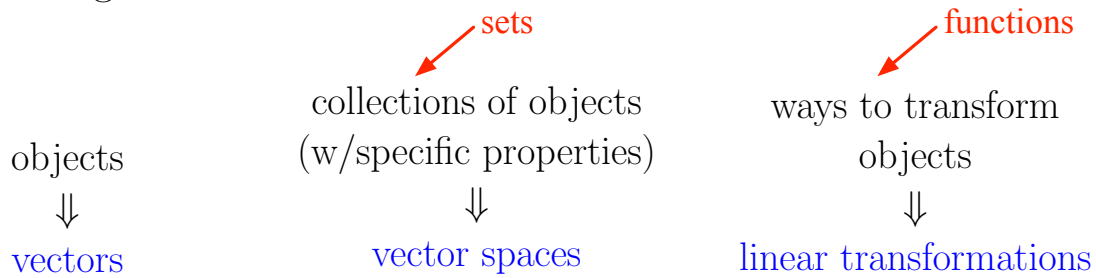


Big ideas of linear algebra

The basic ingredients are...



Heart of linear algebra \implies study of linear transformations and their algebraic properties

Definition of a vector space (page 447)

Definition Let V be a set on which two operations, called *addition* and *scalar multiplication*, have been defined. If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are in V , the *sum* of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is denoted by $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$, and if c is a scalar, the *scalar multiple* of \mathbf{u} by c is denoted by $c\mathbf{u}$. If the following axioms hold for all \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} in V and for all scalars c and d , then V is called a *vector space* and its elements are called *vectors*.

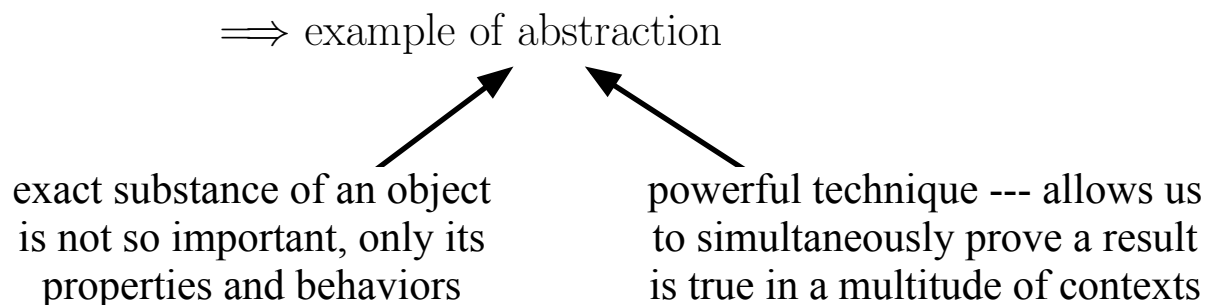
- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in V . | Closure under addition |
| 2. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$ | Commutativity |
| 3. $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ | Associativity |
| 4. There exists an element $\mathbf{0}$ in V , called a <i>zero vector</i> , such that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{u}$. | |
| 5. For each \mathbf{u} in V , there is an element $-\mathbf{u}$ in V such that $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$. | |
| 6. $c\mathbf{u}$ is in V . | Closure under scalar multiplication |
| 7. $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$ | Distributivity |
| 8. $(c + d)\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{u} + d\mathbf{u}$ | Distributivity |
| 9. $c(d\mathbf{u}) = (cd)\mathbf{u}$ | |
| 10. $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$ | |

Definition of a linear transformation (page 490)

Definition A *linear transformation* from a vector space V to a vector space W is a mapping $T: V \rightarrow W$ such that, for all \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in V and for all scalars c ,

- $T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$
- $T(c\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u})$

Remark Note that the def'n of vector space does not say exactly what vectors are, only what vectors do.



Euclidean vectors – \mathbb{R}^n

$\mathbb{R}^n \implies$ the set of all ordered n -tuples of real numbers (expressed as column or row vectors)

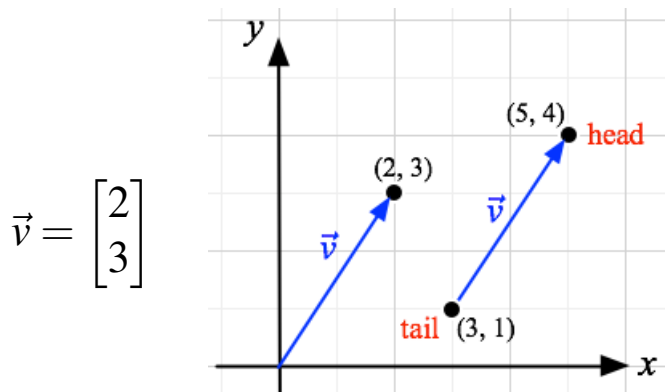
$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

boldface in textbook (pointing to \vec{v})

v_i 's are components of \vec{v} (pointing to the components)

Euclidean vectors have a **length** and a **direction**.

Example



vector addition

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ u_2 + v_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n + v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

scalar multiplication

$$c\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} cv_1 \\ cv_2 \\ \vdots \\ cv_n \end{bmatrix}$$

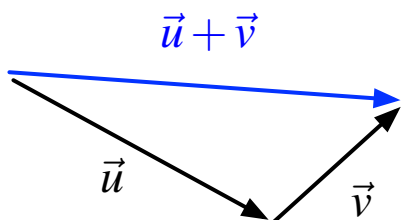
Note: letters at end of alphabet are usually reserved for vectors, and letters at start are usually reserved for scalars.

\mathbb{R}^n with vector addition and scalar multiplication as defined above is a vector space!

