



EE 501 Linear Systems Theory

Emre Özkan emreo@metu.edu.tr

Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering Middle East Technical University Ankara, Turkey

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Example

A set is a collection of objects, either concrete or abstract.

Definition

A field is a set F, together with two mappings of $F \times F \to F$, called addition and multiplication, written as $(a, b) \to a + b$ and $(a, b) \to ab$ respectively with the following properties:



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Field continued..



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(D1) $a(b+c) = ab + ac \quad \forall a, b, c \text{ (distributive law)}.$

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Set of real numbers $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$ with standard addition and multiplication.

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Set of real numbers $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$ with standard addition and multiplication.

Example

Set of binary numbers with modulo 2 addition and multiplication.

 $F=\{0,1\}$

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Field continued ..



Example

Let
$$F = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$$
. Let us define $+$ and \cdot as:
 $x + y := (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2),$
 $x \cdot y := (x_1y_1 - x_2y_2, x_1y_2 + x_2y_1),$
where $x = (x_1, x_2) \in F, y = (y_1, y_2) \in F.$

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Exercise

Let $F = (0, \infty) = \mathbb{R}_+$ (positive real numbers) Given x + y := xy, $x \cdot y := e^{\ln(x) \ln(y)}$, show that F satisfies the axioms of field. Find 1_F and 0_F .

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Question

Are polynomials a field? Are matrices a field?

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A linear space V is a set, whose elements are called <u>vectors</u> associated with a field F, whose elements are called <u>scalars</u>. Vectors can be added and they can be multiplied by scalars. These operations satisfy the following properties:



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Linear Spaces



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Scalar multiplication: ax, $\cdot : F \times V \to V$ (M1) a(bx) = (ab)x for all $a, b \in F$, $x \in V$ (associativity)

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Scalar multiplication: ax, $\cdots : F \times V \to V$ (M1) a(bx) = (ab)x for all $a, b \in F$, $x \in V$ (associativity) (M2) a(x+y) = ax + ay for all $a \in F$, $x, y \in V$ (distributive)

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Example

Show that 0x = 0

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Set of all vectors (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) with $a_i \in F$. Addition, multiplication are defined componentwise. This space is denoted as F^n . Let $x, y \in F^n$ $x = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n), y = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$ Addition: $x + y := (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \ldots, a_n + b_n)$ Multiplication: $cx := (ca_1, ca_2, \ldots, ca_n)$



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Set of all real valued functions $t \to f(t)$ defined on the real line $F = \mathbb{R}$.



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Set of all polynomials with degree n with coefficients in F.

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Set of all polynomials with degree less than n with coefficients in F. Note that this linear space is a subset of the previous one for $F = \mathbb{R}$.



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Remark

Subset has to be closed under addition and scalar multiplication. All other properties are inherited from the original linear space.

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Example

linear space $V = \mathbb{R}^2$; subspace $W = [a \ 0]^T : a \in \mathbb{R}$



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linear space $V = \mathbb{R}^2$; subspace $W = [a \ 0]^T : a \in \mathbb{R}$

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linear space $V = \mathbb{R}^2$; subspace $W = [a \ 1]^T : a \in \mathbb{R}$

Example

linear space $V = \text{set of all real valued functions } t \to f(t)$; subspace $W_1 = \text{set of all continuous functions,}$ subspace $W_2 = \text{set of all functions periodic with } \pi$.

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Remark

0 vector itself is a subspace and it is the smallest subspace.

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Definition

The sum of two subsets Y and Z of a linear space X, denoted as Y + Z, is the set of all vectors of form y + z, $y \in Y$, $z \in Z$.



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Example

Show that Y + Z is a linear subspace of X if Y and Z are



Prove that if Y and Z are subspaces of linear space X, so is their intersection $Y\cap Z.$

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Example

If Y and Z are subspaces of linear space X, is their union $Y\cup Z$ a subspace?



Let (V, F) and (W, F) be two linear spaces defined over the same scalar field F. The product space of (V, F) and (W, F) is defined as

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• $a(v, w) := (av, aw)$ (scalar multiplication)

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Definition

A <u>linear combination</u> of n vectors x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n of a linear space C is a vector of the form $a_1x_1, +a_2x_2+, \ldots, +a_nx_n$, where a_i 's are scalars in F.



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The set of <u>all</u> linear combinations of x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n is called the span of $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$; denoted by $sp\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$.



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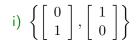
Definition

Vectors x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n in X are said to be linearly independent iff $a_1x_1, +a_2x_2+, \ldots, +a_nx_n = 0$ implies $a_i = 0, \forall i$. Otherwise, they are linearly dependent.

