First topic: Coordinates

Let H be the plane x + y + z = 0 in \mathbb{R}^3 .

• Give a basis \vec{u} , \vec{v} of H. To test that your answer makes sense, write the vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 3\\2\\-5 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} -5\\3\\2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 2\\-5\\3 \end{pmatrix}$ as linear combinations of your basis elements.

• Let T be the linear map $(x, y, z) \longrightarrow (y, z, x)$ from \mathbb{R}^3 to \mathbb{R}^3 . For a general vector $p\vec{u} + q\vec{v}$, written in your basis, compute formulas for r and s such that

$$r\vec{u} + s\vec{v} = T\left(p\vec{u} + q\vec{v}\right).$$

When we introduced bases, we said that a basis allows us to treat a finite dimensional vector space V like F^n . How does this work? Let $\mathcal{B} = (\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n)$ be an basis of V, given in a fixed order. When we introduced bases, we said that a basis allows us to treat a finite dimensional vector space V like F^n . How does this work? Let $\mathcal{B} = (\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n)$ be an basis of V, given in a fixed order. So there is a unique list of coefficients $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ for which $\vec{v} = c_1\vec{b}_1 + c_2\vec{b}_2 + \dots + c_n\vec{b}_n$. We call $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ the "coefficients of \vec{v} in the basis \mathcal{B} ". We denote it as $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$. When we introduced bases, we said that a basis allows us to treat a finite dimensional vector space V like F^n . How does this work? Let $\mathcal{B} = (\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n)$ be an basis of V, given in a fixed order. So there is a unique list of coefficients $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ for which $\vec{v} = c_1\vec{b}_1 + c_2\vec{b}_2 + \dots + c_n\vec{b}_n$. We call $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ the "coefficients of \vec{v} in the basis \mathcal{B} ". We denote it as $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

For example, let V be the plane x + y + z = 0 in \mathbb{R}^3 and let $\mathcal{B} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$. Then $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ in the basis \mathcal{B} .

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Remark: Every textbook seems to have a different notation for this concept. This is our book's choice. If it were up to me, I'd go with $\mathcal{B}[\vec{v}]$.

By the definition of a basis, we get a bijection $V \longrightarrow F^n$. We send \vec{v} to $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ and, in reverse, we send $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ to $\vec{v} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n$.

This bijection is a linear transformation between V and F^n . Vocabulary: An invertible linear transformation is called an *isomorphism*. This bijection is a linear transformation between V and F^n . Let's check that this map is linear:

Proof: First, suppose that $\vec{v} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n$ and $\vec{w} = d_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + d_n \vec{b}_n$. So $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $[\vec{w}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix}$. Then we have

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$$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \left(c_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n\right) + \left(d_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + d_n \vec{b}_n\right) = (c_1 + d_1)\vec{b}_1 + \dots + (c_n + d_n)\vec{b}_n$$

 \mathbf{SO}

$$[\vec{v} + \vec{w}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 + d_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n + d_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

We also check scalar multiplication. So the map $V \to F^n$ is linear.

We could directly check that the inverse map is linear. But it is better to show:

Theorem: Let $T: U \to V$ be a bijective map of vector spaces. If T is a linear transformation, then so is T^{-1} .

Proof: Let \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 be in V, and let $\vec{u}_1 = T^{-1}(\vec{v}_1)$ and $\vec{u}_2 = T^{-1}(\vec{v}_2)$. We need to show that $T^{-1}(\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2) = \vec{u}_1 + \vec{u}_2$.

Since T is a bijection, this is the same as showing that $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 = T(\vec{u}_1 + \vec{u}_2)$. But this just follows by linearity of T:

$$T(\vec{u}_1 + \vec{u}_2) = T(\vec{u}_1) + T(\vec{u}_2) = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2.$$

The argument for scalar multiplication is similar. \Box

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In summary: A basis gives us an isomorphism between V and F^n , and coordinates are the explicit way we write this isomorphism. Let's see how linear transformations work in coordinates (Textbook 3.4). Let $T: W \to V$ be a linear transformation. Let $\mathcal{W} = (\vec{w_1}, \vec{w_2}, \dots, \vec{w_n})$ be a basis of W and let $\mathcal{V} = (\vec{v_1}, \vec{v_2}, \dots, \vec{v_m})$ be a basis of V.

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Then

$$T(\vec{w}_j) = \sum B_{ij} \vec{v}_i$$

for some unique scalars B_{ij} . We call the matrix B "the linear transformation T in the coordinates of \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{W} " and call it $_{\mathcal{V}}[T]_{\mathcal{W}}$.

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$$T\left(\sum_{j} c_{j} \vec{w_{j}}\right) = \sum_{j} c_{j} T(\vec{w_{j}}) = \sum_{j} c_{j} \sum_{i} B_{ij} \vec{v_{i}} = \sum_{i} \left(\sum_{j} B_{ij} c_{j}\right) \vec{v_{i}}$$

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We can summarize this formula as

$$[T\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{V}} = (_{\mathcal{V}}[T]_{\mathcal{W}}).$$

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We similarly have

$$_{\mathcal{U}}[ST]_{\mathcal{W}} = (_{\mathcal{U}}[S]_{\mathcal{V}}) (_{\mathcal{V}}[T]_{\mathcal{W}}).$$

Let's go back to our example from the start of class:

Let *H* be the plane x + y + z = 0 in \mathbb{R}^3 . Let $\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and let $\vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let T be the transformation $(x, y, z) \longrightarrow (y, z, x)$. So

$$T\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\-1 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{v}_2$$

$$T\vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix} = -\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2$$

So the transformation T, in the basis (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2) , is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider the following problem: Compute

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{100} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Why? Wait until we get to eigenvectors for real.)