Geometric interpretation in \mathbb{R}^2

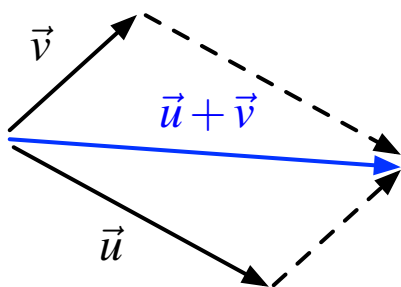
Vector addition:

head-to-tail rule



place tail of \vec{v} at head of \vec{u}

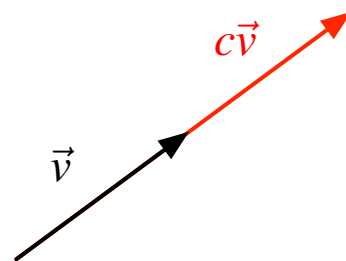
parallelogram rule



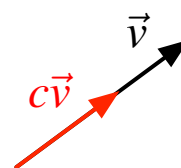
place tails of \vec{u} and \vec{v} at same point

Scalar multiplication:

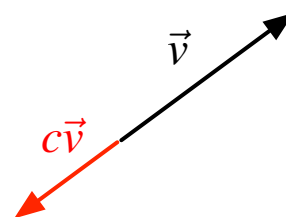
$c > 1$



$0 < c < 1$



$c < 0$



Food for thought:

What is the other diagonal of the parallelogram in terms of \vec{u}, \vec{v} ?

Linear combinations

OMITTED

Revisiting our earlier example, note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In this case, we say that $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is a *linear combination* of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Definition A *linear combination* of vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k$ is any vector of the form

$$c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \cdots + c_k\vec{v}_k,$$

where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are scalars.

Can we represent $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ by other linear combinations besides the one given above?

$$\text{e.g., } \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + (-4) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Question (to be addressed down the road):

Given vector \vec{v} and vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k$, is \vec{v} a linear combination of $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k$?

Dot product

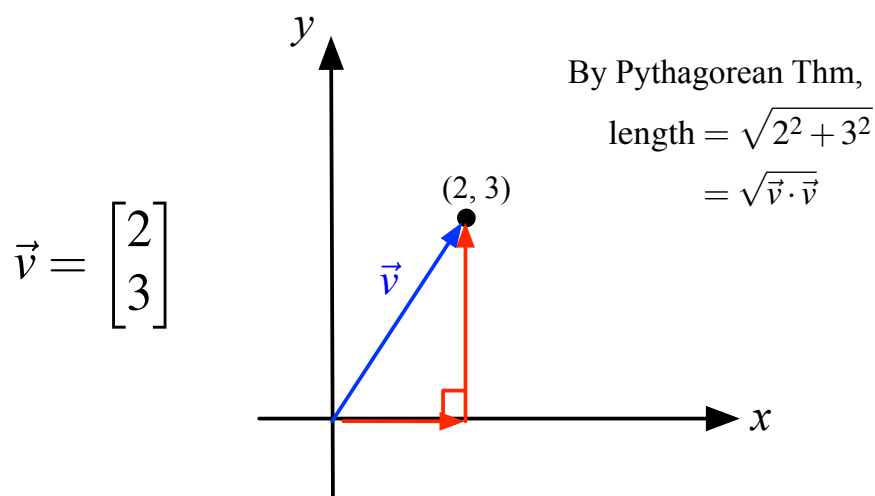
Geometric concepts of length and orthogonality of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n can be defined algebraically using the dot product.

Definition For $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the *dot product* of \vec{u} and \vec{v} is

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n.$$

operation on two vectors that produces a scalar value

To define the length of a vector, think about what it should be for a simple vector in \mathbb{R}^2 :



Definition The *length* of \vec{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is denoted $\|\vec{v}\|$ and is equal to

$$\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2}.$$

always a nonnegative value

Remarks

- The only vector with length 0 is the zero vector $\vec{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

- Length of a scaled vector:

$$\text{for scalar } c, \|c\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{(c\vec{v}) \cdot (c\vec{v})} = \sqrt{c^2(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v})} = |c| \|\vec{v}\|$$

- Special name for vectors of length 1: *unit vectors*

$$\text{examples: } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ \sqrt{2}/2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Given any vector in \mathbb{R}^n , can we always scale it to get a unit vector in the same direction? (YES! so long as $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Want to find } c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that} \\ c > 0 \text{ and } \|c\vec{v}\| = 1 \end{array} \implies \text{Scale by } c = \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|}$$

Example $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ has length $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}$, so

$$\frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

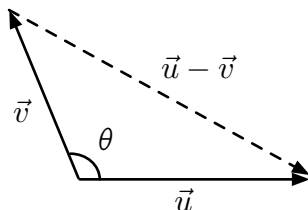
Process above is sometimes referred to as *normalizing a vector*.

Remark Two inequalities regarding lengths of vectors you should see in the text:

- Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality: $|\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}| \leq \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|$
- Triangle Inequality: $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$

What about the angle between two vectors? (Note: we always assume the angle is between 0 and π .)

In \mathbb{R}^2 , we can apply Law of Cosines to the triangle



and use fact that $\|\vec{v}\|^2 = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}$ to obtain

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

↑ algebraic ↑ geometric

We generalize this to \mathbb{R}^n .

For two nonzero vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\boxed{\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|}} \quad \text{where } \theta \text{ is angle between } \vec{u} \text{ and } \vec{v}.$$

What happens when θ is 90° or $\frac{\pi}{2}$?

$$\vec{u} \text{ and } \vec{v} \text{ are } \textit{orthogonal} \iff \text{angle between } \vec{u} \text{ and } \vec{v} \text{ is } 90^\circ \iff \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

Notice that

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \quad \text{always positive}$$

leads to the following:

sign of $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$	angle between \vec{u} and \vec{v}
+	acute
-	obtuse
0	right angle