

Last time LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

Maps  $T: U \rightarrow V$  between vector spaces  $U$  and  $V$  that respect the additions & scalar multiplications of the vector spaces:  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1} T(u_1 + u_2) = T(u_1) + T(u_2) \text{ for all } u_1, u_2 \text{ in } U \\ \textcircled{2} T(cu) = (cT(u)) \text{ for all } u \text{ in } U \text{ \& scalars } c. \end{array} \right.$

We have  $\ker(T) = \{u \in U \mid T(u) = 0\}$  ← kernel  
 $R(T) = \{v \in V \mid T(u) = v \text{ for some } u \text{ in } U\}$  ← range

Theorem If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is a linear transformation, then  $\ker(T)$  is a subspace of  $U$  and  $R(T)$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

Proof  $\ker(T) \rightarrow$  left as Exercise.

For  $R(T)$  we want to show (1)  $R(T)$  not empty  
 (2)  $R(T)$  closed under addition (3)  $R(T)$  closed under scalar multiplication.

For (1) we pick a vector in  $V$  and show it lives in  $R(T)$ .

We pick the zero vector in  $V$ :  $T(0) = 0$  so  $0$  is in  $R(T)$ .

(2) If  $v, y$  in  $R(T)$  then there are some  $u$  and  $w$  in  $U$  with  $T(u) = v$  and  $T(w) = y$ .

Then  $v + y = T(u) + T(w) = T(u + w) \in R(T)$ .

(3) If  $v$  in  $R(T)$  and  $k$  a scalar, then there is a  $u$  in  $U$  with  $T(u) = v$ . So  $kv = kT(u) = T(ku) \in R(T)$ . //

If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is a linear transformation, and

if  $\ker(T)$  is finite dimensional, then  $\dim(\ker(T))$  is called the nullity of  $T$ ,

& if  $R(T)$  is finite dimensional, then  $\dim(R(T))$  is called the rank of  $T$ .

Notice that if  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a matrix trans.

$T_A(x) = Ax$ , then nullity( $T_A$ ) = nullity( $A$ )  
[ = dim. of nullspace of  $A$  ]

& rank( $T_A$ ) = rank( $A$ )

[ = dim. of column space of  $A$  ]

### Rank-Nullity Theorem

If  $T: U \rightarrow U$  is a linear trans. and  $U$  is finite dimensional, then  $R(T)$  is finite dim.

&  $\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = \dim(U)$ .

So if  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is given  $T_A(x) = Ax$ , then

$$\text{rank}(A) + \text{nullity}(A) = n$$


Examples (A)  $\nearrow$

(B)  $I: U \rightarrow U$ ,  $I(u) = u$  for all  $u$     nullity( $I$ ) =  $\dim(\{0\}) = 0$

rank( $I$ ) =  $\dim(U)$

(c)  $T(u) = 0$  for all  $u$ : nullity( $T$ ) = dim( $U$ )  
rank( $T$ ) = dim( $\{0_V\}$ ) = 0

(D) Projection in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  onto  $(x,y)$ -plane :  $T(x,y,z) = (x,y,0)$   
nullity( $T$ ) = dim( $z$ -axis) = 1  
rank( $T$ ) = dim( $(x,y)$ -plane) = 2 }  $1+2 = \dim(\mathbb{R}^3)$

Just as with matrix transformations a linear transformation is one-to-one (1-1) if it sends distinct vectors to distinct vectors 

Theorem If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is a linear trans., then the following are equivalent (i)  $T$  is one-to-one;  
(ii)  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$ .

Proof (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii) is clear from  $T(0) = 0$ .

(ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i) If  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$  and  $x \neq y$  in  $U$ , then suppose (for a contradiction) that  $T(x) = T(y)$ . Then  $T(x-y) = 0$  (by ① & ②) so  $x-y \in \ker(T)$ . So  $x-y = 0$  i.e.  $x=y$   $\downarrow$   ~~$x \neq y$~~   $\leftarrow$  Contradiction!

So (our supposition was wrong)  $T(x) \neq T(y)$  so  $T$  is 1-1.

A linear transformation  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is onto (or onto  $V$ ) if  $R(T) = V$  (every vector in  $V$  is the image under  $T$  of some vector in  $U$ ).

Theorem If  $U$  &  $V$  are finite-dimensional &  $\dim(U) = \dim(V)$ , then also equivalent to (i) & (ii) from Theorem above is

(iii)  $T$  is onto.

Proof <sup>(ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii)</sup> Suppose  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$ . By Rank-Nullity Theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\dim(V) &= \dim(U) = \dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(R(T)) \\ &= 0 + \dim(R(T))\end{aligned}$$

$R(T)$  subspace of  $V$  of the same dim.  $\Rightarrow R(T) = V$ .  
i.e.  $T$  is onto.

(That proves (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii).)

