1 + \dots + a_mw_m \quad \text{without } w_i \text{ occurring}$$

Then take arbitrary $u \in W$ where

$$u = b_1w_1 + \dots + b_mw_m$$

Replacing w_i above with the previous equation, we see that u is a linear combination of $X \setminus \{w_i\}$

Thus $X \setminus \{w_i\} = \text{span}(W)$

Shrinking Theorem: Let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ span W . Then for some subset $Y \subseteq X$ is a basis of W

Proof:

Case 0: If X is linearly independent, then X is a basis by definition

Otherwise, apply the shrinking lemma to get $X_1 = X \setminus \{w_i\}$, which spans W

Case 1: If X_1 is linearly independent, then X_1 is a basis

...

Since X is finite (it has m elements), we will stop eventually. Either

- Some X_i is linearly independent. Thus X_i is a basis for W
- Otherwise if we hit case m: $X_m = \emptyset$, which is linearly independent, and thus X_m spans $W = \{O\}$

Corollary: If $W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$, then some subset of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis

- **Note:** In particular, W has to have a basis

Enlarging Lemma: Suppose $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ and is linearly independent but doesn't span W . Then for any $w \in W \setminus \text{span}(X)$, $X \cup \{w\}$ is still linearly independent

Proof: Suppose $a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_m w_m + b w = O$. We show that $a_1 = \dots = a_m = b = 0$

Suppose BWOC, $b \neq 0$, then we can solve for w

$$w = \frac{-a_1}{b} w_1 + \dots + \frac{-a_m}{b} w_m$$

Which means that $w \in \text{span}(X)$. Contradiction

Thus $b = 0$. This gives

$$a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_m w_m + 0w = O$$

Since $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, we also have $a_1 = \dots = a_m = 0$

Thus $X \cup \{w\}$ is linearly independent

Main Question: does the enlarging process above terminate? After some steps, do we get a set $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ that spans W ?

Exchanging Lemma: Let $X = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be any basis for W . Choose any $w \in W$ but $w \notin \text{span}(\{v_k, \dots, v_n\})$. Then $\exists v_i, i < k$, such that $Y = (X \setminus \{v_i\}) \cup \{w\}$ is still a basis

- **Note:** If $k > n$, then $\{v_k, \dots, v_n\} = \emptyset$

Proof: First we show that $\text{span}(Y) = W$. Since X spans W , we can write

$$w = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n \implies v_1 = \frac{1}{a_1} w + \frac{-a_2}{a_1} v_2 + \dots + \frac{-a_n}{a_1} v_n$$

Since $w \notin \text{span}(\{v_k, \dots, v_n\})$, we must have $a_i \neq 0$ for some $i < k$

WLOG, let $a_1 \neq 0$. We show that Y spans W

Since X spans W , for arbitrary $u \in W$, we have

$$u = d_1 v_1 + \dots + d_n v_n$$

Replacing v_1 above with the previous equation, we see that u is a linear combination of elements of Y and thus $u \in \text{span}(Y)$

Thus $\text{span}(Y) = W$

Next we show that Y is linearly independent

Suppose we have

$$cw + b_2v_2 + b_nv_n = O$$

We show that $c = b_2 = \dots = b_n = 0$

- If $c = 0 \implies b_2 = \dots = b_n = 0$ since $\{b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ is linearly independent
- Otherwise suppose $c \neq 0$, then we can solve for w

$$w = \frac{-b_2}{c}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-b_n}{c}v_n \implies v_1 = \frac{1}{a_1}\left(\frac{-b_2}{c}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-b_n}{c}v_n\right) + \frac{-a_1}{a_1}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-a_m}{a_1}v_m$$

Thus v_1 is a linear combination of $\{v_2, \dots, v_n\}$. Contradiction since we said X was linearly independent. Thus $c = 0$

Theorem: Let $X = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for W , and let $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ be linearly independent. Then $m \leq n$

Proof: If $m < n$, we are done

Now assume $m \geq n$, we show that $m = n$

Since $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, we have that $w_1 \neq O = \text{span}(\emptyset)$

Now apply the Exchanging Lemma to the basis X , with $k > n$ and w_1 . Then $\exists v_i$ such that $X_1 = (X \setminus \{v_i\}) \cup \{w_1\}$ is a basis

After reindexing, we see that X_1 has $n - 1$ vectors from X and 1 vector from w_1

Now take $k = n$. Since $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, $w_2 \notin \text{span}(\{w_1\})$

Thus applying the Exchanging Lemma again, there exists $j < k = n$ such that $X_2 = (X_1 \setminus \{v_j\}) \cup \{w_2\}$ is a basis

Reindexing again, we get that $X_2 = \{v_1, \dots, v_{n-2}, w_1, w_2\}$ is a basis

After n steps, X_n has no elements from X and $X_n = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ is a basis

Furthermore, we see that $w_m \in \text{span}(\{w_1, \dots, w_n\})$, contradicting that $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent

Thus $m = n$

Corollary: If W is any K -vector space and some basis of W has n elements, then every basis of W has n elements

Definition - Finite Dimensional: Let W be a K -vector space. Then W is **finite dimensional** if some basis for W is finite

Definition - Dimension: Number of elements in any basis for a vector space W

Corollary: Suppose $\dim(W) = n$ and $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ are any n -vectors

1. If X spans W , then X is a basis for W
2. If X is linearly independent, then X is a basis for W

Proof:

1. By Shrinking Theorem, there exists a basis $Y \subseteq X$

However, $|Y| < n$ contradicts that $\dim(W) = n$

Thus $Y = X$, i.e. X is a basis

2. By Enlarging Lemma, we can expand X to a basis Y

However, $|Y| > n$ contradicts that $\dim(W) = n$

Thus $Y = X$, i.e. X is a basis

1.3.1 Toolbox Corollaries and Results

The following are useful corollaries that can be used to prove additional interesting results

