

## Lecture 12 (2/4/2019)

Applications of linear dependence (LD) and linear independence (LI) of vectors:

Thm: A linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is uniquely defined if we know  $f$  at  $n$  LI vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

In other words, if we know  $f(v_1), f(v_2), \dots, f(v_n)$ , we can compute  $f(v)$  for any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Ex: Find a linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} f(1,2) &= (1,2,3) \\ f(2,3) &= (2,-1,2) \end{aligned} \right\} (*)$$

Vectors  $v_1 = (1,2)$  and  $v_2 = (2,3)$  are LI because neither of them is a multiple of the other. There is only one linear map that satisfies (\*). How to find  $f$ ?

$$f \text{ ----- } A \quad 3 \times 2$$
$$f(x) = Ax$$

↑  
one needs to find  $A$

$$f(v_1) = (1,2,3) \Rightarrow A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f(v_2) = (2,-1,2) \Rightarrow A \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Combine these two equations into one equation:

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -8 & 5 \\ -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(3) - 2(2)} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,  $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -8x_1 + 5x_2 \\ -5x_1 + 4x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

Conclusion:  $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, -8x_1 + 5x_2, -5x_1 + 4x_2)$ .

\* Note: If we know  $f(v_1), f(v_2), \dots, f(v_n)$  where  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  are LD then one either lack information to determine  $f$ , or (in certain situations) is able to conclude that  $f$  doesn't exist.

Ex:

Find a linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$f(1, 2) = (0, 2, -1)$$

$$f(2, 4) = (0, 4, -2)$$

$v_1 = (1, 2)$  and  $v_2 = (2, 4)$  are LD because  $v_2 = 2v_1$ .

The second equation can be inferred by the first equation, and this is redundant information. There are in fact infinitely many linear maps from  $\mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $f(1, 2) = (0, 2, -1)$ .

Why?

Given a triple  $(a, b, c)$ , there is a linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

such that  $f(1, 2) = (0, 2, -1)$

$$f(2, 3) = (a, b, c)$$

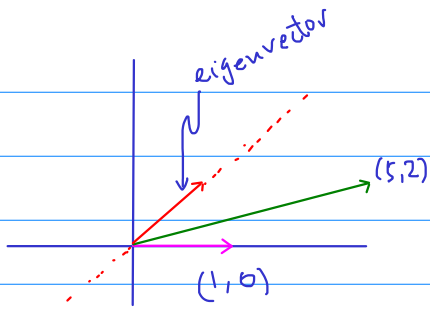
Ex There is no linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$f(1, 2) = (0, 2, -1)$$

$$f(2, 4) = (0, 4, -3)$$

Why?  $v_2 = 2v_1$  but  $f(v_2) \neq 2f(v_1)$ .

\* Eigenvalues and eigenvectors:



$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  takes vector  $(x_1, x_2)$  to  $(2x_1 + 2x_2, 2x_1 + x_2)$ .

Each nonzero vector on the plane specifies a direction.

An eigenvector  $f$  is a vector  $v \neq 0$  such that  $f(v)$  is parallel to  $v$ . In other words,  $f(v) = \lambda v$  for some scalar  $\lambda$ .

$\lambda$  is called the eigenvalue corresponding to eigenvector  $v$ .

\* Observation: on the direction of eigenvectors,  $f$  acts by scaling (no change of direction).

$$f(1,1) = (3,3) = 3(1,1)$$

Vector  $v = (1,1)$  is an eigenvector of  $f$

$\lambda = 3$  is the corresponding eigenvalue of  $v$

$7v = (7,7)$  is also an eigenvector of  $f$  because

$$f(7,7) = 7f(1,1) = 7 \cdot 3(1,1) = (21,21) = 3(7,7)$$

In fact, scalar multiple of an eigenvector is also an eigenvector, with the same eigenvalue.

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. A vector  $v \neq 0$  is called eigenvector of  $A$  if

$$Av = \lambda v$$

for some scalar  $\lambda$ . This scalar is called the eigenvalue of  $A$  corresponding to eigenvector  $v$ .