

Linear Algebra I

Overview notes

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Lecture notes and exercises are available at: https://www.henrikbachmann.com/la1_2020.html

These notes serve as a compact overview of the definitions, propositions, lemmas, corollaries, and theorems given in the lectures. It will be updated regularly (This is Version 14 from January 25, 2021). The proofs, examples, and explanations are provided in the handwritten notes/lectures. The reference book for this course is [B], and we will probably cover Chapters 1,2,3 and 5 during this semester. (Chapter 4 will be part of Linear Algebra II)

If you find any typos in this note, please let me know!

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References

[B] O. Bretscher: *Linear Algebra with Applications*, 4th edition, Pearson 2009.

1 Linear systems

By \mathbb{R} we will denote the set of real numbers. \mathbb{R} contains all numbers you usually considered in high school, such as $1, -1, 0, 2, 3, \frac{3}{8}, \pi, \sqrt{2}, e, \dots$. There are rigorous definitions of the real numbers, which would be part of a pure mathematics lecture (See for example https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Construction_of_the_real_numbers). But in this course, we just assume that they exist and that everyone is familiar with them.

Definition 1.1. *i) For real numbers $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b \in \mathbb{R}$ an equation of the form*

$$a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$$

*is called a **linear equation**.*

*ii) A finite collection of linear equations is called a **linear system**.*

*iii) A **solution of a linear system** is a simultaneous solution to all of its equations.*

Definition 1.2. *The following operations on a linear system are called **elementary row operations**.*

(R1) Add a multiple of an equation to another.

(R2) Multiply an equation with a non-zero number.

(R3) Change the order of the equations.

Proposition 1.3. *Applying an elementary row operation to a linear system does not change the set of all solutions of this linear system.*

2 Matrices & Vectors

Definition 2.1. *i) A $m \times n$ -matrix is given by an array (m rows, n columns) of numbers $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$*

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = (a_{ij})_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq m \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}}.$$

Notation: We often just write $A = (a_{ij})$ if the size of A , i.e. m and n , are known from context. By $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we denote the set all of all $m \times n$ -matrices.

*ii) A (column-) **vector** of size n is a $n \times 1$ -matrix*

$$v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

and the set of all vectors of size n is denoted by $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$.

Definition 2.2. For matrices $A = (a_{ij}), B = (b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a real number $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we define

$$\begin{aligned} A + B &= (a_{ij} + b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} && \text{(Sum of two matrices),} \\ \lambda A &= (\lambda a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} && \text{(Scalar multiplication).} \end{aligned}$$

In the case $\lambda = -1$ we write $(-1)A = -A$ and $A - B$ means $A + (-1)B$.

The matrices A and B need to be of the same size, otherwise the sum $A + B$ is not defined. A special case of the addition of matrices is given by the addition of vectors. For $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}, v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad u + v = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n + v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda v = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda v_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda v_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Definition 2.3. The product of a matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined by

$$Av = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}v_1 + a_{12}v_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}v_n \\ a_{21}v_1 + a_{22}v_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}v_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}v_1 + a_{m2}v_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}v_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

We have: $(m \times n\text{-matrix}) \cdot (\text{vector of size } n) = (\text{vector of size } m)$.

Proposition 2.4. We have for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

- i) $A(x + y) = Ax + Ay$,
- ii) $A(\lambda x) = \lambda(Ax)$.

Definition 2.5. For a matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ the matrix

$$(A | b) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}$$

is called the **augmented matrix** of the linear system $Ax = b$.

The augmented matrix $(A | b)$ is just the matrix A where we append the vector b as a column. The line $|$ is a useful notation to distinguish between the left- and right-hand side of the corresponding linear system but it has no mathematical meaning. We will view $(A | b)$ as a usual matrix with m rows and $n + 1$ columns.

Definition 2.6. The following operations on a matrix are called **elementary row operations**.

- (R1) Add a multiple of one row to another row.
- (R2) Multiply a row with a non-zero number.
- (R3) Interchange two rows.

Applying a row operation to a linear system (Definition 1.2) corresponds to the same row operation (Definition 2.6) on the corresponding augmented matrix of this linear system.

Definition 2.7. Two matrices A and B are called **row equivalent**, if B can be obtained from A by elementary row operations. In this case we write

$$A \sim B.$$

Notice that if $A \sim B$, then also $B \sim A$, i.e. A can be obtained from B by elementary row operations.

Proposition 2.8. Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b, c \in \mathbb{R}^m$. If $(A | b) \sim (B | c)$ then the linear systems $Ax = b$ and $Bx = c$ have the same solutions.