Let V be a K -Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$, i.e. V has some basis with n elements

1. Every basis for V has n elements
2. If $X \supseteq V$ and $\text{span}(X) = V$, then X has at least n elements and some subset $Y \subseteq X$ is a basis for V
3. If $Z \subseteq V$ is linearly independent, then Z has at most n elements and Z can be extended to a basis $Y \supseteq Z$ for V

Example: Let $V = R^3$. Since $\dim(V) = 3$, V has a basis with 3 elements

- Consider the **Standard Basis:** $B = \{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$

Suppose $X = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} \subseteq V$ for arbitrary vectors

- If $\text{span}(X) = V$ then X is a basis
- If X is linearly independent, since $|X| = 3$, X is a basis for V

Example: Describe all subspaces $W \subseteq R^3$

Note: Since $\dim(V) = 3$, we must have $\dim(W) \leq \dim(V) = 3$

- Case 0: $\dim(W) = 0$

Clearly $W = \{O\}$

- Case 1: $\dim(W) = 1$

W is a line going through $(0, 0, 0)$

Thus a basis for W will be $\{w\}$ for any nonzero $w \in W$

- Case 2: $\dim(W) = 2$

W is a plane containing $(0, 0, 0)$

Thus a basis for W will be any 2 element set $\{w_1, w_2\} \subseteq W$ such that

- Neither element is O
- w_2 is not a scalar multiple of w_1

- Case 3: $\dim(W) = 3$

Only possibility is $W = V = R^3$

Examples: Consider subspaces of $\mathcal{F}(R)$ and look at small subspaces

- $W = \text{span}(\{e^x\}) = \{re^x \mid r \in R\}$

This can be thought of as a 1-dimensional subspace of $\mathcal{F}(R)$

- $V = \text{span}(\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\}) = \{a \sin(x) + b \cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$

Clearly $\dim(V) = 2$

Consider $f(x) = \sin(x)$ $g(x) = \cos(x)$ $h(x) = 3 \sin(x) - 2 \cos(x)$

Since $h = 3f + (-2)g$, $\{f, g, h\}$ is not linearly independent

Thus $\text{span}(\{f, g, h\}) = \text{span}(\{f, g\})$

1.4 Direct Sums

Let V be a K -Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$. Let $W \subseteq V$ be a subspace of V . Then $\dim(W) \leq n$

Now choose another subspace $U \subseteq V$

Note: $W \cap U \neq \emptyset$ since both must contain O

Thus the smallest we can make $W \cap U$ is $\{O\}$

Furthermore, it can be shown that both $U \cap W$ and $U + W$ are both subspaces of V

Definition - Direct Sum: $U \oplus W$ is called a **direct sum** if

- $U \oplus W = U + W$
- $U \cap W = \{O\}$

We often look at cases where $V = U \oplus W$

Example: Consider R^3 and let W be any plane containing $(0, 0, 0)$

If U is any line through $(0, 0, 0)$ such that $U \not\subseteq W$, then $R^3 = W \oplus U$

Theorem: Let V be a K -Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$. Let $W \subseteq V$ be any subspace of V . Then there exists a subspace $U \subseteq V$ such that

$$V = U \oplus W$$

Proof: Choose any basis $Z = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ of W (we know that $m \leq n$)

Now extend Z to $Y = Z \cup \{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$, which is a basis for V

Let $U = \text{span}(\{u_1, \dots, u_r\})$. Then U is a subspace of V and $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ is a basis for U

- Show that $U \cap W = \{O\}$

Choose $v \in U \cap W$

Then we have $v = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_r u_r = b_1 w_1 + \dots + b_m w_m$

Since Y is a basis for V , then $\{u_1, \dots, u_r, w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent

Thus $v - v = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_r u_r - b_1 w_1 - \dots - b_m w_m = O \implies a_1 = \dots = a_r = b_1 = \dots = b_m = 0$

Thus $v = O$

- Show that $V = U + W$

Choose any $v \in V$

Since Y is a basis for V

$$v = \underbrace{a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_r u_r}_{u \in U} + \underbrace{b_1 w_1 + \dots + b_m w_m}_{w \in W}$$

Thus $v = u + w \implies V = U + W$

2 Matrices

Definition - $m \times n$ Matrix: Entries $\in K$ of the form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 2×3 matrix with entries $\in Q$

Note: Any 2×3 matrices can be added together componentwise or multiplied by a scalar, resulting in a 2×3 matrix

- Here the additive identity is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

- Here the additive inverse of A (from previous example) is $-A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & -3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$

Thus $\text{Mat}_{2 \times 3}(K)$, the set of all 2×3 matrices with entries in K is a K -Vector Space

Here the basis is $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

- Clearly spans since any 2×3 matrix $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \end{bmatrix}$ can be written as a linear combination of elements in B
- Clearly B is linearly independent since the only way to write O is to take each scalar $a_i = 0$

Thus $\dim(\text{Mat}_{2 \times 3}(K)) = 6$

Upshot: We can generalize the discussion above to show that $\text{Mat}_{m \times n}(K)$ is a K -Vector Space of $\dim = m \times n$

Example: $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, **symmetric 2×2 matrices**, is a subspace of $\text{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(K)$, which has dimension 4

Non-Example: $\text{Mat}(K)$ is NOT a Vector Space since addition between 2×2 and 3×3 matrices is not defined

Notation: $A_i = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{in})$, the i th row vector, is a $1 \times n$ matrix

Notation: $A^j = (a_{1j}, \dots, a_{mj})$, the j th column vector, is a $m \times 1$ matrix

Definition - Transpose: Given an $m \times n$ matrix A , the **transpose** tA is an $n \times m$ matrix that swaps the rows and columns, and vice versa

