

Introduction to Linear Mappings

Vector mappings

By a **vector mapping** we mean simply a function

$$T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m.$$

The **domain** of T is \mathbb{R}^n and the **co-domain** of T is \mathbb{R}^m . The case $n = m$ is allowed of course. In engineering or physics, the domain is sometimes called the **input space** and the co-domain is called the **output space**. Using this terminology, the points \mathbf{x} in the domain are called the **inputs** and the points $T(\mathbf{x})$ produced by the mapping are called the **outputs**.

Definition 7.1: The vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is in the **range** of T , or in the **image** of T , if there exists some $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}$.

In other words, \mathbf{b} is in the range of T if there is an input \mathbf{x} in the domain of T that outputs $\mathbf{b} = T(\mathbf{x})$. In general, not every point in the co-domain of T is in the range of T . For example, consider the vector mapping $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined as

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \sin(x_2) - \cos(x_1^2 - 1) \\ x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The vector $\mathbf{b} = (3, -1)$ is not in the range of T because the second component of $T(\mathbf{x})$ is positive. On the other hand, $\mathbf{b} = (-1, 2)$ is in the range of T because

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1^2 \sin(0) - \cos(1^2 - 1) \\ 1^2 + 0^2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

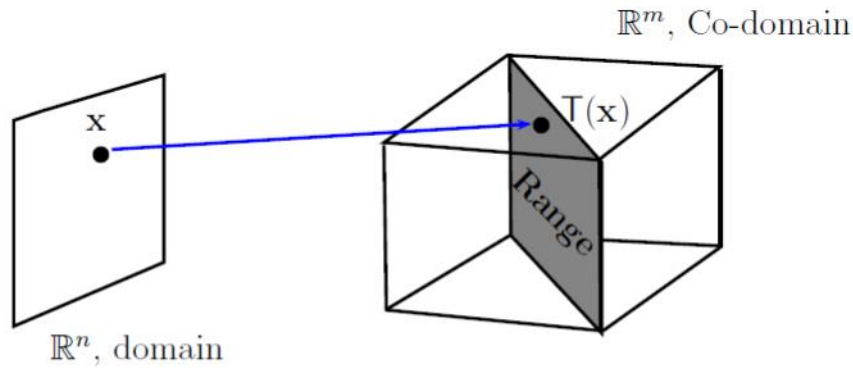


Figure 7.1: The domain, co-domain, and range of a mapping.

Linear mappings

For our purposes, vector mappings $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ can be organized into two categories: (1) linear mappings and (2) nonlinear mappings.

Definition 7.2: The vector mapping $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is said to be **linear** if the following conditions hold:

- For any $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, it holds that $T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$.
- For any $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and any scalar c , it holds that $T(c\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u})$.

If T is not linear then it is said to be **nonlinear**.

As an example, the mapping

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \sin(x_2) - \cos(x_1^2 - 1) \\ x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is **nonlinear**. To see this, previously we computed that

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 7.3. Is the vector mapping $\mathsf{T} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ linear?

$$\mathsf{T} \left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 - x_2 \\ x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_1 - 3x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution. We must verify that the two conditions in Definition 7.2 hold. For the first condition, take arbitrary vectors $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$. We compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) &= \mathsf{T} \left(\begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ u_2 + v_2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2(u_1 + v_1) - (u_2 + v_2) \\ (u_1 + v_1) + (u_2 + v_2) \\ -(u_1 + v_1) - 3(u_2 + v_2) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2u_1 + 2v_1 - u_2 - v_2 \\ u_1 + v_1 + u_2 + v_2 \\ -u_1 - v_1 - 3u_2 - 3v_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2u_1 - u_2 + 2v_1 - v_2 \\ u_1 + u_2 + v_1 + v_2 \\ -u_1 - 3u_2 - v_1 - 3v_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2u_1 - u_2 \\ u_1 + u_2 \\ -u_1 - 3u_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2v_1 - v_2 \\ v_1 + v_2 \\ -v_1 - 3v_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u}) + \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, for arbitrary $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, it holds that

$$\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u}) + \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{v}).$$

To prove the second condition, let $c \in \mathbb{R}$ be an arbitrary scalar. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{T}(c\mathbf{u}) &= \mathsf{T}\left(\begin{bmatrix} cu_1 \\ cu_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2(cu_1) - (cu_2) \\ (cu_1) + (cu_2) \\ -(cu_1) - 3(cu_2) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} c(2u_1 - u_2) \\ c(u_1 + u_2) \\ c(-u_1 - 3u_2) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= c \begin{bmatrix} 2u_1 - u_2 \\ u_1 + u_2 \\ -u_1 - 3u_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= c\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, both conditions of Definition 7.2 hold, and thus T is a linear map.

