

November 21, 2011

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Example of computing a basis for a vector space ...

* Recall that a basis $\{\underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2, \dots, \underline{u}_r\}$ for a vector space V

is a spanning set for V that is linearly independent.

for all $\underline{v} \in V$:

there are scalars $a_1, \dots, a_r \in \mathbb{R}$
so that

$$\underline{v} = a_1 \underline{u}_1 + \dots + a_r \underline{u}_r$$

If $a_1 \underline{u}_1 + a_2 \underline{u}_2 + \dots + a_r \underline{u}_r = \underline{0}$

for some scalars $a_1, \dots, a_r \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\text{then } a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_r = 0$$

* There may be many different bases for V ,
but the # of elements in the basis remains the same.

Example There are variety of ways to describe a vector space;

Let's compute the basis for a solution space V of say \mathbb{R}^4
with coordinates x, y, z, w .

Say V is defined by $\begin{cases} x + 2y + 3w = 0 \\ y + 2z + w = 0 \end{cases}$ \star

In other words, for all vectors $\underline{v} = [x, y, z, w]^T$ in V : the coordinates satisfy \star .

V is a vector space (check at home). To compute ~~#~~ a basis for V :

① Write \star in terms of matrix multiplication: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$
 $A = \text{coeff. matrix}$

② Row reduce coefficient matrix: $A \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

③ ... to get equivalent system of eqns: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x = 4z - w \\ y = -2z - w \end{cases}$ \star (reduced)

④ Identify free (indep) variables & write rest of variables (dep) in terms of free ones:

free: z and w the rest: $x = 4z - w$ and $y = -2z - w$

Note that $2 = \# \text{ free variables}$

⑤ Write general solution and factor to get basis

$$\text{general: } \begin{pmatrix} 4z-w \\ -2z-w \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = z \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + w \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Basis of } V = \left\{ \underline{u}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \underline{u}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

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& all
bases for V
will have
2elts

Back to linear transformations —

Recall that a linear transformation from V to W is a function $F: V \rightarrow W$

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so that $F(a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{v}) = aF(\mathbf{u}) + bF(\mathbf{v})$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$.

... can be given by a matrix A with $F(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$...

Today

(1) Rotations in the plane

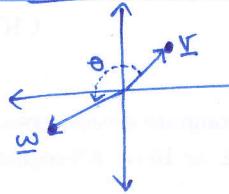
(2) Orthogonal Projections \leftarrow (Important Examples)

(3) Invariant subspaces

(4) One-to-one / onto

\leftarrow (Important terminology).

(1) Rotation in the plane $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$



What we should expect:

(a) $F_{\theta=0}$ is the identity transformation

(b) $F_{2\pi k}$ is also the identity transformation; k integer

(c) $F_\theta \circ F_\psi = F_{\theta+\psi}$

(d) Rotation of θ in the clockwise direction should be $-F_\theta$

To say:
how do we define F
(or a 2×2 matrix A)
so that \mathbf{v} gets rotated
by angle θ to \mathbf{w} ??
COUNTER CLOCKWISE
Call such an lin-transf
 F_θ .

Solution F_θ is represented by matrix $A_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$.

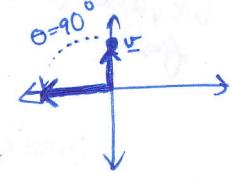
Let's check some examples:

(a) Take $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2]^T$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . $F_{\theta=0} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$ should be $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$:

$$F_{\theta=0} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos 0 & -\sin 0 \\ \sin 0 & \cos 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

(b) Take $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. $F_{45^\circ} = F_{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ should send $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$:

$$F_{\frac{\pi}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} & -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\pi}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$



* Note that the determinant of $A_\theta = 1$ as $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$

* You can recover formulas for $\sin(\theta+\psi)$ $\cos(\theta+\psi)$ $\sin(\theta)$ and $\cos(-\theta)$

• by using the fact that $A_\theta A_\psi = A_{\theta+\psi}$ \uparrow

• $A_\theta^{-1} = A_{-\theta}$ and the formula to compute inverses of 2×2 matrices