- **Note:** If A is a square $n \times n$ matrix, then tA is also a square $n \times n$ matrix

Example: ${}^t \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition - Matrix Multiplication: An $m \times n$ matrix A can multiply with an $n \times k$ matrix B where

$$C_{il} = \sum_{d=1}^n a_{id} b_{d,l}$$

- **Note:** If A, B are both $n \times n$ matrices, then AB is an $n \times n$ matrix
- **Upshot:** Square matrices are closed under transposition and matrix multiplication

Example: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$

2.1 Linear Equations

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} 5x_1 + 3x_2 - 6x_3 &= 8 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

We can represent this using

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & -6 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \implies AX = B$$

3 Mappings

Definition - Function: Mapping between 2 sets D, R such that for each $x \in D$, there exists a unique $y \in R$ such that $f(x) = y$

$$F : D \rightarrow R$$

- **Note:** D here is the **domain** of F and R is the **range** of F

Definition - Image: $F(D) = \{F(x) \mid x \in D\} \subseteq R$

Example: $F : R \rightarrow R \quad F(x) = x^2$

- $\text{Domain}(F) = \text{Range}(F) = R$
- Image of $F = \{y \in R \mid y \geq 0\} = [0, \infty)$

Example: $G[0, \infty) \rightarrow R \quad G(x) = \sqrt{x}$

- Image of $G = [0, \infty)$

Example: $\mathcal{F} = \text{all functions } F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Let S be all “infinitely” differentiable functions

Let $\frac{d}{dx} : S \rightarrow S$ where $\frac{d}{dx}(f) = f'$

Thus $\frac{d}{dx}$ is a function

Example: $t : \text{Mat}_{2 \times 3}(K) \rightarrow \text{Mat}_{3 \times 2}(K)$

Then $t(A) = {}^t A$ is a function

Definition - Onto: A function $F : D \rightarrow R$ is **onto** if Image of $F = R$

Definition - 1-1: A function $F : D \rightarrow R$ is **1-1** if different elements from D get mapped to different elements of R

$$F(d) = F(e) \implies d = e$$

Definition - Bijection: A function that is both onto and 1-1

Definition - Inverse Function: If $F : D \rightarrow R$ is a bijection, there exists an inverse function $F^{-1} : R \rightarrow D$ such that

$$\forall r, \in R, F(F^{-1}(r)) = r$$

$$\forall d, \in D, F^{-1}(F(d)) = d$$

Definition - Linear Transformation: For fixed K -Vector Spaces V, W , a **linear transformation** $T : V \rightarrow W$ is a function satisfying

1. $\forall v_1, v_2 \in W, T(v_1 + v_2) = T(v_1) + T(v_2)$
2. $\forall c \in K, v \in W, T(cv) = cT(v)$

Examples

1. $F : R \rightarrow R, F(x) = x^2$
 - Not onto since x^2 cannot be negative

- Not 1-1 since $1^2 = (-1)^2 = 1$
 - Not a linear transformation since $(1 + 2)^2 = 9 \neq 1^2 + 2^2$
2. $F : [0, \infty) \rightarrow R, F(x) = \sqrt{x}$
- Not onto since x^2 cannot be negative
 - 1-1 since $\sqrt{x} = \sqrt{y} \implies x = y$
 - Not a linear transformation since $[0, \infty)$ isn't a Vector Space
3. Let S be the set of all infinite differentiable functions. Consider $\frac{d}{dx} : S \rightarrow S$ where $\frac{d}{dx}(f) = f'$
- Onto by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
 - Not 1-1 since f and $f + 5$ share the same derivative
 - Is a linear transformation by addition and scalar multiplication properties of derivatives
4. Let C be the set of continuous functions on $[0, 1]$. Consider $I : C \rightarrow R, I(f) = \int_0^1 f(t) dt$
- Onto since we can generate any value of R by taking the integral of the constant function
 - Not 1-1 since the definite integral of 2 functions could yield the same result
 - Is a linear transformation by additional and scalar multiplication properties of integrals
5. $I^* : G \rightarrow C, I^*(f) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$
- Not onto since not all functions of $f(0) = 0$
 - 1-1 since indefinite integral yields a unique function
 - Is a linear transformation by additional and scalar multiplication properties of integrals
6. Fix $(4, 0, 2)$ and consider $T_{(4,0,2)} : R^3 \rightarrow R^3, T_{(4,0,2)}((x, y, z)) = (x + 4, y, z + 2)$
- Clearly onto
 - Clearly 1-1
 - Not a linear transformation since $T_{(4,0,2)}((0, 0, 0) + (1, 1, 1)) = (5, 0, 3) \neq T_{(4,0,2)}((0, 0, 0)) + T_{(4,0,2)}((1, 1, 1))$
7. $E_\pi : R^3 \rightarrow R^3, E_\pi((x, y, z)) = (\pi x, \pi y, \pi z)$
- Clearly onto
 - Clearly 1-1
 - Is a linear transformation since $E_\pi((a, b, c) + (d, e, f)) = (\pi(a + d), \pi(b + e), \pi(c + f)) = E_\pi((a, b, c)) + E_\pi((d, e, f))$

3.1 Consequences of Properties of Linear Transformations

Proposition: For any linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow W$, we have that

$$T(O_V) = O_W$$

Proof: Let $w = T(O_V)$

Since $O_V = 0 * O_V$, we have that

$$T(O_V) = T(0 * O_V) = 0 * T(O_V) = 0 * w = O_W$$

Proposition: $T(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n) = a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n)$

