

**1 Transformation behaviour under a change of basis (20 P)** The object we deal with in linear algebra, i.e. vectors, linear maps, are all declared independently of a choice of basis. This needs to be so, since a choice of basis is completely arbitrary. Thus the component representations of these objects (column vectors, matrices,...) are also arbitrary. In practice one often tries to find a basis in which the components take on a particularly simple form (e.g. a diagonal matrix).

In order to be able to describe the same object in different bases, one must know how their components change under a change of basis. All transformation properties are direct consequences of this invariance. The vector or the linear map themselves do not depend on the choice of basis.

Let  $V$  and  $W$  be vectorspaces over  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , and  $\mathcal{E} = \{e_i\}, \mathcal{E}' = \{e'_i\} \subset V$  and  $\mathcal{F} = \{f_i\}, \mathcal{F}' = \{f'_i\} \subset W$  respectively arbitrary bases of these spaces. In particular there exist coefficients  $S_{ij}$  and  $T_{ij}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} e_i &= \sum e'_j S_{ji} \\ f_i &= \sum f'_j T_{ji} \end{aligned}$$

Let further  $L : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear map.

- a) (1 P) Deduce from the invariance of an arbitrary vector  $v \in V$ , that its components transform according to

$$\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{v}$$

under a change of basis.

- b) (1 P) Deduce further from the invariance of  $w = Lv$ , that by changing bases in  $V$  as well as  $W$ , the matrix representation of  $L$  transforms according to

$$\mathbf{L}' = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{S}^{-1}.$$

We are now going to investigate an object that transforms neither like a vector nor a linear map. The lecture introduced the notion of *scalar (or inner) product*. We restrict ourselves to the case of a real, euclidean inner product.

As you are aware, an inner product is a *bilinear* map  $V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . It also exists independently from a choice a basis.

We may still calculate the inner product from the components of the involved vectors after choosing a (not necessarily orthonormal) basis by writing

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \left\langle \sum_i u_i e_i, \sum_j v_j e_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i,j} u_i v_j \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \equiv \sum_{i,j} u_i v_j g_{ij} \quad (1)$$

The last equality defines the quantity  $g_{ij} = \langle e_i, e_j \rangle$  which is called the *metric tensor*. It contains in a given basis all information about an inner product – just like matrices define a linear map completely.

- c) (2P) Convince yourself that (1) can be written in the form

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \mathbf{u}^t \mathbf{g} \mathbf{v} \quad (2)$$

, where  $\mathbf{u}^t = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  is a row vector and  $(\mathbf{g})_{ij} = g_{ij}$  the matrix of components of the metric tensor.

- d) (3P) Proof that with respect to an orthonormal basis

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \mathbf{u}^t \mathbf{I} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum u_i v_i \quad (3)$$

$\mathbf{I}$  is the identity matrix. Hence any inner product is the standard dot product in an orthonormal basis.

What happens under a change of basis?

Show that (3) is in general *not* invariant under a change of basis (e.g. by scaling the basis). Which property does a change of basis matrix need to have, in order to leave  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  invariant?

To define an invariant object it is therefore not sufficient to only regard  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ . One needs to transform the metric tensor too. Again, the transformation behaviour follows from demanding invariance of the inner product under change of basis.

- e) (5P) Deduce from the invariance of  $\langle u, v \rangle$  under basis change that the metric tensor transforms as

$$\mathbf{g}' = (\mathbf{S}^{-1})^t \mathbf{g} \mathbf{S}^{-1}$$

if  $\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}$ . Show first that transposition and inversion commute, i.e. that

$$(\mathbf{S}^{-1})^t = (\mathbf{S}^t)^{-1}$$

[*Hint:* Show and use  $(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})^t = \mathbf{B}^t \mathbf{A}^t$  first].

- f) (5P) Proof further that the defining properties of an inner product imply the following properties of  $\mathbf{g}$

(i.)  $\mathbf{g}$  is symmetric.

(ii.)  $\mathbf{g}$  is invertible.

(iii.)  $\mathbf{g}$  is diagonalizable and its eigenvalues are strictly positive

and that vice versa any symmetric matrix with strictly positive eigenvalues defines an inner product according to (2)

- g) (3P) Let  $\mathbf{g} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a \\ a & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  wrt. the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . For which  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  does this define a valid inner product?

Find the basis that is orthonormal wrt. to the inner product given by  $\mathbf{g}$ . Diagonalize  $\mathbf{g}$  first and then think about how you can achieve normalization of the basis vectors.

**2 Orthogonal Maps (10 P)** In the lecture you learned about *orthogonal maps*. A linear map of an euclidean vector space  $L : V \rightarrow V$  on itself<sup>1</sup> is called *orthogonal* if

$$\forall x, y \in V : \langle Lx, Ly \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$$

holds.

Call  $O(V)$  the set of all orthogonal maps on  $V$ .

We are going to discuss some important properties of these maps.

- a) (3 P) Proof that  $L$  is invertible<sup>2</sup> and that  $L^{-1}$  is orthogonal as well.

Further show that  $O(V)$  is a group under concatenation.

What is there to say about matrix representations of orthogonal maps?

- b) (2 P) Show that a matrix  $\mathbf{L}$  of  $L \in O(V)$  wrt. an orthonormal basis fulfills

$$\mathbf{L}^{-1} = \mathbf{L}^t$$

We call a matrix *orthogonal* if it has this property.

- c) (3 P) Orthogonal matrices may be defined by many equivalent properties.

Show that the following are equivalent

- (i)  $\mathbf{L}^{-1} = \mathbf{L}^t$ .
- (ii) For all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .
- (iii) The columns  $(\mathbf{l}_1, \dots, \mathbf{l}_n)$  of  $\mathbf{L}$  are orthonormal:  $\mathbf{l}_i \cdot \mathbf{l}_j = \delta_{ij}$ .
- d) (2 P) Proof that  $\det(L) = \pm 1$ . Which kind of transformations do the different signs represent? Consider the special case of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  for that.

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<sup>1</sup>called an *endomorphism*

<sup>2</sup>an invertible linear map is called an *isomorphism*