

# 线性变换

## Linear Transformations

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# Introduction

- The connection between linear functions and matrices is at the heart of our subject.
- It is now time to formalize the connections between matrices, vector spaces, and linear functions defined on vector spaces.

## Linear Transformations

Let  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  be vector spaces over a field  $\mathcal{F}$  ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  for us).

- A *linear transformation* from  $\mathcal{U}$  into  $\mathcal{V}$  is defined to be a linear function  $\mathbf{T}$  mapping  $\mathcal{U}$  into  $\mathcal{V}$ . That is,

*(A.1)  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y})$*

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{T}(\alpha\mathbf{x}) = \alpha\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x})$$

or, equivalently,

$$\mathbf{T}(\alpha\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}) \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{U}, \alpha \in \mathcal{F}.$$

*(A.2)  $\mathbf{T}(\alpha\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y})$*

- A *linear operator* on  $\mathcal{U}$  is defined to be a linear transformation from  $\mathcal{U}$  into itself—i.e., a linear function mapping  $\mathcal{U}$  back into  $\mathcal{U}$ .

*(A.3)  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$*

# Some Example

- The function  $\mathbf{0}(x) = \mathbf{0}$  that maps all vectors in a space  $\mathcal{U}$  to the zero vector in another space  $\mathcal{V}$  is a linear transformation from  $\mathcal{U}$  into  $\mathcal{V}$ , and, not surprisingly, it is called the zero transformation.
- The function  $\mathbf{I}(x) = x$  that maps every vector from a space  $\mathcal{U}$  back to itself is a linear operator on  $\mathcal{U}$ .  $\mathbf{I}$  is called the identity operator on  $\mathcal{U}$ .
- For  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ , the function  $\mathbf{T}(x) = \mathbf{Ax}$  is a linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  because matrix multiplication satisfies  $\mathbf{A}(\alpha x + y) = \alpha \mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{Ay}$ .  $\mathbf{T}$  is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if  $A$  is  $n \times n$ .
- If  $\mathcal{W}$  is the vector space of all functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , and if  $\mathcal{V}$  is the space of all differentiable functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the mapping  $\mathbf{D}(f) = df/dx$  is a linear transformation from  $\mathcal{V}$  into  $\mathcal{W}$  because

$$\frac{d(\alpha f + g)}{dx} = \alpha \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{dg}{dx}.$$

- If  $\mathcal{V}$  is the space of all continuous functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the mapping defined by  $\mathbf{T}(f) = \int_0^x f(t)dt$  is a linear operator on  $\mathcal{V}$  because

$$\int_0^x [\alpha f(t) + g(t)]dt = \alpha \int_0^x f(t)dt + \int_0^x g(t)dt.$$

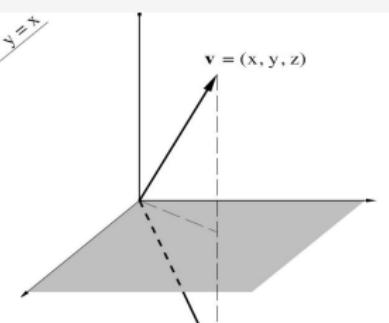
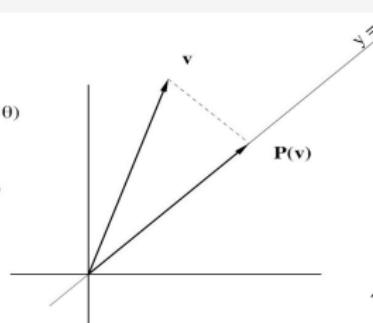
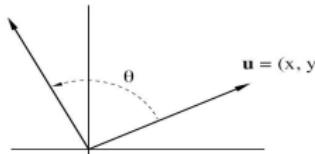
*✓ ✓ ✓*

- The rotator  $\mathbf{Q}$  that rotates vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  counterclockwise through an angle  $\theta$ , is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  because the “action” of  $\mathbf{Q}$  on  $\mathbf{u}$  can be described by matrix multiplication in the sense that the coordinates of the rotated vector  $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{u})$  are given by

$$\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{pmatrix} x\cos\theta - y\sin\theta \\ x\sin\theta + y\cos\theta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$



$$\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{u}) = (x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta, x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta)$$