Proof: Follows from linearly properties of linear transformations

- **Note:** If $x = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for V and if w_1, \dots, w_n are arbitrary vectors in W , then there is a unique linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that

$$T(v_1) = w_1, \dots, T(v_n) = w_n$$

Lemma: $\text{Im}(T)$ is a subspace of W

Proof: We show the necessary conditions for a subspace

- $+$: $w_1, w_2 \in \text{Im}(T) \implies \exists v_1, v_2 \in V$ such that $T(v_1) = w_1$ and $T(v_2) = w_2$

$$\text{Then } w_1 + w_2 = T(v_1) + T(v_2) = T(\underbrace{v_1 + v_2}_{\in V}) \in \text{Im}(T)$$

- $\times : w \in \text{Im}(T) \implies \exists v \in V$ such that $T(v) = w$

Then for $c \in K$, we have $cw = c(Tv) = T(\underbrace{cv}_{\in V}) \in \text{Im}(T)$

Definition - Pull Back: Suppose $Y = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq \text{Im}(T)$. Then a **pull-back** is any set $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subseteq V$ such that

$$T(v_1) = w_1, \dots, T(v_m) = w_m$$

Lemma: If $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent in $\text{Im}(T)$ (or in W), then any pull back $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subseteq V$ is linearly independent in V

Proof: Let $a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m = O_V$

Thus $T(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m) = O_V = a_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_mT(v_m) = O_W$

Since $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, we have $a_1 = \dots = a_m = 0$ as desired

Pull Back Property: Suppose $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is a basis for $\text{Im}(T)$, and let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subseteq V$ be any pull back. Furthermore, let $S = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}) \subseteq V$ be a subspace. Then $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ is a basis for S

Proof: By the previous lemma, $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent

Furthermore, $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ spans S by definition

Corollary: If $T : V \rightarrow W$ is any linear transformation and if $\dim(V) = n$, then $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) \leq n$

Proof: BWOC, suppose $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) > n$, thus we can create a set of $n + 1$ linearly independent elements in $\text{Im}(T)$.

By the Pull Back Property, this pulls back to $n + 1$ linearly independent elements in V . Contradiction since $n + 1 > n = \dim(V)$

Note: $T : V \rightarrow W$ where $T(v) = \{O_W\}$ is a linearly transformation with $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) = 0$, regardless of the value of $\dim(V)$

3.2 Kernel

Definition - Kernel: For $T : V \rightarrow W$, the **kernel** $\text{Ker}(T) = \{v \in V \mid T(v) = O_W\}$

Proposition: $\text{Ker}(T)$ is a subspace of V

Proof: Clearly $O_V \in \text{Ker}(T)$

- $+$: For $v_1, v_2 \in \text{Ker}(T)$, we see that $T(v_1 + v_2) = T(v_1) + T(v_2) = O_W + O_W = O_W$. Thus $v_1 + v_2 \in \text{Ker}(T)$
- \times : For $c \in K$ and $v \in \text{Ker}(T)$, we see that $T(cv) = cT(v) = O_W$. Thus $cv \in \text{Ker}(T)$

Proposition: Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be any linear transformation. For any basis $B = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq \text{Im}(T)$ and for any pullback $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \subseteq V$, we have

$$V = \text{Ker}(T) \oplus S \quad S = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_m\})$$

Proof: We need to show $V = \text{Ker}(T) + S$ and $\text{Ker}(T) \cap S = \{O_V\}$

- Take arbitrary $v \in V \implies T(v) \in \text{Im}(T) = a_1w_1 + \dots + a_mw_m$

Let $s = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m \in S$.

Then $T(s) = T(v) \implies T(v - s) = T(v) - T(s) = O_W \implies v - s \in \text{Ker}(T)$

Let $u = v - s \in \text{Ker}(T)$

Thus clearly $v = u + s$ for $u \in \text{Ker}(T)$ and $s \in S$

- Clearly $O_V \in \text{Ker}(T) \cap S$ since both are subspaces of V

Take any arbitrary $v \in \text{Ker}(T) \cap S$

$$v \in S \implies v = b_1 v_1 + \cdots + b_m v_m \implies T(v) = b_1 w_1 + \cdots + b_m w_m$$

Since $v \in \text{Ker}(T)$, we have that $T(v) = O_W \implies b_1 = \cdots = b_m = 0$ since $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent

$$\text{Thus we have } v = 0v_1 + \cdots + 0v_m = O_V \implies \text{Ker}(T) \cap S = \{O_V\}$$

Thus we have shown the necessary properties for $V = \text{Ker}(T) \oplus S$

Theorem: $\dim(V) = \dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \dim(\text{Im}(T))$

Proof: Choose a basis $B = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ for $\text{Im}(T)$ and a pullback $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$

Let $S = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_m\})$

Since $V = \text{Ker}(T) \oplus S$, we have $\dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \dim(S) = \dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(V)$

3.2.1 Consequences of Kernel

Corollary 1: For linear $T : R^3 \rightarrow R^4$, T is NOT onto

Proof: $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) \leq \dim(R^3) = 3 < 4 \implies \text{Im}(T) \neq R^4 \implies T$ is NOT onto

Corollary 2: For linear $T : R^4 \rightarrow R^3$, T is NOT 1-1

Proof: $\dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \underbrace{\dim(\text{Im}(T))}_{\leq 3} = \dim(R^4) = 4 \implies \dim(\text{Ker}(T)) \geq 1$

Thus $\text{Ker}(T)$ has something non-zero mapped to $O_W \implies T$ is NOT 1-1

Definition - Isomorphism: $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that T is linear transformation and a bijection

Corollary 3: $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ and $T : V \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation and 1-1 $\implies T$ is an isomorphism (i.e. T is onto)

Proof: $\dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(V)$

But we know that $\dim(\text{Ker}(T)) = 0 \implies \dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(V) = \dim(W)$

Furthermore $\text{Im}(T)$ is a subspace of W and $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(W) \implies T$ is onto