Example 7.4. Let $\alpha \geq 0$ and define the mapping $\mathsf{T} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by the formula $\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha\mathbf{x}$. If $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ then T is called a **contraction** and if $\alpha > 1$ then T is called a **dilation**. In either case, show that T is a linear mapping.

Solution. Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be arbitrary. Then

$$\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \alpha(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \alpha\mathbf{u} + \alpha\mathbf{v} = \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{u}) + \mathsf{T}(\mathbf{v}).$$

This shows that condition (1) in Definition 7.2 holds. To show that the second condition holds, let c is any number. Then

$$\mathsf{T}(c\mathbf{x}) = \alpha(c\mathbf{x}) = \alpha c\mathbf{x} = c(\alpha\mathbf{x}) = c\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{x}).$$

Therefore, both conditions of Definition 7.2 hold, and thus T is a linear mapping. To see a particular example, consider the case $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ and $n = 3$. Then,

$$\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}x_1 \\ \frac{1}{2}x_2 \\ \frac{1}{2}x_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Matrix mappings

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}.$$

1. $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}$
2. $\mathbf{A}(c\mathbf{u}) = c\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}.$

Theorem 7.5: To a given matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ associate the mapping $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ defined by the formula $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$. Then T is a linear mapping.

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 - x_2 \\ x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_1 - 3x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, T is a matrix mapping corresponding to the matrix

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

that is, $T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$. By Theorem 7.5, T is a linear mapping.

Example 7.9. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a linear transformation that maps \mathbf{u} to $T(\mathbf{u}) = (3, 4)$ and maps \mathbf{v} to $T(\mathbf{v}) = (-2, 5)$. Find $T(2\mathbf{u} + 3\mathbf{v})$.

Solution. Because T is a linear mapping we have that

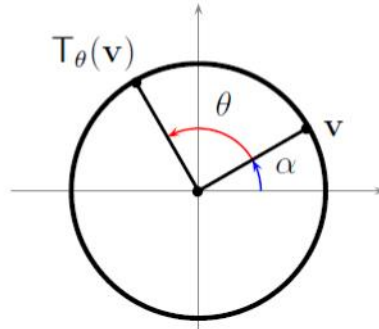
$$T(2\mathbf{u} + 3\mathbf{v}) = T(2\mathbf{u}) + T(3\mathbf{v}) = 2T(\mathbf{u}) + 3T(\mathbf{v}).$$

We know that $T(\mathbf{u}) = (3, 4)$ and $T(\mathbf{v}) = (-2, 5)$. Therefore,

$$T(2\mathbf{u} + 3\mathbf{v}) = 2T(\mathbf{u}) + 3T(\mathbf{v}) = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 23 \end{bmatrix}.$$

□

Example 7.10. (Rotations) Let $T_\theta : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the mapping on the 2D plane that rotates every $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ by an angle θ . Write down a formula for T_θ and show that T_θ is a linear mapping.



Solution. If $\mathbf{v} = (\cos(\alpha), \sin(\alpha))$ then

$$T_\theta(\mathbf{v}) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \theta) \\ \sin(\alpha + \theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 7.11. (Projections) Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the vector mapping

$$T \left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$T \left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

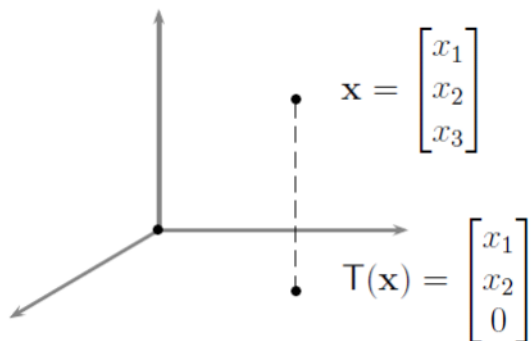


Figure 7.2: Projection onto the (x_1, x_2) plane