Definition 2.9. A matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is on **row-reduced echelon form** if

- i) The first non-zero element on each row (if any) is equal to 1.
- ii) If there is a leading 1 in a row, then all rows above contain a leading 1 further to the left.
- iii) If a_{ij} is the first non-zero element in row i , then there are no other non-zero elements in the j -th column.

The first non-zero element in a row of a matrix in row-reduced echelon form is called **pivot element**.

Theorem 2.10. Every matrix A is row equivalent to a unique matrix B on row-reduced echelon form and we write

$$B = \text{rref}(A).$$

Definition 2.11. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix. The **rank** $\text{rk}(A)$ of A is the number of pivot elements in $\text{rref}(A)$.

3 Sets & Functions

Definition 3.1. Let X and Y be two sets.

- i) A **function** $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a rule, assigning to each element $x \in X$ an element $f(x) \in Y$. This is also denoted by

$$\begin{aligned} f : X &\longrightarrow Y \\ x &\longmapsto f(x). \end{aligned}$$

- ii) For $f : X \rightarrow Y$ the set X is called the **domain of f** and Y is called the **codomain of f** .

A function is also sometimes called a **map**. These two names (for the exact same mathematical object) are used interchangeably in the literature.

Definition 3.2. For a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ the **image of f** is defined by

$$\text{im}(f) = \{y \in Y \mid \exists x \in X : y = f(x)\}.$$

Another notation is $\text{im}(f) = f(X)$. The image is a subset of Y , i.e. $\text{im}(f) \subset Y$.

Definition 3.3. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called

- i) **injective** if $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$. ($x_1, x_2 \in X$)
- ii) **surjective** if $\text{im}(f) = Y$.
- iii) **bijective** if it is injective and surjective.

4 Linear maps

Definition 4.1. A function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a **linear map** if for all $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

- i) $F(u + v) = F(u) + F(v)$,
- ii) $F(\lambda u) = \lambda F(u)$.

Theorem 4.2. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map. Then there exists a unique matrix $[F] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, such that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have

$$F(x) = [F]x.$$

Here the left-hand side is the evaluation of the function F at x and the right-hand side is the multiplication of the matrix $[F]$ with the vector x .

Definition 4.3. The matrix $[F]$ in Theorem 4.2 is called **the matrix of F**.

5 Linear maps in geometry

Definition 5.1. Let $u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}, v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- i) The **dot product** of u and v is defined by

$$u \bullet v = u_1 v_1 + \cdots + u_n v_n.$$

- ii) u and v are called **orthogonal** if $u \bullet v = 0$.

- iii) The **norm** of u is defined by

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{u \bullet u} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + \cdots + u_n^2}.$$

Proposition 5.2. The dot product satisfies the following properties for all $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$:

- i) $u \bullet v = v \bullet u$,
- ii) $u \bullet (v + w) = u \bullet v + u \bullet w$,
- iii) $u \bullet (\lambda v) = \lambda(u \bullet v)$.

Definition 5.3. Let $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $u \neq 0$. We define the **orthogonal projection** P_u onto the line spanned by u as

$$P_u : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$x \longmapsto \frac{u \bullet x}{u \bullet u} u.$$

Proposition 5.4. $P_u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map.

Definition 5.5. Let $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $u \neq 0$. We define the **reflection** ρ_u along the line spanned by u as

$$\rho_u : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$x \longmapsto 2 \frac{u \bullet x}{u \bullet u} u - x.$$

Proposition 5.6. $\rho_u : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map.

Definition 5.7. For $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$ the counterclockwise **rotation by an angle** φ (in \mathbb{R}^2) is given by

$$\text{rot}_\varphi : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$x \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi) & -\sin(\varphi) \\ \sin(\varphi) & \cos(\varphi) \end{pmatrix} x.$$

6 Composition of linear maps & Matrix multiplication

Theorem 6.1. If $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $G : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ are linear, then $GF : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ is linear.

Definition 6.2. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, where B has the columns $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, i.e.

$$B = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ v_1 & & \dots & & v_n \\ & & & & \end{array} \right).$$

Then the **product of A and B** is the $l \times n$ -matrix with columns $Av_1, \dots, Av_n \in \mathbb{R}^l$, i.e.

$$A \cdot B = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ Av_1 & & \dots & & Av_n \\ & & & & \end{array} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}.$$

Theorem 6.3. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $G : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ be linear maps. Then the matrix of GF is given by the product of the matrices of G and F , i.e.

$$[GF] = [G] \cdot [F].$$

Proposition 6.4. For all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$, $B, D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

- i) $A \cdot I_m = I_l \cdot A = A$, where I_m denotes the $m \times m$ -identity matrix.
- ii) $(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$.
- iii) $A \cdot (B + D) = A \cdot B + A \cdot D$.
- iv) $(B + D) \cdot C = B \cdot C + D \cdot C$.
- v) $\lambda(A \cdot B) = (\lambda A) \cdot B = A \cdot (\lambda B)$.