Corollary 4: $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ and $T : V \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation and onto $\implies T$ is an isomorphism (i.e. T is 1-1)

Proof: $\dim(\text{Ker}(T)) + \dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(V)$

But we know that $\dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(W) \implies \dim(\text{Ker}(T)) = 0$

3.3 Compositions and Inverse Linear Mappings

Consider Vector Spaces U, V, W and linear transformations $T : U \rightarrow V$ and $S : V \rightarrow W$

Proposition: $S \circ T : V \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation

Proof:

- $+$: For $u_1, u_2 \in U$ we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
S \circ T(u_1 + u_2) &= S(T(u_1 + u_2)) \\
&= S(T(u_1) + T(u_2)) \\
&= S(T(u_1)) + S(T(u_2)) \\
&= S \circ T(u_1) + S \circ T(u_2)
\end{aligned}$$

- \times : For $u \in U$ and $c \in K$

$$\begin{aligned}
S \circ T(cu) &= S(T(cu)) \\
&= S(cT(u)) \\
&= cS(T(u)) \\
&= cS \circ T(u)
\end{aligned}$$

Thus $S \circ T : V \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation

Definition - Inverse Mapping: $T^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ where $T^{-1}(w) =$ the unique $v \in V$ such that $T(v) = w$

Proposition: $T^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ is a linear transformation (and thus an isomorphism)

Proof:

- $+$: Take $w_1, w_2 \in W$ such that $T(v_1) = w_1$ and $T(v_2) = w_2$ for $v_1, v_2 \in V$. Then we see that

$$T(v_1 + v_2) = T(v_1) + T(v_2) = w_1 + w_2$$

However, by definition of inverse mapping, $v_1 + v_2$ is the unique element such that $T(v_1 + v_2) = w_1 + w_2$

Thus by definition of T^{-1} , we have that $T^{-1}(w_1 + w_2) = v_1 + v_2 = T^{-1}(w_1) + T^{-1}(w_2)$

- \times : Similar

4 Linear Maps and Matrices

Definition - L_A : For a $m \times n$ matrix A , L_A determines a linear transformation from $R^n \rightarrow R^m$

Example: Consider $L_A : R^3 \rightarrow R^2$ where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Then we see that $A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + 3y + z \\ 4y + 2z \end{bmatrix}$

It can be clearly shown that L_A is a linear transformation (follows from logic of dot products)

4.1 Bases, Matrices, and Linear Maps

For a given transformation $T : V \rightarrow W$, the matrix of T with respect to the standard basis is given by

$$A = (T(E_1), \dots, T(E_n))$$

Example: $T : R^2 \rightarrow R^3$ $T(x, y) = (5x + y, x - y, x)$

$$T(E_1) = (5, 1, 1) \quad T(E_2) = (1, -1, 0)$$

Thus we see that $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

- $T({}^t(3, 2)) = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = {}^t(17, 1, 3)$

Example: $T : R^2 \rightarrow R^2$ where we stretch the x -coordinate by 2

$$T({}^t(1, 0)) = {}^t(2, 0) \quad T({}^t(0, 1)) = {}^t(0, 1)$$

Thus we see that $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Example: $S \circ T : R^2 \rightarrow R^2$ where we first stretch by x by 3 then stretch y by 3

$$T({}^t(1, 0)) = {}^t(2, 0) \quad T({}^t(0, 1)) = {}^t(0, 3)$$

Thus we see that $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

- **Note:** we see that applying functions just corresponds to matrix multiplication $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Example: Fix $\theta \in R$, then rotate by θ

$$R_\theta({}^t(1, 0)) = {}^t(\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)) \quad R_\theta({}^t(0, 1)) = {}^t(-\sin(\theta), \cos(\theta))$$

Thus $A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$

Thus given any ${}^t(x, y) \in R^2$, we see that $T_\theta({}^t(x, y)) = \begin{bmatrix} x \cos(\theta) - y \sin(\theta) \\ x \sin(\theta) + y \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$

Example: Stretch x by 2, rotate by $\pi/4$, and stretch y by 3

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}/2 & -\sqrt{2}/2 \\ \sqrt{2}/2 & \sqrt{2}/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: Given $T : K^n \rightarrow K^m$, the matrix A for T depends on our choosing of bases for K^n and K^m

Example: $T : R^2 \rightarrow R^3$ $T(x, y) = (5x + y, x - y, x)$

Let $B = \{\underbrace{(1, 4)}_{v_1}, \underbrace{(3, 0)}_{v_2}\}$ be a basis for R^2 and $B' = \{\underbrace{(3, 0, 0)}_{w_1}, \underbrace{(0, 5, 0)}_{w_2}, \underbrace{(0, 0, 1)}_{w_3}\}$ be a basis for R^3

We can define a matrix of T with respect to B and B'

$$M_{B'}^B(T) = \left(\underbrace{T(v_1) \quad T(v_2)}_{\text{in terms of } w_1, w_2, w_3} \right)$$

$$T(v_1) = T(1, 4) = (9, -3, 1) = 3w_1 - \frac{3}{5}w_2 + w_3$$

$$T(v_2) = T(3, 0) = (15, 3, 3) = 5w_1 + \frac{3}{5}w_2 + 3w_3$$

Thus we see that $M_{B'}^B(T) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ -3/5 & 3/5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Upshot: Any vector, written in B coordinates, when multiplied by this matrix, yields an answer in B' coordinates. Thus for $v = av_1 + bv_2$, we have

$$T(v) = (3a + 5b)w_1 + (-3/5a + 3/5b)w_2 + (a + 3b)w_3$$

- As a sanity check, for $v = (5, 8) \in R^2$
 - Normal Transformation: $T(v) = (33, -3, 5)$