- The projector  $\mathbf{P}$  that maps  $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  to its orthogonal projection  $(x, y, 0)$  in the  $xy$ -plane, is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^3$  because if  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ , then

$$\mathbf{P}(\alpha\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = (\alpha u_1 + v_1, \alpha u_2 + v_2, 0) = \underline{\alpha\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{u}) + \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{v})}.$$

- The reflector  $\mathbf{R}$  that maps each vector  $v = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  to its reflection  $\mathbf{R}(v) = (x, y, -z)$  about the  $xy$ -plane is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- Can all linear transformations be represented by matrices?** *待解*
- Linear transformations on finite-dimensional spaces will always have matrix representations.
- To see why, the concept of coordinates in higher dimensions must first be understood. *看下* *(看V3)*
- Recall that if  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  is a basis for a vector space  $\mathcal{U}$ , then  $\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n\mathbf{u}_n$ . *V*
- $\alpha_i$ 's are uniquely determined by  $\mathbf{v}$ , which are called the **coordinates of  $\mathbf{v}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$** . Denote  $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)^T$ .

- From now on,  $\mathcal{S} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  will denote the standard basis of unit vectors for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . 附註
- Linear transformations possess coordinates in the same way vectors do because linear transformations from  $\mathcal{U}$  to  $\mathcal{V}$  also form a vector space.



## Space of Linear Transformations

- For each pair of vector spaces  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  over  $\mathcal{F}$ , the set  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$  of all linear transformations from  $\mathcal{U}$  to  $\mathcal{V}$  is a vector space over  $\mathcal{F}$ .
- Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}' = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\}$  be bases for  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$ , respectively, and let  $\mathbf{B}_{ji}$  be the linear transformation from  $\mathcal{U}$  into  $\mathcal{V}$  defined by  $\mathbf{B}_{ji}(\mathbf{u}) = \xi_j \mathbf{v}_i$ , where  $(\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n)^T = [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ . That is, pick off the  $j^{th}$  coordinate of  $\mathbf{u}$ , and attach it to  $\mathbf{v}_i$ .
  - $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{L}} = \{\mathbf{B}_{ji}\}_{j=1 \dots n}^{i=1 \dots m}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ .
  - $\dim \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}) = (\dim \mathcal{U})(\dim \mathcal{V})$ .

$\mathcal{B} / \mathcal{B}' / \mathbf{B}_{ji}(\mathbf{u})$

- Prove  $\mathcal{B}_L$  is a basis by demonstrating that it is a linearly independent spanning set for  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ . To establish linear independence,

suppose  $\sum_{j,i} \eta_{ji} \mathbf{B}_{ji} = \mathbf{0}$  for scalars  $\eta_{ji}$ , and observe that for each  $\mathbf{u}_k \in \mathcal{B}$ ,

$$\mathbf{B}_{ji}(\mathbf{u}_k) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{v}_i & \text{if } j = k \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases} \implies \mathbf{0} = \left( \sum_{j,i} \eta_{ji} \mathbf{B}_{ji} \right)(\mathbf{u}_k) = \sum_{j,i} \eta_{ji} \mathbf{B}_{ji}(\mathbf{u}_k) = \sum_{i=1}^m \eta_{ki} \mathbf{v}_i.$$

For each  $k$ , the independence of  $\mathcal{B}'$  implies that  $\eta_{ki} = 0$  for each  $i$ , and thus  $\mathcal{B}_L$  is linearly independent. To see that  $\mathcal{B}_L$  spans  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ , let  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ , and determine the action of  $\mathbf{T}$  on any  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{U}$  by using  $\mathbf{u} = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j \mathbf{u}_j$  and  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{v}_i$  to write

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{T}\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j \mathbf{u}_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{v}_i$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{ij} \xi_j \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{B}_{ji}(\mathbf{u}).$$

This holds for all  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{U}$ , so  $\mathbf{T} = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{B}_{ji}$ , and thus  $\mathcal{B}_L$  spans  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ .

## Coordinate Matrix Representations

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}' = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\}$  be bases for  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$ , respectively. The **coordinate matrix** of  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$  with respect to the pair  $(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}')$  is defined to be the  $m \times n$  matrix

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = \left( \underbrace{[\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}'}}_{\text{col } j} \mid [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid \cdots \mid [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}'} \right). \quad \checkmark$$

In other words, if  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_j) = \alpha_{1j}\mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_{2j}\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{mj}\mathbf{v}_m$ , then

$$[\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{u}_j)]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1j} \\ \alpha_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{mj} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \underbrace{[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'}}_{\text{matrix}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} & \cdots & \alpha_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \alpha_{m2} & \cdots & \alpha_{mn} \end{pmatrix}. \quad \checkmark$$

When  $\mathbf{T}$  is a linear operator on  $\mathcal{U}$ , and when there is only one basis involved,  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is used in place of  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'}$  to denote the (necessarily square) coordinate matrix of  $\mathbf{T}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

- Example:** If  $P$  is the projector, determine the coordinate matrix  $[P]_{\mathfrak{B}}$  with respect to the basis  $\mathfrak{B}$ .

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

- Solution:** According to the above results, the  $j^{th}$  column in  $[P]_{\mathfrak{B}}$  is  $[P(\mathbf{u}_j)]_{\mathfrak{B}}$ . Therefore,

$$P(\mathbf{u}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1\mathbf{u}_1 + 1\mathbf{u}_2 - 1\mathbf{u}_3 \implies [P(\mathbf{u}_1)]_{\mathfrak{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark.$$

$$P(\mathbf{u}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0\mathbf{u}_1 + 3\mathbf{u}_2 - 2\mathbf{u}_3 \implies [P(\mathbf{u}_2)]_{\mathfrak{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark.$$

$$P(\mathbf{u}_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0\mathbf{u}_1 + 3\mathbf{u}_2 - 2\mathbf{u}_3 \implies [P(\mathbf{u}_3)]_{\mathfrak{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \checkmark.$$

so that  $[P]_{\mathfrak{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \\ -1 & -2 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$  ✓

- At the heart of linear algebra is the realization that the theory of finite dimensional linear transformations is essentially the same as the theory of matrices.
- This is due primarily to the fundamental fact that the action of a linear transformation  $T$  on a vector  $u$  is precisely matrix multiplication between the coordinates of  $T$  and the coordinates of  $u$ .

## Action as Matrix Multiplication $\rightarrow$ 3.6.1

Let  $T \in \mathcal{L}(U, V)$ , and let  $B$  and  $B'$  be bases for  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively.

For each  $u \in U$ , the action of  $T$  on  $u$  is given by matrix multiplication between their coordinates in the sense that

$$[T(u)]_{B'} = [T]_{BB'} [u]_B.$$

$[u]_B$

$[v]_{B'}$

$$[T(u)]_{B'} = [[ ]_{BB'} [v]_B,$$

- **Example:** Show how the action of the operator  $\mathbf{D}(p(t)) = dp/dt$  on the space  $\mathcal{P}_3$  of polynomials of degree three or less is given by matrix multiplication.

**Solution:** The coordinate matrix of  $\mathbf{D}$  with respect to the basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$  is

$$[\mathbf{D}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If  $\mathbf{p} = p(t) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 t + \alpha_2 t^2 + \alpha_3 t^3$ , then  $\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{p}) = \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 t + 3\alpha_3 t^2$  so that

$$[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ 2\alpha_2 \\ 3\alpha_3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The action of  $\mathbf{D}$  is accomplished by means of matrix multiplication because

$$[\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{p})]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ 2\alpha_2 \\ 3\alpha_3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{pmatrix} = [\mathbf{D}]_{\mathcal{B}} [\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}.$$

- For  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$  and  $\mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W})$ , the composition of  $\mathbf{L}$  with  $\mathbf{T}$  is defined to be the function  $\mathbf{C} : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$  such that  $\mathbf{C}(x) = \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{T}(x))$ .
- This composition denoted by  $\mathbf{C}(x) = \mathbf{LT}$ , is also a linear transformation because

