## Vector Spaces & Cinear Transformations

IRM, the rectors with m components, is an example of an m-dimensional vector space.

In general: a vector space over the real scalars is any set V with structures of addition and scaling: obeying: For x, n, = EV and c, d & IR

- o) x+y eV and cxeV closure
- associative
- 1)  $(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) + \vec{z} = \vec{x} + (\vec{y} + \vec{z})$  association 2)  $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = \vec{y} + \vec{x}$  commutative 3) there exists  $\vec{0} \in V$  additive with  $\vec{x} + \vec{0} = \vec{0} + \vec{x}$  identity
- 4) there exists -zeV additive with  $\dot{x} + -\dot{x} = 0$  invenes
- s)  $c(d\vec{x}) = (cd) \vec{x}$  compatibility
- 6) 1 = x scalar; dentity
- distributive
- 7)  $C(\ddot{x} + \ddot{y}) = C\ddot{x} + C\ddot{y}$ 8)  $(C+J)\ddot{x} = C\ddot{x} + J\ddot{x}$ distributive

ex) Rm any m

ex) Mmxn all matrices mrows, n columns

ex)  $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = C \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  the set of all scalings of  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ 

that last one could be written:  $S = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \vec{x} = c(\frac{3}{4}), c \in \mathbb{R}\} \quad 4$ this S is a subspace of 12 Any subset of a vector space V which is closed under addition and scaling automatically will obey 1-8, so is a subspace. \* for instance, any subspace contains O ex)  $W = \left\{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid \vec{x} = c, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + c_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ check: Wis closed, so it is a subspace. Also, we define the span of a set of vectors to be the set of all lin, combs of those vectors, so  $W = Span \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ and S = Span { (3) } In fact, any subspace of a (finite dimensional) vector space can be written as the Span of some of its vectors.

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ex) For any matrix Amxn the
         solution to Az = 0 is a
          subspace of IR".
          · the solution contains o
           We call this solution the
          Null Space N(A).
 ex) find the null space N(A) for
       same as solve Ax = 0
       \Rightarrow \chi_{i=0}
            \begin{array}{c|c} x_1 = 0 \\ \hline x_2 = x_2 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} x = x_2 \end{array}
              X3 = 0
            N(A) = | Span
e) Find the null space N(B)
                                                    N(B) = Span
for B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}
            [1210110]~ [10-303 0
solve 0 3 6 0 -3 0 ]
                                       . 0 1 2 0 -1 0
 \begin{array}{c|c}
 & 3 \\
 & \overline{\chi} = \chi_3 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \chi_4 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \chi_5 \\
 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
  \chi_3 = \chi_3

\chi_4 = \chi_4
                          \chi_4 = \chi_4
  X= X5
                           X = X5
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S = Span \{ (0), (2), (3), (1) \}
                is a subspace of 1R2.
            But, that set of vectors is lin. dep.
             (since 4 > 2)
            That means, some of those rectors can
            be made as lin. combs. of others,
            so the list is redundant: there
             is a smaller list whose span is S.
   Def: a basis B of a vector space V
         (or subspace) is a lin. indep.

set of vectors B = \{5, \overline{b_2}, ..., \overline{b_n}\}

such that span(B) = V.
   To find a basis for S, now reduce
   the matrix of those column vectors,
   \begin{bmatrix} 1230 \\ 00 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 120-3 \\ 00 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} in r.r. e.f.
              ind the pivots, and
               then find the original columns in those positions (col 1 and 3)
Then S = \{Span \{ (0), (3) \} \} for B = \{ (0), (3) \}