- Linear Map: writing v in terms of v_1, v_2 , we get $(5, 8) = a(1, 4) + b(3, 0) \implies (5, 8) = 2(1, 4) + 2(3, 0)$
Thus we have

$$M_{B'}^B(T) \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ -3/5 & 3/5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ -3/5 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \implies 11(3, 0, 0) - 3/5(0, 5, 0) + 5(0, 0, 1) = (33, -3, 5)$$

Example: Consider $P_n = \{a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n \mid a_i \in R\}$

It's easily verifiable that P_n is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(R)$. Furthermore, the basis for P_n is $\{1, x, \dots, x^n\} \implies \dim(P_n) = n + 1$

Let $D : P_2 \rightarrow P_2$ be the derivative

$$D(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) = a_1 + 2a_2x$$

Easily verifiable that D is a linear transformation. Consider what is the matrix of D with respect to $B = \{1, x, x^2\}$?

$$A = [D(1) \quad D(x) \quad D(x^2)] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus we see that for $p(x) = 5 + 3x + 4x^2$, $SD(p(x)) = 3 + 8x = 5(0, 0, 0) + 3(0, 1, 0) + 4(0, 2, 0)$

Upshot: For a linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow W$, with $\dim(V) = n$ and $\dim(W) = m$, if $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ are bases for V, W , then

$$M_{B'}^B(T) = [T(v_1) \quad T(v_2) \quad \dots \quad T(v_n)]$$

is a $m \times n$ matrix with column vectors containing coefficients of $T(v_1)$ WRT B'

Furthermore, for any $v \in V, v = x_1v_1 + \dots + x_nv_n$, we have

$$M_{B'}^B(T) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $T(v) = y_1w_1 + \dots + y_mw_m$ (**Note** coordinate is WRT to B')

Definition - Change of Basis: Let $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and $B' = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be basis for the same vector space V , and let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be the identity mapping. Then

$$M_{B'}^B(\text{id}) = \underbrace{[\text{id}(v_1) \quad \text{id}(v_2) \quad \dots \quad \text{id}(v_n)]}_{\text{WRT } B'}$$

is the **Change of Basis** matrix for V

Example: Let $V = P_1 = \{a_0 + a_1x \mid a_i \in R\}$ and let $B = \{1, x\}$ and $B' = \{3 + x, 5 + 2x\}$, which are both bases for V

$$1 = a(3 + x) + b(5 + 2x) \implies a = 2, b = -1 \implies 1 = 2(3 + x) - (5 + 2x)$$

$$x = c(3 + x) + d(5 + 2x) \implies c = -5, d = 3 \implies x = -5(3 + x) + 3(5 + 2x)$$

$$M_{B'}^B(\text{id}) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{WRT } B'}$$

Furthermore, consider

$$M_B^{B'}(\text{id}) = \underbrace{[\text{id}(w_1) \quad \text{id}(w_2)]}_{\text{WRT } B} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finally, we see that $M_B^{B'}(M_{B'}^B(\text{id})) = \text{id}$

Thus the inverse of $M_{B'}^B$ is $M_B^{B'}$

5 Scalar Products and Orthogonality

5.1 Scalar Products

Definition - Scalar Product:: For a Vector Space V , we define $\langle, \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow K$

- **Example:** Think of dot products in $R^n \times R^n \rightarrow R$

Properties of Scalar Products

1. $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$
2. $\langle v, w_1 + w_2 \rangle = \langle v, w_1 \rangle + \langle v, w_2 \rangle$
3. $\langle v, cw \rangle = c \langle v, w \rangle \quad \langle cv, w \rangle = c \langle v, w \rangle$

Consequences of Properties

- $\forall v_1, v_2, w \in V, \langle v_1 + v_2, w \rangle = \langle v_1, w \rangle + \langle v_2, w \rangle$

Proof: Follows from applying properties 1 and 2

- $\forall v \in V, \langle v, O_v \rangle = 0 = \langle O_v, v \rangle$

Proof: For any $w \in V$, we have $\langle v, O_V \rangle = \langle v, 0w \rangle = 0 = \langle v, w \rangle$

Definition - Non-Degenerate: Scalar product that satisfies $\forall v \neq 0, \exists w \in V$ such that $\langle v, w \rangle \neq 0$

Example: $\mathcal{F}([0, 1])$, all functions $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow R$

Let $C([0, 1])$ be the set of all continuous functions $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow R$, which is clearly an R subspace

Now define $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx$. We claim that this is a scalar product

Proof:

- $\int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx = \int_0^1 g(x)f(x) dx$ so property 1 holds
- $\int_0^1 f(x)(g_1(x) + g_2(x)) dx = \int_0^1 f(x)g_1(x) dx + \int_0^1 f(x)g_2(x) dx$ so property 2 holds
- $\int_0^1 f(x)cg(x) dx = c \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx$ so property 3 holds

We also claim that $\langle f, g \rangle$ is non-degenerate since for $f \neq 0$, we have $\langle f, f \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)^2$, which is always ≥ 0 and is continuous

Example: $f(x) = 2x + 3 \quad g(x) = x^2$

$$\langle 2x + 3, x^2 \rangle = \int_0^1 (2x + 3)x^2 dx = 3/2$$

Definition - Orthogonal: Elements $v, w \in V$ are **orthogonal**, denote $v \perp w$, if $\langle v, w \rangle = 0$

Definition - Orthogonal Complement: Suppose $W \subseteq V$ is a subspace, then the **orthogonal complement** of W is

$$W^\perp = \{v \in V \mid v \perp w\} \quad \text{for } w \in W$$

- **Note:** $W^\perp \subseteq V$ is a subspace

Definition - Positive Definite: Scalar product that satisfies $\forall v \neq O, \langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$. Otherwise $\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \implies v = O$