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{C}(\alpha\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) &= \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{T}(\alpha\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})) = \mathbf{L}(\alpha\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y})) \\ &= \underline{\alpha\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x})) + \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}))} = \underline{\alpha\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{y})}.\end{aligned}$$

- If  $\mathfrak{B}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}'$  and  $\mathfrak{B}''$  are bases for  $\mathcal{U}$ ,  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$ , respectively, then  $\mathbf{C}$  must have a coordinate matrix representation with respect to  $(\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{B}'')$ .
- So it's only natural to ask how  $[\mathbf{C}]_{\mathfrak{B}\mathfrak{B}''}$  is related to  $[\mathbf{L}]_{\mathfrak{B}'\mathfrak{B}''}$  and  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathfrak{B}\mathfrak{B}'}$ :

$$[\mathbf{C}]_{\mathfrak{B}\mathfrak{B}''} = [\mathbf{L}]_{\mathfrak{B}'\mathfrak{B}''} [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathfrak{B}\mathfrak{B}'}.$$

复合线性变换

## Connections with Matrix Algebra

- If  $\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ , and if  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$  are bases for  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$ , then
  - ▷  $[\alpha\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = \alpha[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'}$  for scalars  $\alpha$ ,
  - ▷  $[\mathbf{T} + \mathbf{L}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} + [\mathbf{L}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'}.$
  
- If  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$  and  $\mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W})$ , and if  $\mathcal{B}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}'$ , and  $\mathcal{B}''$  are bases for  $\mathcal{U}$ ,  $\mathcal{V}$ , and  $\mathcal{W}$ , respectively, then  $\mathbf{LT} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W})$ , and
  - ▷  $[\mathbf{LT}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}''} = [\mathbf{L}]_{\mathcal{B}'\mathcal{B}''} [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'}.$
  
- If  $\mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U})$  is invertible in the sense that  $\mathbf{TT}^{-1} = \mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}$  for some  $\mathbf{T}^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U})$ , then for every basis  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{U}$ ,
  - ▷  $[\mathbf{T}^{-1}]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}.$

- From the composition  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{LT}$  of the two linear transformations  $\mathbf{T} : \mathfrak{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^2$  and  $\mathbf{L} : \mathfrak{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^2$  defined by

$$\mathbf{T}(x, y, z) = (x + y, y - z) \text{ and } \mathbf{L}(u, v) = (2u - v, u),$$

using the standard bases for  $\mathfrak{R}^2$  and  $\mathfrak{R}^3$  to verify the above results.

# Change of Basis and Similarity

基础向量空间  
相似性

基础向量

- By their nature, coordinate matrix representations are basis dependent.
- It's desirable to study linear transformations without reference to particular bases because some bases may force a coordinate matrix representation to exhibit special properties that are not present in the coordinate matrix relative to other bases.
- It's necessary to somehow identify properties of coordinate matrices that are invariant among all bases.
- These are properties intrinsic to the transformation itself.
- The following discussion is limited to a single finite-dimensional space  $\mathcal{V}$  and to linear operators on  $\mathcal{V}$ .
- Begin by examining how the coordinates of  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}$  change as the basis for  $\mathcal{V}$  changes.
- Consider two different bases

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{B}' = \{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n\}.$$

- Throughout this section T will denote the linear operator such that

$$\underline{T(\mathbf{y}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$T(\mathbf{y}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i$$

- T** is called the **change of basis operator**.

变基算子

## Changing Vector Coordinates

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}' = \{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n\}$  be bases for  $\mathcal{V}$ , and let  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{P}$  be the associated change of basis operator and change of basis matrix, respectively—i.e.,  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i$ , for each  $i$ , and

$$\mathbf{P} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} [\mathbf{x}_1]_{\mathcal{B}'} & [\mathbf{x}_2]_{\mathcal{B}'} & \cdots & [\mathbf{x}_n]_{\mathcal{B}'} \end{array} \right).$$

- $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \mathbf{P}[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for all  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}$ .
- $\mathbf{P}$  is nonsingular.