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Example



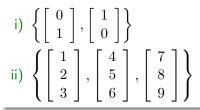


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Example



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Example

i) $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ ii) $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4\\5\\6 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 7\\8\\9 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

Example

Consider the linear space of polynomials with degree $n \leq 2$. Let subset $S = \{P_1, P_2, P_3\}$ be such that $p_1(t) = 1$, $p_2(t) = t$, $p_3(t) = t^2$, $\forall t$ Is this set linearly independent?



Example

 $S = \{\cos(t), \sin(t), \cos(t - \pi/3)\}$

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Example

$$\mathsf{S} = \{\cos(t), \sin(t), \cos(t - \pi/3)\}$$

Definition

Let V be a linear space and (finite) set of vectors $S = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a subset of V. S is said to be a basis for V iff

$$Span(S) = V$$

S is a linearly independent set.



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Definition

A (finite dimensional) linear space V has many bases. All these bases must have the same number of vectors. That number is called the <u>dimension</u> of V.

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Example i) $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$,

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Ordered basis is a basis (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) , where basis vectors are given in a specific ordering.



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Ordered basis is a basis (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) , where basis vectors are given in a specific ordering.

If (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) is an ordered basis of V and $y \in V$, then there is a unique n-tuple of scalars (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) such that $y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$.



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With respect to some ordered basis $B_1 = (x_1, x_2)$ of \mathbb{R}^2 , let the vectors y_1, y_2, y_3 be presented by $[y_1]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\ \end{bmatrix}$, $[y_2]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\ \end{bmatrix}$, $[y_3]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\ \end{bmatrix}$. That is, $y_1 = 1x_1 + 1x_2$, $y_2 = 1x_1 + 0x_2$, $y_3 = 2x_1 + 3x_2$. Let our new basis be $B_2 = (y_1, y_2)$. Express y_3 w.r.t. this new basis.



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<u>Remark:</u> For a given ordered basis, the representation of a vector is unique.





(P1)
$$||x_1 + x_2|| \le ||x_1|| + ||x_2||$$



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(P2) $||\alpha x|| = |\alpha| ||x|| \ \forall x \in V \text{ and } \alpha \in F$
(P3) $||x|| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$



Consider a linear space V over F, where F is either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . Let there be a function $x \to ||x||$ that assigns to each $x \in V$, a nonnegative real number $||x|| \in \mathbb{R} > 0$. Such function is called a **norm** if it satisfies the following properties.

(P1)
$$||x_1 + x_2|| \le ||x_1|| + ||x_2||$$

(P2) $||\alpha x|| = |\alpha| ||x|| \quad \forall x \in V \text{ and } \alpha \in F$
(P3) $||x|| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

The expression "'||x||"' is read "'the norm of x"' and the function ||.|| is said to be a norm on V.



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The expression "'||x||"' is read "'the norm of x"' and the function ||.|| is said to be a norm on V.

The triplex $(V, F, \|.\|)$ is called a **normed space**.



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The distance between $x_1, x_2 \in V$ is the norm of the vector $x_1 - x_2$ or $x_2 - x_1$: $||(x_1 - x_2)||$.



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The norm of x, ||x|| is the distance of x to the origin 0.

Now that we have a proper tool for measuring distance (norm), we can begin studying the "geometry" of the space (parallelism, orthogonality, area, volume, shape in general).

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Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, $F = \mathbb{R}$,



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Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, $F = \mathbb{R}$, i) $||x||_1 := |\alpha_1| + |\alpha_2|$. Is $||.||_1$ a norm?

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All these norms can be generalized into what we call a 'p-norm'.

$$||x|| := (|\alpha_1|^p + |\alpha_2|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

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All these norms can be generalized into what we call a 'p-norm'.

$$||x|| := (|\alpha_1|^p + |\alpha_2|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Note that $\lim_{p\to\infty} \|x\|_p = \|x\|_{\infty}$.

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Normed linear spaces



p-norm:

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Examples: On lecture notes...

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Matrix Norms



Example

Let $V = \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, and $A = [a_{ij}]$,

 $\|A\| = \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}| \text{ is a norm.}$

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Matrix Norms



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Exercise

Show that this is a norm.