Definition - Length: $\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$

- Length between v and w : $\|v - w\|$
- $\|c\| = |c|\|v\|$
- $\|v + w\|^2 = \langle v + w, v + w \rangle = \langle v, v \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle + \langle w, v \rangle + \langle w, w \rangle = \|v\|^2 - 2\langle v, w \rangle + \|w\|^2$
- $v \perp w \implies \langle v, w \rangle = 0 \implies \|v + w\|^2 = \|v - w\|^2 = \|v\|^2 + \|w\|^2$

Pythagoras Theorem: For $v \perp w$,

$$\|v + w\|^2 = \|v\|^2 + \|w\|^2$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|v + w\|^2 &= \langle v + w, v + w \rangle \\ &= \langle v, v \rangle + 2\langle v, w \rangle + \langle w, w \rangle \\ &= \|v\|^2 + \|w\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Parallelogram Law: For any $v, w \in V$, we have

$$\|v + w\|^2 + \|v - w\|^2 = 2\|v\|^2 + 2\|w\|^2$$

Proof: Follows from the definition/properties of length

Definition - Unit Vector: $v \in V$ such that $\|v\| = 1$

- If $v \neq O$, then $(\frac{1}{\|v\|})v$ is a unit vector

Definition - Projection: $\text{proj}_w v$ represents v as a scalar multiple of w where $\text{proj}_w v = (\frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\langle w, w \rangle})w$

- Definition comes from creating a right triangle where $v - cw \perp cw \implies \langle v - cw, cw \rangle = 0$

$$\text{Thus we have } \langle v, cw \rangle - \langle cw, cw \rangle = c \langle v, w \rangle - c^2 \langle w, w \rangle \implies c = \frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\langle w, w \rangle}$$

- Special case where $\langle w, w \rangle = 1 \implies \text{proj}_w v = \langle v, w \rangle w$

Schwartz Inequality: For any $v, w \in V$ we have

$$|\langle v, w \rangle| \leq \|v\|\|w\|$$

Proof: If $w = O$, then $|\langle v, w \rangle| \leq 0$

Otherwise, using the definition of projection, we have $cw \perp v - cw$. Thus we see

$$\begin{aligned} \|v\|^2 &= \|v - cw\|^2 + \|cw\|^2 \\ \implies \|cw\|^2 &\leq \|v\|^2 \\ c^2 \|w\|^2 &\leq \|v\|^2 \\ \frac{\langle v, w \rangle^2}{\langle w, w \rangle^2} \|w\|^2 &\leq \|v\|^2 \\ \implies \langle v, w \rangle^2 &\leq \|v\|^2 \|w\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Triangle Inequality: For $v, w \in V$, we have

$$\|v + w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
\|v + w\|^2 &= \langle v + w, v + w \rangle \\
&= \|v\|^2 + 2\langle v, w \rangle + \|w\|^2 \\
&\leq \|v\|^2 + 2\|v\|\|w\| + \|w\|^2 \\
&\leq (\|v\| + \|w\|)^2 \\
\Rightarrow \|v + w\| &\leq \|v\| + \|w\|
\end{aligned}$$

Proposition: Suppose $\{w_1, \dots, w_r\} \subseteq V$ is pairwise orthogonal and assume that each $w_i \neq O$. Then $\{w_1, \dots, w_r\}$ is linearly independent

Proof: Let $a_1w_1 + \dots + a_rw_r = O_V$. Then we have

$$\langle w_i, a_1w_1 + \dots + a_rw_r \rangle = \langle w_i, a_1w_1 \rangle + \dots + \langle w_i, a_rw_r \rangle = 0 \quad \text{since each } w \text{ is pairwise orthogonal}$$

Thus $\langle w_i, a_iw_i \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow a \langle w_i, w_i \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow a_i = 0$ since $\langle w_i, w_i \rangle > 0$ since positive definite

Let $W = \text{span}(\{w_1, \dots, w_r\}) \subseteq V$. Then clearly $\dim(W) = r$

Now take $v \in V$ and define $\text{proj}_W v = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i w_i$ where $c_i w_i = \text{proj}_{w_i} v$

Clearly $\text{proj}_W v \in W$

Proposition: $\left(v - \sum_{i=1}^r c_i w_i\right) \perp$ each w_i

Proof: Fix i , then

$$\sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j = c_i w_i + \sum_{j \neq i} c_j w_j$$

Now take

$$v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j = (v - c_i w_i) - \sum_{j \neq i} c_j w_j$$

and take the inner product with w_i

$$\begin{aligned}
\underbrace{\langle w_i, v - c_i w_i \rangle}_{0 \text{ b/c of projection}} &= \langle w_i, \underbrace{\sum_{j \neq i} c_j w_j}_{0 \text{ b/c orthogonal}} \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $w_i \perp v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j$

Corollary: $(v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j) \perp$ every $w \in W$

Proof: Since each w_i in the basis is orthogonal to $v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j$, we must have

$$\langle w, v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j \rangle = 0$$

Corollary: $(v - \sum_{j=1}^r c_j w_j) \in W^\perp$

Proof: Follows from the previous corollary

Geometric Interpretation: For any $v \in V$, $\text{proj}_W v$ is the closest point to v in W

$$\|v - \text{proj}_W v\| \leq \|v - w\|$$

Proof: Choose any $w \in W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_r\})$, then $w = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i v_i$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|v - w\|^2 &= \left\| v - \sum_{i=1}^r a_i v_i \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| v - \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i}_{\perp W} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^r (c_i - a_i) v_i}_{\in W} \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| v - \sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i \right\|^2 + \left\| \sum_{i=1}^r (c_i - a_i) v_i \right\|^2 \quad \text{by Pythagoras} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus } \|v - w\|^2 \geq \left\| v - \sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i \right\|^2 \implies \|v - w\| \geq \left\| v - \sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i \right\|$$

