## NOTES FOR 02/28/2011, 03/02/2011

MATH 309, SECTION 6

Note: We will not cover Chapter 4 in this class. Chapter 5 will be covered, but after covering some of Chapter 6.

## 1. Coordinates (Chapter 3.6)

From our earlier work, we know the following important theorem concerning bases for vector spaces.
Theorem 1. Let $B=\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{n}\right\}$ be a basis for the vector space $V$. Then, any vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$ can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{n}$. In other words, there is a unique solution $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$ to the equation

$$
r_{1} \mathbf{v}_{1}+\cdots+r_{n} \mathbf{v}_{n}=\mathbf{v}
$$

Definition 1. Suppose $B=\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{n}\right\}$ be a basis for the vector space $V$. Then, for a vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we say that the coordinates (or coordinate vector) of $\mathbf{v}$ with respect to the basis $B$ is the unique vector $\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $\mathbf{v}=\sum_{i} r_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}$. We use the notation

$$
[\mathbf{v}]_{B}=\left[r_{1} \mathbf{v}_{1}+\cdots+r_{n} \mathbf{v}_{n}\right]_{B}=\left(r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
r_{1} \\
\vdots \\
r_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Example 2. $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ has the canonical basis $B=\left\{\mathbf{e}_{1}, \cdots, \mathbf{e}_{n}\right\}$ where $\mathbf{e}_{i}=(0, \ldots, 1, \ldots, 0)$, and

$$
\left[\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right]_{B}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Example 3. The vector space $\mathbb{P}_{n}$ has a standard basis $\left\{1, x, \ldots, x^{n}\right\}$, and

$$
\left[\sum_{i} a_{i} x^{i}\right]_{B}=\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)
$$

Example 4. Let $B=\{(1,2),(3,1)\}$ be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then, to find the coordinates of an arbitary vector $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ with respect to $B$, we solve the equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{1}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2
\end{array}\right]+r_{2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
1
\end{array}\right] & =\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] . \\
{\left[\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 3 & a \\
2 & 1 & b
\end{array}\right] } & \rightsquigarrow\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{5} a+\frac{3}{5} b \\
0 & 1 & \frac{2}{5} a-\frac{1}{5} b
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore,

$$
[(a, b)]_{B}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-\frac{1}{5} a+\frac{3}{5} b \\
\frac{2}{5} a-\frac{1}{5} b
\end{array}\right]
$$

More concretely,

$$
[(5,5)]_{B}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Note: the order of the vectors in the basis matters! Swapping the order will swap the corresponding columns in the coordinate vector.

Example 5. Consider the subspace $V$ of $\mathbb{M}(2,2)$ with the basis

$$
B=\left\{\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-1 & 0 \\
2 & 0
\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]\right\}
$$

Then, the coordinate vector $(5,-2) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ represents the matrix

$$
5\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-1 & 0 \\
2 & 0
\end{array}\right]-2\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-7 & -2 \\
8 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

relative to the basis $B$.
To find the coordinates of $\left[\begin{array}{cc}2 & 1 \\ -3 & 0\end{array}\right]$ relative to $B$, we solve

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

and conclude that the coordinate vector is $(-2,1) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$.

## 2. Linear maps (Chapter 6.1)

The previous examples are all examples of maps between vector spaces. Given a finite-dimensional vector space $V$ with basis $B$, we have a function (or mapping) that associates to any vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$ a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ :

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathbb{R}^{n} \stackrel{[]_{B}}{\longleftrightarrow} V \\
{[\mathbf{v}]_{B} \longleftrightarrow \mathbf{v}}
\end{array}
$$

Remark 6. The book (and probably all of your previous textbooks) would usually write the above as [] ${ }_{B}$ : $V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, which is read left to right. We will use the "right to left" notation. While it is a little confusing at first, it will be much more convenient later in the course when encountering function composition and matrix multiplication.

Definition 7. Let $V$ and $W$ be vector spaces. A function $T$ from $V$ to $W$, written $T: V \rightarrow W$, is a rule that assigns to each vector $v \in V$ a unique vector $T(v) \in W$.

Vocabulary: The textbook uses the word function, and the words transformation and map or mapping are also common; all have the same meaning. Given a function $W \stackrel{T}{\leftarrow} V$,

- $V$ is called the domain and $W$ is the target space.
- If $\mathbf{w}=T(\mathbf{v})$, then $\mathbf{w}$ is the image of $\mathbf{v}$ under $T$.
- The set of all images is called the range of $T$. The range may be a part of $W$ or all of $W$.