- To see this, observe that

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mathbf{y}_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mathbf{x}_j,$$

*类似地证明*

which means  $[\mathbf{x}_i]_{\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_i)]_{\mathcal{B}}$ , so,

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left( [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \ [ \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}} \ \cdots \ [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}} \right) = \left( [\mathbf{x}_1]_{\mathcal{B}'} \ [\mathbf{x}_2]_{\mathcal{B}'} \ \cdots \ [\mathbf{x}_n]_{\mathcal{B}'} \right) = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}'}$$

The fact that  $[\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  follows because  $[\mathbf{I}(\mathbf{x}_i)]_{\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{x}_i]_{\mathcal{B}'}$ . The matrix

$$\mathbf{P} = [\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}'}$$

- $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}'} = [\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{P} [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ .
- $\mathbf{P}$  is nonsingular because  $\mathbf{T}$  is invertible ( $\mathbf{T}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{y}_i$ ).
- $[\mathbf{T}^{-1}]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}$ .

- The change of basis operator  $\mathbf{T}$  acts as

$$\mathbf{T}(\text{new basis}) = \text{old basis.}$$



*is true*

- While the change of basis matrix  $\mathbf{P}$  acts as

$$\text{new coordinates} = \mathbf{P}(\text{old coordinates}).$$



- Example:** For the space  $\mathcal{P}_2$  of polynomials of degree 2 or less, determine the change of basis matrix  $\mathbf{P}$  from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{B}'$ , where

$$\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{B}' = \{1, 1+t, 1+t+t^2\},$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1+t+t^2 \end{pmatrix}$

and then find the coordinates of  $q(t) = 3 + 2t + 4t^2$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}'$

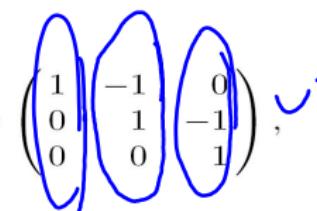
- Solution:** The change of basis matrix from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{B}'$  is

$$\mathbf{P} = ([x_1]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid [x_2]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid [x_3]_{\mathcal{B}'}).$$

In this case,  $\mathbf{x}_1 = 1$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_2 = t$ , and  $\mathbf{x}_3 = t^2$ , and  $\mathbf{y}_1 = 1$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_2 = 1 + t$ , and  $\mathbf{y}_3 = 1 + t + t^2$ , so the coordinates  $[\mathbf{x}_i]_{\mathcal{B}'}$  are computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 1(1) + 0(1+t) + 0(1+t+t^2) = 1\mathbf{y}_1 + 0\mathbf{y}_2 + 0\mathbf{y}_3, \\ t &= -1(1) + 1(1+t) + 0(1+t+t^2) = -1\mathbf{y}_1 + 1\mathbf{y}_2 + 0\mathbf{y}_3, \\ t^2 &= 0(1) - 1(1+t) + 1(1+t+t^2) = 0\mathbf{y}_1 - 1\mathbf{y}_2 + 1\mathbf{y}_3. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbf{P} = \left( [\mathbf{x}_1]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid [\mathbf{x}_2]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid [\mathbf{x}_3]_{\mathcal{B}'} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$


and the coordinates of  $\mathbf{q} = q(t) = 3 + 2t + 4t^2$  with respect to  $\mathcal{B}'$  are

$$[\mathbf{q}]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \mathbf{P}[\mathbf{q}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To independently check that these coordinates are correct, simply verify that

$$q(t) = 1(1) - 2(1+t) + 4(1+t+t^2).$$

- It's now rather easy to describe how the coordinate matrix of a linear operator changes as the underlying basis changes.