Corollary: Suppose $w \in W$, then $\text{proj}_W w$ is the element of W closest to w

$$\text{But we have } w = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i v_i \implies c_i = \frac{\langle w, v_i \rangle}{\|v_i\|^2}$$

5.2 Orthonormal Basis

Definition - Orthonormal Basis: $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\} \subseteq W$ is an **orthonormal basis** if

1. $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$ are pairwise orthogonal and non are zero
2. $\|v_i\| = 1$

Corollary: If $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$ is orthonormal, then $\forall w \in W, w = \sum_{i=1}^r \langle w, v_i \rangle v_i$

Gram-Schmidt Process: Turn any basis $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ into an orthonormal basis $B' = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$

1. Given v_1 , let $u_1 = \frac{1}{\|v_1\|} v_1$. Then we have $\text{span}(\{u_1\}) = \text{span}(\{v_1\})$
2. Let $p_2 = v_2 - \text{proj}_{u_1} v_2 = v_2 - \langle v_2, u_1 \rangle u_1$
Now let $u_2 = \frac{1}{\|p_2\|} p_2$. Then $\text{span}(\{u_1, u_2\}) = \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2\})$
3. Let $p_3 = v_3 - \text{proj}_{\text{span}(\{u_1, u_2\})} v_3 = v_3 - \langle v_3, u_1 \rangle u_1 - \langle v_3, u_2 \rangle u_2$
Now let $u_3 = \frac{1}{\|p_3\|} p_3$. Then $\text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, u_3\}) = \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, v_3\})$
4. ...

Upshot: Any finite R Vector Space V with a positive definite inner product has an orthonormal basis

Theorem Let V be a finite dimension R Vector Space with a positive definite scalar product. Then for any subspace $W \subseteq V$

$$V = W \oplus W^\perp$$

Proof:

- Show that $V = W + W^\perp$

Choose $v \in V$ and let $w^* = \text{proj}_W v \in W$. Then $v - w^* \in W^\perp$

$$\text{Thus } v = \underbrace{w^*}_{\in W} + \underbrace{(v - w^*)}_{\in W^\perp}$$

- Show that $W \cap W^\perp = \{O\}$

Choose $w \in W \cap W^\perp$

Since $w \in W^\perp$, w is orthogonal to all vectors in W

In particular, $w \perp w \implies \langle w, w \rangle = 0 \implies w = O$ since the scalar product is positive definite

Corollary: If $W \subseteq V$ is a subspace, then

$$\dim(V) = \dim(W) + \dim(W^\perp)$$

5.3 Application to Linear Equations: Rank

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with entries in R

- Let $C_A \subseteq R^m$ be the span of column vectors of A
- Let $R_A \subseteq R^n$ be the span of row vectors of A
- Let $\text{Null}(A) = \{v \in R^n \mid Av = O\}$

Recall that any $m \times n$ matrix A describes a linear transformation $L_A : R^n \rightarrow R^m$ where $L_A(v) = Av \in R^m$

Thus $\text{Im}(L_A) = C_A$

Furthermore, $\text{Ker}(L_A) = \{v \in R^n \mid Av = O\} = \text{Null}(A)$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(R^n) &= \dim(\text{Im}(L_A)) + \dim(\text{Ker}(L_A)) \\ &= \dim(C_A) + \dim(\text{Null}(A)) \end{aligned}$$

Now consider using scalar products

Take $v \in \text{Null}(A)$. Thus $Av = O$

Thus $A_i \cdot v = 0 \iff A_i \perp v \iff v \perp \text{all } u \in R_A \implies v \in (R_A)^\perp$

Thus $\text{Null}(A) = \text{Ker}(A) = (R_A)^\perp$

Thus $R_A \subseteq R^n$ is a subspace of R^n .

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(R^n) &= \dim(R_A) + \dim((R_A)^\perp) \\ n &= \dim(R_A) + \dim(\text{Null}(A)) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $\dim(R_A) = \dim(C_A)$

Definition - Rank: The **rank** of a matrix A is $\dim(R_A) = \dim(C_A)$

5.4 Scalar Products under Complex Numbers

We want a positive definite scalar product for C

Take the **complex conjugate**

$$(a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$$

Then we see that

$$\|z\| = \sqrt{\langle z, \bar{z} \rangle} \in R$$

Definition - Hermitian Inner Product: For (y_1, \dots, y_n) and $(z_1, \dots, z_n) \in C^n$, define

$$\langle y, z \rangle = y_1 \bar{z}_1 + \dots + y_n \bar{z}_n$$

- **Note:** This is NOT a scalar product

Now we list the properties of the Hermitian Inner Product

- $\langle w, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, w \rangle}$
- $\langle v, w_1 + w_2 \rangle = \langle v, w_1 \rangle + \langle v, w_2 \rangle$
- $\langle cv, w \rangle = c \langle v, w \rangle$ AND $\langle v, cw \rangle = \bar{c} \langle v, w \rangle$

Proposition: The Hermitian Inner Product is positive definite

Proof: We look at

$$\langle v, v \rangle = x_1 \bar{x}_1 + \dots + x_n \bar{x}_n = \|x_1\|^2 + \dots + \|x_n\|^2 \in R$$

We see that $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$. If it happens that $\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \implies x_1 = \dots = x_n = 0$

5.5 General Orthogonal Bases

Now we relax the assumption of \langle, \rangle being positive definite

Suppose V be a finite dimension Vector Space over R and let \langle, \rangle be a scalar product, not necessarily positive definite. Then V has an orthogonal basis

- **Note:** Not orthonormal, since we could have the mapping to 0, and thus $v_i \perp v_j$

Consider the trivial case: Let $\langle v, w \rangle = 0$ for all $v, w \in V$

Then any basis for V is an orthogonal basis