Example 8. The function $f(x)=x^{2}$ has domain and target space $\mathbb{R}$.
A curve in the plane is a function $\mathbb{R}^{2} \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$, and a curve in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is a function $\mathbb{R}^{3} \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$. The domain is $\mathbb{R}$ in both cases, and the target space is $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ respectively.

A vector field on the plane is a map $\mathbb{R}^{2} \leftarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$. The domain and target space are both $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
Note that none of the above examples are assumed to be linear. The notions of domain/range/target apply to functions in general and do not rely on vector space structures.

Definition 9. A function $W \stackrel{T}{\leftarrow} V$ between vector spaces is linear if for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
T(r \mathbf{v})=r T(\mathbf{u}) \quad \text { and } \quad T(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v})=T(\mathbf{u})+T(\mathbf{v})
$$

Lemma 1. If $W \stackrel{T}{\leftarrow} V$ is linear, then for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ :
(a) $T(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$
(b) $T(-\mathbf{v})=-T(\mathbf{v})$
(c) $T(a \mathbf{u}+b \mathbf{v})=a T(\mathbf{u})+b T(\mathbf{v})$.
and (c) extends to general linear combinations: $T\left(\sum a_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\sum a_{i} T\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)$.

Proof.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
T\left(\mathbf{0}_{V}\right)=T(0 \mathbf{v})=0 T(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{0}_{W}, \\
T(-\mathbf{v})=T((-1) \mathbf{v}))=(-1) T(\mathbf{v})=-T(\mathbf{v}), \\
T(a \mathbf{u}+b \mathbf{v})=T(a \mathbf{u})+T(b \mathbf{v})=a T(\mathbf{u})+b T(\mathbf{v}) .
\end{array}
$$

Remark 10. The above lemma shows that $T$ linear implies $T(r \mathbf{u}+s \mathbf{v})=r T(\mathbf{u})+s T(\mathbf{v})$. The converse is also true, as demonstrated by setting $r=1, s=1$ or $s=0$. Therefore, being linear is equivalent to

$$
T(r \mathbf{u}+s \mathbf{v})=r T(\mathbf{u})+s T(\mathbf{v})
$$

being satisfied for all $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$.
Example 11. The derivative is a linear map $\mathbb{C}(\mathbb{R}) \stackrel{\frac{d}{d x}}{L} \mathbb{D}(\mathbb{R})$. This follows from standard properties of derivatives, as

$$
\frac{d}{d x}(r f+s g)=\frac{d}{d x}(r f)+\frac{d}{d x}(s g)=r \frac{d f}{d x}+s \frac{d g}{d x} .
$$

Example 12. The linear map $\mathbb{P}_{3} \stackrel{T}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{P}_{2}$ given by $T(p)=(x+1) p$ is linear. Check:

$$
\begin{aligned}
T\left(r p_{1}+s p_{2}\right) & =(x+1)\left(r p_{1}+s p_{2}\right)=r(x+1) p_{1}+s(x+1) p_{2} \\
& =r T\left(p_{1}\right)+s T\left(p_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 13. Given a basis $B$ of $V$, the "coordinates" are really a linear map $\mathbb{R}^{n} \leftarrow V$. Checking this is linear is a homework assignment.
Lemma 2. Let $B=\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{n}\right\}$ be a basis for the vector space $V$. A linear transformation $W \stackrel{T}{\leftarrow} V$ is determined by the values $T\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}\right), \ldots, T\left(\mathbf{v}_{n}\right)$; i.e.
(a) If we know $T\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)$ for all $i$, we can calculate $T(\mathbf{v})$ for any vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$.
(b) If $W \stackrel{S}{\leftarrow} V$ is a linear map so that $S\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=T\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)$ on each basis vector $\mathbf{v}_{i}$, then $S(\mathbf{v})=T(\mathbf{v})$ for all vectors $\mathbf{v}$ in $V$.
Proof. Given a basis $B$ of $V$, any vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$ is uniquely written as $\mathbf{v}=\sum_{i} r_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}$. If $T$ is a linear map, then

$$
T(\mathbf{v})=T\left(\sum_{i} r_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} r_{i} T\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right),
$$

so $T$ is completely determined by its values on the basis vectors. Similarly, if $S$ is another linear map which agrees with $T$ on basis vectors, then

$$
S(\mathbf{v})=S\left(\sum_{i} r_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} r_{i} S\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} r_{i} T\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=T(\mathbf{v}) .
$$