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And what are the coordinates of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ in this basis? $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 2\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$, so $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

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So, in these coordinates, we are trying to compute

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{100} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3^{100} \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So the answer to the original question is that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{100} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 3^{100} \vec{v_1} + \vec{v_2} = 3^{100} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Second topic: Direct sums and quotient spaces

We start with a homework problem: Let V be a vector space and let X and Y be subspaces. Show that the following are equivalent:

- 1. Every vector in V can be written in exactly one way as $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$ for $\vec{x} \in X$ and $\vec{y} \in Y$.
- 2. Every vector in V can be written as $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$ for $\vec{x} \in X$ and $\vec{y} \in Y$, and $X \cap Y = \{0\}$.

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Proof: In either case, we are assuming that every vector can be written as $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$.

(1) \implies (2): If \vec{u} is in $X \cap Y$, then $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = (\vec{x} + \vec{u}) + (\vec{y} - \vec{u})$. This would give multiple formulas for the same vector unless $\vec{u} = \vec{0}$.

(2) \implies (1): Suppose, to the contrary, that $\vec{x}_1 + \vec{y}_1 = \vec{x}_2 + \vec{y}_2$. Then $\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2 = \vec{y}_1 - \vec{y}_2$, so assumption (2) tells us that $\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2 = \vec{y}_1 - \vec{y}_2 = 0$, and we have $\vec{x}_1 = \vec{x}_2$ and $\vec{y}_1 = \vec{y}_2$. \Box In this case, we'll say that $V = X \oplus Y$. For example, $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : x + y + z = 0 \} \oplus \{ \begin{bmatrix} t \\ t \\ t \end{bmatrix} \}.$ In this case, we'll say that $V = X \oplus Y$.

For example,
$$\mathbb{R}^3 = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : x + y + z = 0 \} \oplus \{ \begin{bmatrix} t \\ t \\ t \end{bmatrix} \}.$$

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If $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \ldots, \vec{x}_m$ is a basis of X, and $\vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2, \ldots, \vec{y}_n$ is a basis of Y, then $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \ldots, \vec{x}_m, \vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2, \ldots, \vec{y}_n$ is a basis of V. In particular, $\dim V = \dim X + \dim Y$. In this case, we'll say that $V = X \oplus Y$. For example, $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} : x + y + z = 0 \} \oplus \{ \begin{bmatrix} t \\ t \\ t \end{bmatrix} \}$. In finite dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{R} , we always have $\mathbb{R}^n = L \oplus L^{\perp}$, but this isn't our focus right now. If $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \ldots, \vec{x}_m$ is a basis of X, and $\vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2, \ldots, \vec{y}_n$ is a basis of Y, then $\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \ldots, \vec{x}_m, \vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2, \ldots, \vec{y}_n$ is a basis of V. In particular, dim $V = \dim X + \dim Y$.

So, when we write vectors in the coordinates of this basis, the X-entries come first and then the Y-entries. Similarly, if $V_1 = X_1 \oplus Y_1$ and $V_2 = X_2 \oplus Y_2$, then linear transformations $V_1 \to V_2$ are given by block matrices.

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \to X_2 & Y_1 \to X_2 \\ \hline X_1 \to Y_2 & Y_1 \to Y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Let X and Y be two vector spaces over the same field F. We define the vector space $X \boxplus Y$ as follows:

- The elements of $X \boxplus Y$ are ordered pairs (\vec{x}, \vec{y}) with $\vec{x} \in X$ and $\vec{y} \in Y$.
- Addition is defined as $(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) + (\vec{x}_2, \vec{y}_2) = (\vec{x}_1 + \vec{x}_2, \vec{y}_1 + \vec{y}_2).$
- Scalar multiplication is defined as $c(\vec{x}_1, \vec{y}_1) = (c\vec{x}_1, c\vec{y}_1)$.

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So, if X and Y are both subspaces of V and $V = X \oplus Y$, then $X \boxplus Y$ is isomorphic to $X \oplus Y$, by $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) \mapsto \vec{x} + \vec{y}$. But we are allowed to talk about $X \boxplus Y$ without starting with a subspace that X and Y are both contained in.

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One answer, for finite dimensional real vector spaces, is X^{\perp} , but that isn't ours.

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Define $\vec{v}_1 \equiv \vec{v}_2 \mod X$ if $\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2 \in X$. Check that

- If $\vec{v}_1 \equiv \vec{v}_2$ and $\vec{w}_1 \equiv \vec{w}_2$ then $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{w}_1 \equiv \vec{v}_2 + \vec{w}_2$.
- If $\vec{v}_1 \equiv \vec{v}_2$ and c is a scalar then $c\vec{v}_1 \equiv c\vec{v}_2$.

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The elements of V/X are the equivalence classes for V/X, with addition and scalar multiplication defined as above.

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If
$$V = X \oplus Y$$
, then $Y \longrightarrow V \longrightarrow V/X$ is an isomorphism.