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Definition

 $A: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be an $m \times n$ matrix. Let $\|.\|_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ and $\|.\|_{\mathbb{R}^m}$ denote the norms (vector norms) in \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^m respectively. The **induced norm** of a matrix is defined as

$$||A|| := \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||_{\mathbb{R}^m}}{||x||_{\mathbb{R}^n}}$$



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Remark:

The induced matrix norm is defined in terms of vector norms. An equivalent definition is:

$$||A|| := \max_{||x||=1} ||Ax||.$$



Remark:

$$\begin{aligned} |Ax|| &= \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \|x\| (\text{ suppose } \|x\| \neq 0) \\ &\leq \left(\max_{y} \frac{\|Ay\|}{\|y\|} \right) \|x\| \\ &= \|A\| \|x\| \Rightarrow \|Ax\| \le \|A\| \|x\| \end{aligned}$$

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Remark:

$$\|Ax\| = \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \|x\| (\text{ suppose } \|x\| \neq 0)$$

$$\leq \left(\max_{y} \frac{\|Ay\|}{\|y\|}\right) \|x\|$$

$$= \|A\| \|x\| \Rightarrow \|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$$

Furthermore, there exists a vector x^* such that $||Ax^*|| = ||A|| ||x^*||$ which may not be unique.

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Choose $\|.\|_2$ in \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^m ,

$$||A|| = \max_{||x||=1} ||Ax|| = \max_{||x||=1} \sqrt{(Ax)^T Ax} = \max_{||x||=1} \sqrt{x^T A^T Ax}$$

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Consider the unit vectors in
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
 with $||x||_2 = 1$, and matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$,

Note that, $\max \|Ax\|_2 = 6.80$, and $\sqrt{\lambda_{max}(A^T A)} = 6.80$

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Consider the unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 with $||x||_{\infty} = 1$, and matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$,

Note that, $\max \|Ax\|_{\infty} = 9.00$, and maximum absolute row sum of A = 9.00

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Consider the unit vectors in
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
 with $||x||_2 = 1$, and matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -6 & 3 \\ 7 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$,

Note that, $\max \|Ax\|_2 = 9.49, \quad \text{ and } \quad \sqrt{\lambda_{max}(A^TA)} = 9.49$

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Consider the unit vectors in
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
 with $||x||_{\infty} = 1$, and matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -6 & 3 \\ 7 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$,

Note that, $\max \left\|Ax\right\|_{\infty} = 11.00,$ and maximum absolute row sum of A = 11.00

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(a)



Definition

Let $(V, F, \|.\|)$ be a normed space. Let $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of vectors in V. $v_n \in V$ $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ The sequence is said to be **convergent** to the limit $\bar{v} \in V$ iff $\|v_n - \bar{v}\| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$



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Equivalently, given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \ (N \text{ depends on } \epsilon)$ such that $n \ge N$ implies $||v_n - \bar{v}|| \le \epsilon$.



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Equivalently, given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \ (N \text{ depends on } \epsilon)$ such that $n \ge N$ implies $||v_n - \bar{v}|| \le \epsilon$.

Remark:

A sequence that is not convergent is called **divergent**.

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Given $V = \mathbb{R}$ and ||v|| = |v|, consider the sequence $\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Is the sequence convergent to $\bar{v} = 0$.

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Given $V = \mathbb{R}$ and ||v|| = |v|, consider the sequence $\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Is the sequence convergent to $\bar{v} = 0$.

Example

Consider the sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

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In general, we do not know where!



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The given definition of the convergence requires the limiting element $\bar{v} \in V$, an element we may not know, to verify convergence.



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The given definition of the convergence requires the limiting element $\bar{v} \in V$, an element we may not know, to verify convergence.

There are ways to exclude " $\bar{v} - dependence$ ".

Cauchy sequence



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Definition

Let $(V, F, \|.\|)$ be a normed space. A sequence $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in V is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N$ (depending on ϵ) such that $||v_n - v_m|| < \epsilon$ for all n, m > N.



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Remark:

Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence. The converse, in general, is not true.



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Remark:

Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence. The converse, in general, is not true.

Example

Consider the normed space $(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}, |.|)$, (i.e., set of rational numbers over the field rational numbers with norm being the absolute value). Is the sequence $\{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i!}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ convergent?

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A normed space is said to be **complete** if every Cauchy sequence is convergent. A complete normed space is called a **Banach Space**.

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A normed space is said to be **complete** if every Cauchy sequence is convergent. A complete normed space is called a **Banach Space**.

Example

"'A normed space that is not complete"' Let $V = \{f | f : [-1, 1] \to \mathbb{R}, f \text{ is continuous and } \int_{-1}^{1} |f(t)| dt < \infty\}$. Define $||f||_1 := \int_{-1}^{1} |f(t)| dt$. Now consider the sequence $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ defined as follows:





Definition

Let V be a linear space over field F. An inner product is a map of the form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to F$ that satisfies the following three axioms for all vectors $x, y, z \in V$ and all scalars $\alpha \in F$.



