

# Lecture 4 - Basis, Dimension & Dot Product

Note Title

1/28/2008

At the end of last time, we defined linear combinations of a pair of vectors. Today we will use similar ideas to get a way to describe arbitrary vectors in terms of ones we like.

Example of what we want:

$$\{\bar{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0), \bar{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0), \bar{e}_3 = (0, 0, 1)\} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^3$$

1) Every vector  $(a, b, c)$  is a linear comb of these:

$$(a, b, c) = a\bar{e}_1 + b\bar{e}_2 + c\bar{e}_3$$

2) If  $a\bar{e}_1 + b\bar{e}_2 + c\bar{e}_3 = d\bar{e}_1 + f\bar{e}_2 + g\bar{e}_3$ , then  $a=d, b=f, c=g$ . ie each choice of coeffs gives a different vector.

Def A set of vectors  $S = \{\bar{v}_1, \dots\}$  spans  $W$  if every vector in  $W$  is a linear comb of vectors of  $S$ .

In other words, if  $\bar{w} \in W$ , then there are coefficients

$$a_1, \dots \text{ s.t. } \bar{w} = a_1\bar{v}_1 + \dots$$

Ex: •  $\{\bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2, \bar{e}_3\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (part 1)

•  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  spans the solutions to  $x+y+z=0: \longleftrightarrow [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ | \ 0]$

$\Rightarrow x$  is lead,  $y, z$  free  $\Rightarrow y=s, z=t$

$x = -s-t \Rightarrow$  sol are of the form

$$(-s-t, s, t)$$

↑

$$\begin{bmatrix} -s-t \\ s \\ t \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

•  $\{(2, 1, 1), (0, 2, 1), (0, 0, 2)\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^3$ : Have to show that we can find  $r, s, t$  s.t.  $r(2, 1, 1) + s(0, 2, 1) + t(0, 0, 2) = (a, b, c)$

$$\begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & | & a \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & | & b \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & | & c \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\substack{+2 \\ -1}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & a/2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & | & b - a/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | & c - a/2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\substack{-2 \\ -1}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & a/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & b/2 - a/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & | & c - b/2 - a/4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & a/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & b/2 - a/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & c/2 - b/4 - a/8 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} r = a/2 \\ s = b/2 - a/4 \\ t = c/2 - b/4 - a/8 \end{array} \quad \text{So "spans" means the system with our vectors as columns has a solution.}$$

•  $\{\bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2, \bar{e}_3, (1, 1, 1)\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^3$

Spanning means we have enough vectors to reach every point in our space. Doesn't say anything about uniqueness.

Def A set  $\{\bar{v}_1, \bar{v}_2, \bar{v}_3\}$  is linearly independent if

$$a\bar{v}_1 + b\bar{v}_2 + c\bar{v}_3 = \bar{0} \Rightarrow a = b = c = 0.$$

(same def for bigger sets).

Put in words, a set is lin ind if there is a unique way to write zero as a linear comb of the vectors.

This actually implies that there is a unique way to write any vector in the span.

If  $\{\bar{v}_1, \bar{v}_2, \bar{v}_3\}$  is linearly independent, then

$$a\bar{v}_1 + b\bar{v}_2 + c\bar{v}_3 = d\bar{v}_1 + f\bar{v}_2 + g\bar{v}_3 \Rightarrow a = d, \dots$$

Why? Just subtract the right hand side from the

left:  $(a-d)\bar{v}_1 + (b-f)\bar{v}_2 + (c-g)\bar{v}_3 = 0$

Ex:  $\{(1,0), (0,1)\}$  is linearly independent:

$$a(1,0) + b(0,1) = (a,b) = (0,0) \Leftrightarrow a=b=0$$

$\{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1), (1,1,1)\}$  is not linearly independent:

$$\bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_2 + \bar{e}_3 - (1,1,1) = (0,0,0). \quad \leftarrow \text{linear dependence relation}$$

can rewrite this as

$$\bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_2 + \bar{e}_3 = (1,1,1) \quad \text{so}$$

A set is not linearly independent when one vector is a linear combination of the others.