(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii) If  $R(T) = V$ , then Rank-Nullity Theorem gives

$$\dim(V) = \dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(V) \text{ so}$$

$$\dim(\ker(T)) = 0 \text{ so } \ker(T) = \{0\}.$$

## Inverses of Linear Transformations

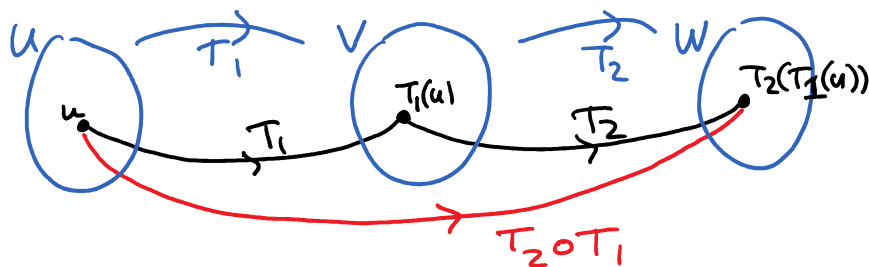
If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is 1-1, then it makes sense to define  $T^{-1}: R(T) \rightarrow U$ , "the inverse of  $T$ ".

If  $U, V$  finite dim. &  $\dim(U) = \dim(V)$ , then  $T$  onto and we can write  $T^{-1}: V \rightarrow U$ .

Exercise:  $T^{-1}$  is a linear trans. for any linear trans.  $T$ .

## Compositions of Linear Transformations

If  $T_1: U \rightarrow V$ ,  $T_2: V \rightarrow W$  are linear trans.  
 there is a linear trans. written  $T_2 \circ T_1: U \rightarrow W$   
 which satisfies  $(T_2 \circ T_1)(u) = T_2(T_1(u))$ .



Examples (A) If  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is  $T_A(x) = Ax$   
 $T_B: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is  $T_B(y) = By$

then  $T_B \circ T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} (T_B \circ T_A)(x) &= T_B(T_A(x)) = B(Ax) \\ &= (BA)x \end{aligned}$$

(G) If  $T_1: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is projection onto  $(x,y)$ -plane  
 $T_1(x,y,z) = (x,y,0)$  and

$T_2: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is projection onto  $(x,z)$ -plane  
 $T_2(x,y,z) = (x,0,z)$ ,

then  $T_2 \circ T_1: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is  $(T_2 \circ T_1)(x,y,z) = T_2(x,y,0) = (x,0,0)$

↑  
 Projection onto  $x$ -axis (a single operator)

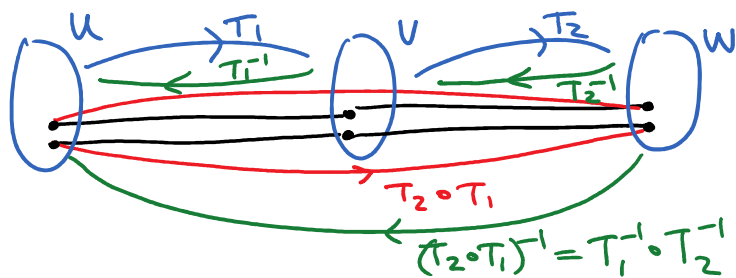
(Exercise: we said that all linear trans. on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  can be given as matrix trans. So what are the corresponding matrices for these 3 projections?)

(H)  $D(f) = f'$ . Then  $(D \circ D)(f) = f''$   
 $\hookrightarrow D(D(f)) = D(f')$ .

Theorem If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is a 1-1 linear trans. then  
 $I = T \circ T^{-1}: R(T) \rightarrow R(T)$  and  $I = T^{-1} \circ T: U \rightarrow U$   
 (i.e. each is equal to the identity on the appropriate domain)

If  $T_1: U \rightarrow V$  and  $T_2: V \rightarrow W$  are 1-1 linear trans. then (a)  $T_2 \circ T_1$  is 1-1

(b)  $(T_2 \circ T_1)^{-1} = T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1}$



Non-Example If  $J(f) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$ , then  $J$  is NOT  
 the inverse of  $D: F \rightarrow F'$  as  $J$  picks out a  
particular antiderivative of  $f$ :  $J(f) = F(x) - F(0)$

for all  $x$   
 BUT:  $D(F(x) + c) = f(x)$  so we do not  
 necessarily have  $J(D(g)) = g$  e.g.  $J(D(x+1)) = x$   
 $\neq x+1$ .

A general idea about correspondence between  
 vector spaces: isomorphism.

If  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is a linear trans. that is both 1-1 and  
 onto we call  $T$  a bijection or an isomorphism  
 (between  $U$  and  $V$ ).

Aside on the bijection v. isomorphism distinction:

More generally in mathematics, "bijection" = 1-1 + onto, while "isomorphism" is a special kind of bijection that preserves inherent structural properties of the domain. Since a linear transformation is already (by def<sup>n</sup>.) known to preserve addition & scalar multiplication, the inherent structure of a vector space, a linear transformation which is a bijection is also an isomorphism.

So if there is an isomorphism between  $U$  and  $V$  we say that  $U$  and  $V$  are isomorphic. This means they look the same (up to relabelling everything) as vector spaces.