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1)
$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$$
 (conjugate symmetry)



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1)
$$\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$$
 (conjugate symmetry)
2a) $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$ (linearity in the first argument)
2b) $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$ (linearity in the first argument)



Definition

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3) $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$ with equality only for x = 0 (positive defineteness)



Notice that

$$\langle x, y + z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle$$

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Notice that

$$\langle x, y + z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle$$

$$\langle x, \alpha y \rangle = \overline{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle$$

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Example

$$V = \mathbb{C}^n$$
, $\langle x, y
angle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \overline{y_i}$

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Example

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Example

$$V=\mathbb{C}^n$$
, $\langle x,y
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Example

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Theorem

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$|\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \le \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$$

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We have studied

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We have studied

Sets



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We have studied

- Sets
- Linear Spaces

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We have studied

Sets

Linear Spaces

Normed Linear Spaces

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We have studied

Sets

- Linear Spaces
- Normed Linear Spaces
- Inner Product Spaces

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We have studied

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Sets

Very general concept. We can perform:



We have studied

Sets

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Sets

Very general concept. We can perform:

Define subsets



We have studied

Sets

- Linear Spaces
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Sets

Very general concept. We can perform:

- Define subsets
- Take unions, intersections, complements, set subtraction



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We defined members of our sets as $\boldsymbol{vectors}$ and defined

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We defined members of our sets as vectors and defined

Vector addition

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Linear Spaces

We defined members of our sets as vectors and defined

- Vector addition
- Scalar multiplication

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We obtained an algebraic structure, where we can

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- define span, basis, etc. Find representation of vectors wrt to basis,





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- perform algebraic operations,
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- define span, basis, etc. Find representation of vectors wrt to basis,
- define **linear transformations** between vector spaces.





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Normed Linear Spaces

We defined **norms** to incorporate a **geometric structure** on top of the algebraic structure. We can calculate the **distance** between two members of the vector space: ||x - y|| In a normed space we can,



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Define (measure) distance



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Normed Linear Spaces

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- Define (measure) distance
- Analyse convergence of sequences

Normed spaces have a major shortcoming. The direction cannot be characterized. The direction, or rather **relative direction**, can be studied by the help of a tool we call the **inner product**.





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Enhancement of the geometric structure of a normed space

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Enhancement of the geometric structure of a normed space

Example

Let u an v be two unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

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Enhancement of the geometric structure of a normed space

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Enhancement of the geometric structure of a normed space

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- $\blacksquare \langle u,v\rangle$ is maximum when u and v point in the same direction



Enhancement of the geometric structure of a normed space

Example

Let u an v be two unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

- $\langle u,v\rangle=0$ if they are orthogonal
- $\blacksquare \langle u,v\rangle$ is maximum when u and v point in the same direction
- $\blacksquare \langle u,v\rangle$ is minimum when u and v point in the opposite direction



Let V and W be linear spaces over the same field F. A linear transformation T is a mapping $T: V \to W$ satisfying $T(a_1x_1 + a_2x_2) = a_1T(x_1) + a_2T(x_2) \quad \forall a_1, a_2 \in F \quad and \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in V$



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Example

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$$V = W$$
 polynomials of degree less than n in S ; $T = \frac{d}{ds}$

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Example

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$$V = W$$
 polynomials of degree less than n in S ; $T = \frac{d}{ds}$

•
$$V = W = \{$$
continuous functions of type $f : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{R} \};$
 $T_f = \int_0^1 f(s) ds$



Given linear transformation $T: V \to W$, the **null space** of T is the set of all $x \in V$ satisfying $Tx = 0_w$. That is, $\mathcal{N}(T) := \{x \in V : Tx = 0\}$



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Definition

Given linear transformation $T: V \to W$, the **range space** of T the set of all $w \in W$ satisfying Tv = W. That is $\mathcal{R}(T) := \{w \in W : w = Tv \text{ for some } v \in V\}$



Remark

For a linear transformation $T: V \to W$, $\mathcal{N}(T)$ is a linear subspace of V.

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Remark

For a linear transformation $T: V \to W$, $\mathcal{N}(T)$ is a linear subspace of V.

Remark

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\mathcal{R}(T) is a subspace of W.
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A function $f: X \to Y$ is one-to-one if $x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$

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A function $f: X \to Y$ is one-to-one if $x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$

Theorem

Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. Then mapping T is one-to-one if and only if $\mathcal{N}(T) = \{0\}$.