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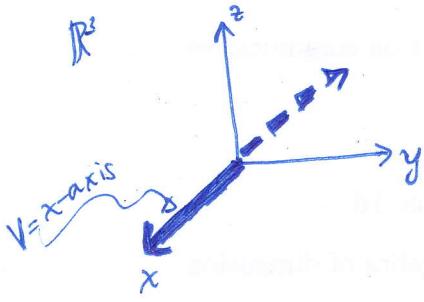
② Orthogonal Projections Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n ,
the orthogonal to V is defined as:

$$V^\perp = \{\underline{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \underline{w}^\top \underline{v} = 0 \text{ for } \underline{v} \in V\} \quad (\text{sometimes called "V perp"})$$

To say V^\perp consists of all vectors that are perpendicular to every ^{vector} of V .
** V^\perp is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n ** (check at home)

Example Let V be the 1-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 , the x -axis.

In other words $V = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \right\}$ or is defined ^{as} the solution space
of $\begin{cases} y = 0 \\ z = 0 \end{cases}$



Now:

$$V^\perp = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid [x' y' z'] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \right\}$$

$$\Downarrow x \cdot x' = 0 \text{ but } x \text{ could be nonzero}$$

$$\therefore V^\perp = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y' \\ z' \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid y', z' \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

the y-z plane

(Here the "y" don't matter
just use these to distinguish
between u & v)

We really didn't need to go through the algebra of finding V^\perp

as geometrically we see that the set of vectors in the y - z plane of \mathbb{R}^3
are precisely those perpendicular to the x -axis.

③ Invariant Subspaces

F

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} U \\ \cap \\ F: V \rightarrow V \end{array}}$$

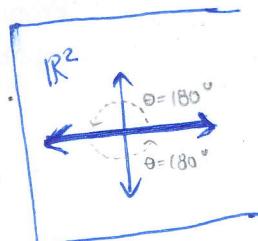
Defn When given a linear transformation from V to itself.

an invariant subspace U of V under F is a U so that $F(U) \subseteq U$.

To say U is invariant if for all $\underline{u} \in U$, we have that $F(\underline{u}) \in U$.

Example Consider $F_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ rotation by 180° counter-clockwise.

Check that the subspace U spanned by $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ (the x -axis)
is an invariant subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .



If a general elt of U is $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\text{Now } F_\theta \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in U. //$$

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§4 One-to-one and onto:

Adjectives for functions in general

(Recall that a linear transf. is an example of a function)

Def'n A function from a set X to a set Y $f: X \rightarrow Y$

① is one-to-one if $f(x) = f(x')$ only when $x = x'$

-OR-

if $x \neq x'$ forces $f(x) \neq f(x')$.

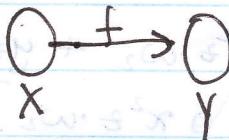
② is onto if every element $y \in Y$ equals $f(x)$ for some $x \in X$.

In other words,

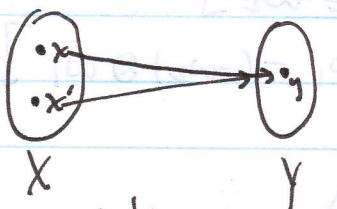
The range of f is the set $\{y \in Y \mid f(x) = y \text{ for some } x \in X\}$

So f is onto if Range of $f = Y$

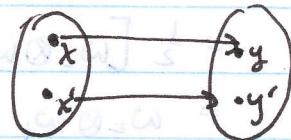
Diagrams



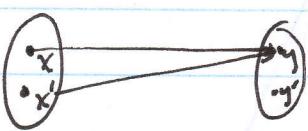
representing $f: X \rightarrow Y$



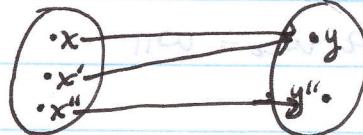
not one-to-one



one-to-one



not onto



Explicit Examples

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not one-to-one because $2 \neq -2$ but $f(2) = 4 = f(-2)$

$x \mapsto x^2$ is not onto because nothing gets mapped to -5

Same principles apply to linear transformations —