Put together:

Def A set  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis if it is both linearly independent and spans.

Ex:  $\{\bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2, \bar{e}_3\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The standard basis.

$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis for the solutions to  $x+y+z=0$ .

Already saw it spans. Why linearly independent?

$$a \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -a-b \\ b \\ a \end{bmatrix} \parallel \Rightarrow a=b=0$$

Def The size of any basis is the dimension of the space.

Ex: •  $\dim \mathbb{R}^3 = 3$

•  $\dim(\{x+y+z=0\}) = 2$

Remark: This fits our intuitive, geometric notion of dimension:

1 dim things are lines, 2 dim things are planes, etc.

So if  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis, then any vector is a linear combination of vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  (and uniquely so).

Finding the coefficients is tough.

## Dot Product

Def If  $\vec{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ ,  $\vec{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , then

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_1 v_1 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

Ex: •  $(1, 2) \cdot (3, 4) = 1(3) + 2(4) = 11$

•  $(1, 8, 16) \cdot (2, 0, 1) = 1 \cdot 2 + 8 \cdot 0 + 16 \cdot 1 = 18$

## Properties of $\cdot$

1)  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$

2)  $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$

3)  $(c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$

4)  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \geq 0$ , w/ equality iff  $\vec{u} = \vec{0}$ .

How to see these? Expand out:

1)  $\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = u_1(v_1 + w_1) + \dots + u_n(v_n + w_n)$

$$= u_1 v_1 + u_1 w_1 + \dots + u_n v_n + u_n w_n$$

$$= (u_1 v_1 + \dots + u_n v_n) + (u_1 w_1 + \dots + u_n w_n) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w}$$

Part 4) says that we can use  $\cdot$  to get lengths:

Def The length / norm of  $\vec{u}$ ,  $|\vec{u}|$  is

$$|\vec{u}| = \sqrt{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

Ex: •  $\vec{u} = (3, 4)$ ,  $|\vec{u}| = \sqrt{9+16} = 5$

•  $\vec{v} = (3, 4, 12)$   $|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{9+16+144} = \sqrt{169} = 13$

Def A unit vector is any vector of length 1.

Given any vector, we can normalize to get a unit vector:  $\vec{u}_{\vec{v}} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$

Ex:  $\vec{v} = (3, -4, 12)$ ,  $|\vec{v}| = 13 \Rightarrow \vec{u}_{\vec{v}} = \left(\frac{3}{13}, \frac{-4}{13}, \frac{12}{13}\right)$

The unit vectors measure just direction, rather than length.

Can get more geometry from •:

Def The angle between two vectors  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  is defined by

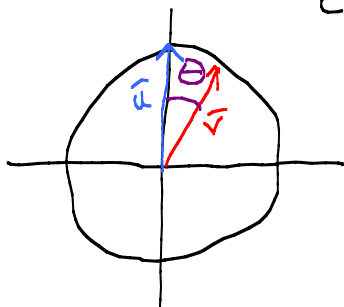
$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{|\vec{u}| \cdot |\vec{v}|}, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$$

Def Two vectors are orthogonal if  $\theta = \pi/2 \iff \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

Ex: •  $\vec{u} = (3, 1)$ ,  $\vec{v} = (-1, 3)$  are orthogonal

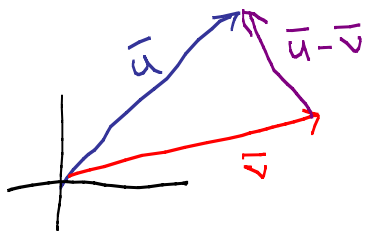
•  $\vec{u} = (0, 1)$ ,  $\vec{v} = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{|\vec{u}| \cdot |\vec{v}|} = \frac{(\sqrt{3}/2)}{1 \cdot 1} = \sqrt{3}/2 \Rightarrow \theta = \pi/6$$



With these notions, the linear algebra captures many of the ideas we had from ordinary geometry:

Distance between points:  $d(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = |\vec{u} - \vec{v}| = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + \dots}$



This gives us things like circles:

$$\{\vec{x} \mid d(\vec{x}, \vec{a}) = r\}$$