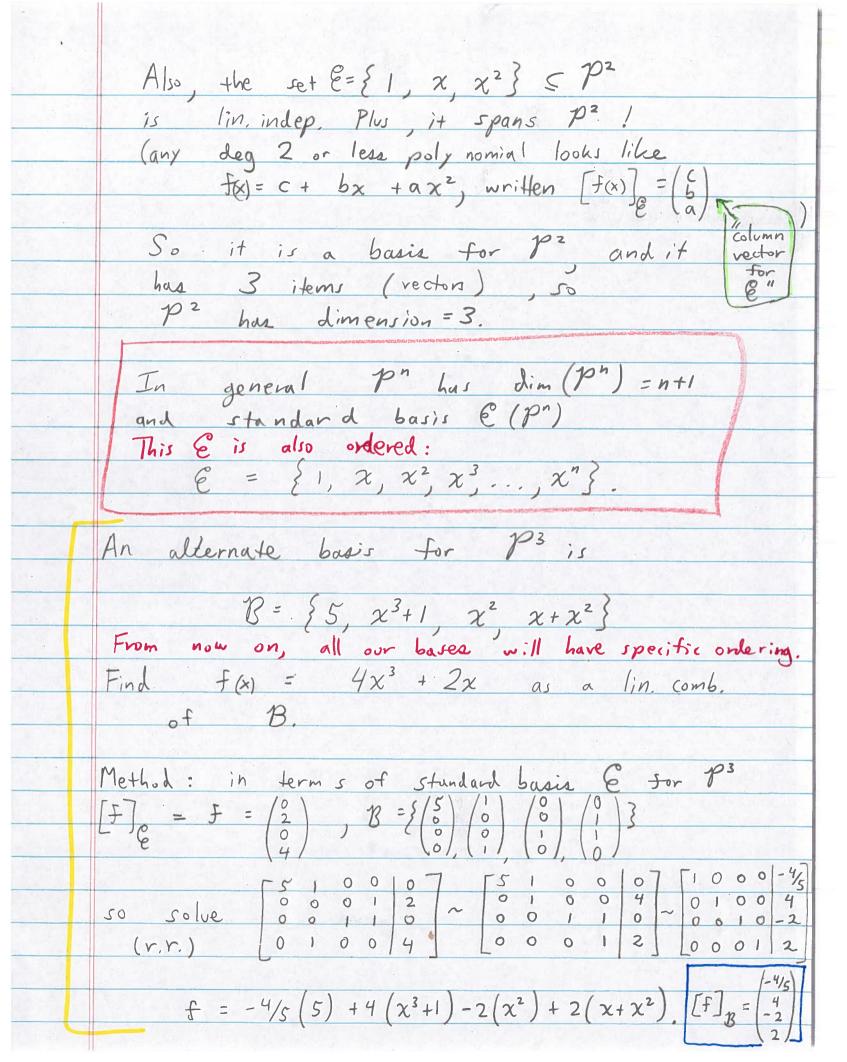
\rightarrow (B \text{ is a basis})
> This 5 is also called the column space col(A)
     of A = [1 2 3 0]
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ex) find the column space, as span of a basis, for 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

r.r.  $\sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1/3 & 2/3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2/3 \\ 7 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 7 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/3 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1$ 

Chp Def. The dimension of a vector space , dim(V) 3 cont of V. (or subspace S) is the number of vectors in any basis of V (or S) ex) R has dimension n. The standard basis for 1Rh is called  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}(IR^n) = \{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$ where ei = all zero components except one "1" in the ith component.  $\mathcal{E} \text{ for } \mathbb{R}^4 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ \* & is ordered! Note: R" has many other bases (00). 2-out-of-3 rule: if dim (V) = n set of n vectors set of vectors
in V that spans V set of lin. indep. in any 2 of these implies the third! · n lin, indep, vectors => spans h vectors which span => lin, indep. · lin.indep. and spans = exactly n vectors