7 The inverse of a linear map

The rank of a linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is defined by the rank of its matrix, i.e. $\text{rk}(F) := \text{rk}([F])$.

Theorem 7.1. *A linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is invertible if and only if $m = n = \text{rk}(F)$.*

Proposition 7.2. *If a linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is invertible, then its inverse F^{-1} is also linear.*

Definition 7.3. *If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the matrix of an invertible linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ (i.e. $A = [F]$), then we define the **inverse of A** by $A^{-1} := [F^{-1}]$.*

Theorem 7.4. *The inverse of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ exists (A is invertible) if and only if $\text{rref}(A) = I_n$.*

Proposition 7.5. *If $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are invertible we have*

- i) $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$,
- ii) $(BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$.

(Definition 7.6 and Theorem 7.7 are just a remark and they are not so important for the rest of this course. They will appear again in detail in Linear Algebra II)

Definition 7.6. *For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\lambda \neq 0$ and $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ we define the **elementary matrices** $R_i^{\lambda, j}, R_i^\lambda, R_{i, j} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ by*

$$R_i^{\lambda, j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & \lambda & & & 1 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad R_i^\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & \lambda & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad R_{i, j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 0 & & 1 \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & 1 & & & 0 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here the λ in $R_i^{\lambda, j}$ is in the i -th row and j -th column, in R_i^λ it is in the i -th row, and in $R_{i, j}$ the 0 are on the diagonal in the i -th row and j -th column.

Multiplying with an elementary matrix from the left corresponds to the elementary row operations (Definition 2.6)

- (R1) Multiplying with $R_i^{\lambda, j}$: Add λ -times row j to row i .
- (R2) Multiplying with R_i^λ : Multiply row j by λ . ($\lambda \neq 0$)
- (R3) Multiplying with $R_{i, j}$: Change row i and j .

Theorem 7.7. *Every invertible matrix is a product of elementary matrices.*

8 Subspaces, Kernel & Image

Definition 8.1. A subset $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n if

- i) $0 \in U$,
- ii) for all $u, v \in U$ we have $u + v \in U$,
- iii) for all $u \in U$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $\lambda u \in U$.

Definition 8.2. For a linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ the **kernel** of F is defined by

$$\ker(F) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid F(x) = 0\}.$$

Proposition 8.3. For any linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ we have the following:

- i) The kernel $\ker(F)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
- ii) The image $\text{im}(F)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .

Definition 8.4. i) A **linear combination** of vectors $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a vector of the form

$$u = \lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

for some numbers $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

- ii) The **span** of $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the set of all linear combinations

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} = \{\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Proposition 8.5. For $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ we have the following.

- i) $\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .
- ii) If $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is a subspace and $v_1, \dots, v_n \in U$ then $\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subset U$.

Proposition 8.6. A linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is injective if and only if $\ker(F) = \{0\}$.

Theorem 8.7. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map.

- i) We have the following equivalent statements for F being injective:

$$F \text{ is injective} \iff \ker(F) = \{0\} \iff \text{rk}([F]) = n.$$

- ii) We have the following equivalent statements for F being surjective:

$$F \text{ is surjective} \iff \text{im}(F) = \mathbb{R}^m \iff \text{rk}([F]) = m.$$

- iii) If $m = n$ then the following statements are equivalent:

$$F \text{ is bijective} \iff F \text{ is injective} \iff F \text{ is surjective}.$$

9 Linear independence

Lemma 9.1. *Let $v_1, \dots, v_l \in \mathbb{R}^m$. If $v_l \in \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{l-1}\}$ then*

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_l\} = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{l-1}\}.$$

Definition 9.2. *i) Vectors $v_1, \dots, v_l \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are called **linearly independent** if the equation*

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_l v_l = 0 \tag{9.1}$$

with $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l \in \mathbb{R}$ just has the unique solution $\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_l = 0$.