For (non-example) if  $U, V$  have  $\dim(U) \neq \dim(V)$ , then  $U$  &  $V$  are NOT isomorphic.

Because "U & V isomorphic" really means

"there is a 1-1 correspondence between basis elements."

In particular, any real  $(n)$ -dim. vector space  $V$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : use coordinates relative to a basis of  $V$ :

Fix a basis  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  for  $V$ .

If  $v$  is a vector in  $V$ , it can be written uniquely as

$v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$  for coordinates (scalars)  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

So there is a 1-1 correspondence between elements  $v$  in  $V$  and  $n$ -tuples of coordinates  $[v]_S = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Claim The map  $T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  given by  $T(v) = [v]_S$  is an isomorphism.

Need to check: (1)  $T$  is a lin. trans.

(2)  $T$  is 1-1

(3)  $T$  is onto.

For (1)  $T(v+w) = T(\overbrace{a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n}^v + \overbrace{b_1 v_1 + \dots + b_n v_n}^w)$  where  $[w]_S = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= T((a_1 + b_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_n + b_n)v_n) \\ &= (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n) \\ &= (a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n) = T(v) + T(w). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \& T(cv) = T(ca_1 v_1 + \dots + ca_n v_n) \\ &= (ca_1, \dots, ca_n) = c(a_1, \dots, a_n) = cT(v). \end{aligned}$$

So  $T$  is a linear trans.

For (2) if  $v \neq w$ , then  $v$  and  $w$  have distinct representations in terms of the basis vectors in  $S$  so distinct sets of coordinates.

So  $T$  is 1-1.

For (3) for any  $n$ -tuple  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  the vector  $u = c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_n v_n$  lies in  $V$ . (Then  $T(u) = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$ .) So  $T$  is onto.

So real vector spaces of dimension  $n$  "look like" (are isomorphic to)  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and complex vector spaces of dimension  $n$  "look like" (are isomorphic to)  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

↖ Exactly as above but coordinate  $n$ -tuples  $[v]_S$  lie in  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .



So any 2 vector spaces  $U$  and  $V$  are isomorphic if  $\dim(U) = \dim(V)$ .  
 (Fix bases  $S_U$  for  $U$  and  $S_V$  for  $V$ . Send  $u$  to the vector  $v$  in  $V$  with the "same coordinates" i.e.  $[v]_{S_V} = [u]_{S_U}$ .)

Examples (1)  $T: P_3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  given by  
 $T(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3) = (a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3)$   
 is an isomorphism.

(2)  $T: M_{3 \times 2}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^6$  given by  
 $T\left(\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{pmatrix}\right) = (a, b, c, d, e, f)$  is an isomorphism.

The connection between  $n$ -dim. vector spaces and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (or  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ) extends beyond just coordinates:

Example Let  $D: P_2 \rightarrow P_1$  be the differentiation transformation  
 $D(ax^2 + bx + c) = 2ax + b$

We have isomorphisms

$$T_2: P_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3; T_2(a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0) = (a_2, a_1, a_0)$$

$$T_1: P_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2; T_1(b_1x + b_0) = (b_1, b_0)$$

(using coordinates relative to the bases  $\{x^2, x, 1\}$  for  $P_2$  and  $\{x, 1\}$  for  $P_1$ ).

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P_2 & \xrightarrow{D} & P_1 \\ T_2 \downarrow & & \downarrow T_1 \\ \mathbb{R}^3 & \dots \text{?} \dots \rightarrow & \mathbb{R}^2 \end{array}$$

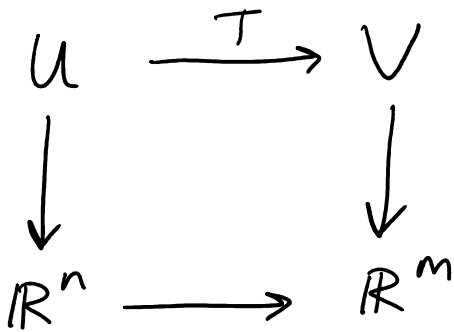
There is a (matrix) transformation  
 $T_A: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$   
 which corresponds to  
 $D: P_2 \rightarrow P_1$ .

$T_A$  should send  $(a, b, c)$  to  $(2a, b)$ .

This is given by  $A \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Big Idea Using isomorphisms with  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (or  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ) we can represent ANY linear transformation  $T: U \rightarrow V$  between finite dimensional vector spaces  $U$  and  $V$  as a matrix transformation of coordinates.

→ & thereby translate problems about computing linear transformations into performing matrix computations.



Let's say  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is linear  
 $\dim(U) = n$   
 $\dim(V) = m$ .

Fix bases  $B_U$  for  $U$  &  $B_V$  for  $V$ .

Use these to get isomorphisms  $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  (coordinates relative to  $B_U$  and  $B_V$  respectively).

We construct an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  so that  $(T_A(x) = Ax)$ .

It needs to satisfy  $A \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{coords of } u \\ \text{rel. to } B_U}}{[u]_{B_U}} = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{coords of } T(u) \\ \text{rel. to } B_V}}{[T(u)]_{B_V}}$