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A new vector space pr
  is the set of all polynomials with
 degree at most n.
        p2 = all the polynomials with degree = 2.
ex)
                such as: · x2
                     · 3x2+2
                         · 1 x2 - 3x +7
                         · 0 always=0, all x
     is a vector space: obeys all 8 axioms.
\rightarrow 3(3x^2+2) + (x-1) = 9x^2 + x + 5 \in P^2
  3x^2 + 2 + 0 = 3x^2 + 2
ex) Is the set \{x^2 + 3, x^2\}
lin, indep?
     Means: if C_1(x^2 + 3) + C_2 x^2 = 0
     then is C, = C2 = 0 the only solution?
 Solve:
     Expand C_1 \chi^2 + C_2 \chi^2 = 0
            \Rightarrow (C_1 + C_2) x^2 + C_1 3 = 0
 But this must be tree for all x-moves, including x=0!
            \Rightarrow C.3 = 0
              |C_i = 0|
            \Rightarrow (0 + C_2) \chi^2 + O(3) = 0
                C_2 x^2 = 0 the for x = 1!
            \Rightarrow |C_2 = 0| \Rightarrow (lin, in dep.)
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Ex) Find \chi^3 + Sx + 2 = f(x)

in the basis B = \{1, x-3, (x-3)^2, (x-3)^3\}
          That is find [fx) ] , the col. vector
            representation of f, in basis B.
   \mathcal{B} = \left\{1, x-3, \frac{1}{2}x^2 - 3x + \frac{9}{2} \frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{9x^2}{6} + \frac{27x}{6} - \frac{27}{6}\right\}
      50 \left[f(x)\right]_{R} = \begin{pmatrix} 44 \\ 32 \\ 18 \end{pmatrix} f(x) = 44 + 32(x-3) + 18(x-3)^{2} + 6(x-3)^{3}
If you know calc II, that's the Taylor series
  f(3) = 44, f'(3) = 3(3)^2 + 5 = 32, f''(3) = 18, f'''(3) = 6
         Ex) in \mathbb{R}^2, find \binom{3}{2} in the basis \mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}
             \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}
       50 \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right]_{\mathcal{P}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 2\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 7\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark
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## Change of basis

For a given basis B, the matrix to row reduce is always the same only the argment changes.

Note: row reduction move on A gives.
the same result as:

(same v.r. move on I). A ex:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 789 \\ 213 \\ 934 \end{bmatrix}$   $R2 \leftarrow R2 + 2R3 \begin{bmatrix} 789 \\ 207 \\ 934 \end{bmatrix}$ 

 $\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
7 & 8 & 9 \\
2 & 1 & 3 \\
9 & 3 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
=
\begin{bmatrix}
7 & 8 & 9 \\
20 & 7 & 11 \\
9 & 3 & 4
\end{bmatrix}$ 

So if we row reduce I with all
the same mover, just like for finding
A-1, we'll get a matrix that can
do those mover (via multiplication) on any

rector. It will be a change of -basis matrix from & to B. We call it [I] &

 $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ 

row reduce [ -2 1 | 1 0 ] ~ [ 10 | 0 1 ] [ -2 1 | 1 0 ]

~ [10 | 0 | 1] and [0 | ] is the c.o.b.

 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}}^{\mathcal{E}}$ 

For any two bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  we can find  $\mathcal{C}$   $\{B = \{b_1, ..., b_n\}\}$   $\{C = \{\tilde{c}_1, ..., \tilde{c}_n\}\}$  $\begin{bmatrix} I \end{bmatrix}_{n}^{c} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{c}$  $[I]_{R}^{e} = [[b,]_{e} [b,]_{e} \dots [b,]_{e}]$ columns are the basis vectors of B, written as col. rectors in for our  $[I]_{\varepsilon}^{\mathcal{B}} = [0 \ 1]_{\varepsilon} = [[(0)]_{\mathcal{B}} [(0)]_{\mathcal{B}}]$ Note: [I] e is always square, nxn. [I]e is always invertible, and  $([I]_{R}^{e})^{-1} = [I]_{e}^{R}$ example  $\left[ I \right]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{E}} = \left( \left[ I \right]_{\mathcal{E}}^{\mathcal{B}} \right)^{-1} = \left[ -2, 1 \right] = \left[ \left[ \left( -2 \right) \right]_{\mathcal{E}}^{\mathcal{E}} \left[ \left( -2 \right) \right]_{\mathcal{E}}^{\mathcal{E}} \right]$