*ii) If there exist another solution of (9.1), i.e. where at least for one $j = 1, \dots, l$ we have $\lambda_j \neq 0$, then the vectors v_1, \dots, v_l are called **linearly dependent**.*

Theorem 9.3. *Let $v_1, \dots, v_l \in \mathbb{R}^m$. The following statements are equivalent:*

- i) v_1, \dots, v_l are linearly dependent.*
- ii) There exists a $j = 1, \dots, l$, such that v_j is a linear combination of the other vectors.*
- iii) There exists a $j = 1, \dots, l$ with*

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_l\} = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_l\}.$$

10 Bases & dimensions

Definition 10.1. *Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace. Vectors $v_1, \dots, v_l \in V$ form a **basis of V** if*

- i) $V = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_l\}$,*
- ii) v_1, \dots, v_l are linearly independent.*

In this case we also say that $\{v_1, \dots, v_l\}$ is a basis of V .

Later we will also be interested in the order of the v_j and write a basis as a tuple (v_1, \dots, v_l) .

Lemma 10.2. *Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace, $v_1, \dots, v_l \in V$ linearly independent and $V = \text{span}\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ for some $w_1, \dots, w_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then we have $l \leq m$.*

Lemma 10.3. *If $v_1, \dots, v_l \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are linearly independent and $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $w \notin \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_l\}$ then v_1, \dots, v_l, w are linearly independent.*

Theorem 10.4. *For any subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ we have the following:*

- i) V has a basis.*
- ii) All bases of V have the same number of elements.*
- iii) If $v_1, \dots, v_l \in V$ are linearly independent then there exist $u_{l+1}, \dots, u_t \in V$, such that $\{v_1, \dots, v_l, u_{l+1}, \dots, u_t\}$ is a basis of V .*

i) If $V = \text{span}\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ then there exists a subset $\{u_1, \dots, u_t\} \subset \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ such that $\{u_1, \dots, u_t\}$ is a basis of V .

Definition 10.5. Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace. The **dimension of V** , denoted by $\dim(V)$, is the number of elements in a basis of V .

Corollary 10.6. Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace with $\dim(V) = m$ and $v_1, \dots, v_m \in V$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- i) v_1, \dots, v_m are linearly independent.
- ii) $V = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$.
- iii) $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ is a basis of V .

Theorem 10.7. For a linear map $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ we have

$$n = \dim(\ker(F)) + \dim(\text{im}(F)).$$

11 Coordinates

From now on we will consider ordered bases, which means that we will write (b_1, \dots, b_n) (a tuple) for a basis instead of $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ (a set). The difference is, that we care about the order now. For example, the two sets $\{b_1, b_2\} = \{b_2, b_1\}$ are the same, but $(b_1, b_2) \neq (b_2, b_1)$.

Definition 11.1. Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ be a basis of a subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. We define the **coordinate map** by

$$c_B : \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto \lambda_1 b_1 + \dots + \lambda_m b_m.$$

Theorem 11.2. Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ be a basis of a subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

- i) The coordinate map $c_B : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow V$ is bijective.
- ii) For all $x \in V$ there exist unique $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$x = \lambda_1 b_1 + \dots + \lambda_m b_m.$$

Definition 11.3. Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ be a basis of a subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \in V$ with

$$x = \lambda_1 b_1 + \dots + \lambda_m b_m.$$

- i) The numbers $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{R}$ are the **coordinates of x (in the basis B)**.

ii) The **coordinate vector** of x (with respect to B) is given by

$$[x]_B = c_B^{-1}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proposition 11.4. Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ be a basis of a subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $x, y \in V$ and $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

i) $[x + y]_B = [x]_B + [y]_B$,

ii) $[\mu x]_B = \mu[x]_B$,

iii) $[0]_B = 0$.

Definition 11.5. Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ be a basis of \mathbb{R}^n . The **change-of-basis matrix** associated with B is

$$S_B = [c_B] = \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ b_1 & \dots & b_n \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix}.$$

Definition 11.6. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map, B_1 be a basis of \mathbb{R}^n and B_2 be a basis of \mathbb{R}^m . The **matrix of F with respect to B_1 and B_2** is the matrix

$$[F]_{B_1}^{B_2} := [c_{B_2}^{-1} \circ F \circ c_{B_1}].$$

In the case $n = m$ and $B_1 = B_2$ we just write $[F]_{B_1} := [F]_{B_1}^{B_1}$.

Proposition 11.7. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map, B_1 be a basis of \mathbb{R}^n and B_2 be a basis of \mathbb{R}^m .

i) We have

$$[F]_{B_1}^{B_2} = S_{B_2}^{-1} [F] S_{B_1}.$$

ii) If $B_1 = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$ then

$$[F]_{B_1}^{B_2} = \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ [F(b_1)]_{B_2} & \dots & [F(b_n)]_{B_2} \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix}.$$

12 Orthonormal bases & Gram-Schmidt algorithm

Definition 12.1. i) A vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a **unit vector** if $\|u\| = 1$. (i.e. $u \bullet u = 1$)

ii) Every vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $u \neq 0$ can be normalized by

$$\hat{u} = \frac{1}{\|u\|}u.$$

The vector \hat{u} is a unit vector and shows in the same direction as u .

iii) Vectors $u_1, \dots, u_l \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called **orthonormal** if for $1 \leq i, j \leq l$

$$u_i \bullet u_j = \begin{cases} 1 & , \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & , \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}.$$

Definition 12.2. A basis $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ of a subspace U is called an **orthonormal basis (ONB)** of U if b_1, \dots, b_m are orthonormal.

Proposition 12.3. i) If $v_1, \dots, v_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are orthonormal (ON), then they are linearly independent.

ii) Let $B = (v_1, \dots, v_m)$ be an ONB of $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $u \in V$. Then

$$[u]_B = \begin{pmatrix} u \bullet v_1 \\ \vdots \\ u \bullet v_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m,$$

i.e. $u = \sum_{i=1}^m (u \bullet v_i)v_i$.

iii) If $B = (v_1, \dots, v_m)$ is an ONB of $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $u, w \in V$, then

$$u \bullet w = [u]_B \bullet [w]_B.$$

Definition 12.4. For a subspace $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ we define the **orthogonal complement of U in \mathbb{R}^n** by

$$U^\perp = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x \bullet u = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U\}.$$

Lemma 12.5. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace.

i) $U^\perp \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a subspace.

ii) We have $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$.

iii) If (u_1, \dots, u_r) is a basis of U , $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$x \in U^\perp \iff x \bullet u_1 = \dots = x \bullet u_r = 0.$$

iv) Let (f_1, \dots, f_r) be an ONB of U and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$x = x_{\parallel} + x_{\perp},$$

where

$$x_{\parallel} = \sum_{i=1}^r (x \cdot f_i) f_i \in U$$

$$x_{\perp} = x - x_{\parallel} \in U^{\perp}.$$

Gram-Schmidt algorithm (GSA)

Let $B = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ be an arbitrary basis of a subspace $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. The GSA constructs an orthonormal basis $F = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ of U out of the basis B in the following way m steps:

Step 1: Set $f_1 = \widehat{b}_1 = \frac{1}{\|b_1\|} b_1$.

Step l ($2 \leq l \leq m$): We have constructed orthonormal vectors f_1, \dots, f_{l-1} in the steps before. Now set

$$w_l = b_l - (b_l \cdot f_1) f_1 - \dots - (b_l \cdot f_{l-1}) f_{l-1} = b_l - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} (b_l \cdot f_i) f_i$$

and define $f_l = \frac{1}{\|w_l\|} w_l$.

Theorem 12.6. *Every subspace of \mathbb{R}^n has an ONB.*

Corollary 12.7. *Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ there exist unique $x_{\parallel} \in U$ and $x_{\perp} \in U^{\perp}$ with*

$$x = x_{\parallel} + x_{\perp}.$$

13 Orthogonal Projection & Least squares

Definition 13.1. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace. The map

$$P_U : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ x \longmapsto x_{\parallel}$$

is the **orthogonal projection** onto U .

Proposition 13.2. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace.

i) P_U is a linear map.

ii) $P_U^2 = P_U$.

iii) $\ker(P_U) = U^\perp$ and $\operatorname{im} P_U = U$.

iv) If (f_1, \dots, f_m) is an ONB of U , then

$$P_U(x) = (x \bullet f_1)f_1 + \dots + (x \bullet f_m)f_m.$$

Proposition 13.3. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then for all $u \in U$ we have

$$\|x - P_U(v)\| \leq \|x - u\|.$$

We just have equality in the case when $u = P_U(x)$.

Definition 13.4. The **transpose** of a matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the matrix $A^T = (a_{ji}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

Proposition 13.5. i) For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T, \quad (\lambda A)^T = \lambda A^T.$$

ii) For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$ we have

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}.$$

iii) For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have $x \bullet y = x^T y$.

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we can define the linear map $F : x \mapsto Ax$. With this we define the image and kernel of the matrix A by $\operatorname{im}(A) = \operatorname{im}(F)$ and $\ker(A) = \ker(F)$.

Proposition 13.6. For all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we have $\operatorname{im}(A)^\perp = \ker(A^T)$.

Corollary 13.7. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$.

i) We have $\ker(A^T A) = \ker(A)$.

ii) We have the following equivalence

$$\ker(A) = \{0\} \iff A^T A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ is invertible.}$$