## Changing Matrix Coordinates

Let  $\underline{A}$  be a linear operator on  $\mathcal{V}$ , and let  $\underline{\mathcal{B}}$  and  $\underline{\mathcal{B}'}$  be two bases for  $\mathcal{V}$ . The coordinate matrices  $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  and  $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}'}$  are related as follows.

$$\underline{[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}} = \underline{\mathbf{P}^{-1}} \underline{[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}'}} \underline{\mathbf{P}}, \quad \text{where } \underline{\mathbf{P}} = [\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}\mathcal{B}'} \checkmark.$$

is the change of basis matrix from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{B}'$ . Equivalently,

$$\underline{[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}'}} = \underline{\mathbf{Q}^{-1}} \underline{[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}}} \underline{\mathbf{Q}}, \quad \text{where } \underline{\mathbf{Q}} = [\mathbf{I}]_{\mathcal{B}'\mathcal{B}} = \underline{\mathbf{P}^{-1}} \checkmark.$$

is the change of basis matrix from  $\mathcal{B}'$  to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Problem:** Consider the linear operator  $\mathbf{A}(x, y) = (y, -2x + 3y)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  along with the two bases

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{S}' = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

First compute the coordinate matrix  $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}}$  as well as the change of basis matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  from  $\mathcal{S}'$  to  $\mathcal{S}$ , and then use these two matrices to determine  $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}'}$ .

**Solution:** The matrix of  $\mathbf{A}$  relative to  $\mathcal{S}$  is obtained by computing

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{e}_1) &= \mathbf{A}(1, 0) = (0, -2) = (0)\mathbf{e}_1 + (-2)\mathbf{e}_2, \\ \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{e}_2) &= \mathbf{A}(0, 1) = (1, 3) = (1)\mathbf{e}_1 + (3)\mathbf{e}_2,\end{aligned}$$

so that  $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}} = ([\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{e}_1)]_{\mathcal{S}} \mid [\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{e}_2)]_{\mathcal{S}}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ . ✓

$C^{-1}[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}}$

The change of basis matrix from  $\mathcal{S}'$  to  $\mathcal{S}$  is

$$\mathbf{Q} = ([\mathbf{y}_1]_{\mathcal{S}} \mid [\mathbf{y}_2]_{\mathcal{S}}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \checkmark$$

and the matrix of  $\mathbf{A}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{S}'$  is

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}'} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{S}}\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \checkmark$$

# Similarity

- Matrices  $\mathbf{B}_{n \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{C}_{n \times n}$  are said to be *similar matrices* whenever there exists a nonsingular matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  such that  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{Q}$ . We write  $\mathbf{B} \simeq \mathbf{C}$  to denote that  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{C}$  are similar.
- The linear operator  $f : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  defined by  $f(\mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{Q}$  is called a *similarity transformation*.

- Any two coordinate matrices of a given linear operator must be similar.
- Must any two similar matrices be coordinate matrices of the same linear operator?
- Similar matrices represent the same linear operator. *相似矩阵表示同一个线性算子*
- So the coordinate-independent properties are exactly the ones that are **similarity invariant** (invariant under similarity transformations). *相似不变量*
- Determining and studying similarity invariants is an important part of linear algebra and matrix theory.

# Invariant Subspaces $\rightarrow$ 不变子空间

For a linear operator  $\mathbf{T}$  on a vector space  $\mathcal{V}$ , and for  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ ,

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{X}) = \{\mathbf{T}(x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}\}$$

is the set of all possible images of vectors from  $\mathcal{X}$  under the transformation  $\mathbf{T}$ . Notice that  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{V}) = R(\mathbf{T})$ . When  $\mathcal{X}$  is a subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{X})$  is also a subspace of  $\mathcal{V}$ , but  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{X})$  is usually not related to  $\mathcal{X}$ . However, in some special cases it can happen that  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{X}) \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ , and such subspaces are the focus of this section.

## Invariant Subspaces

- For a linear operator  $\mathbf{T}$  on  $\mathcal{V}$ , a subspace  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$  is said to be an **invariant subspace** under  $\mathbf{T}$  whenever  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{X}) \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ .
- In such a situation,  $\mathbf{T}$  can be considered as a linear operator on  $\mathcal{X}$  by forgetting about everything else in  $\mathcal{V}$  and restricting  $\mathbf{T}$  to act only on vectors from  $\mathcal{X}$ . Hereafter, this **restricted operator** will be denoted by  $\mathbf{T}_{/\mathcal{X}}$ .

**Problem:** For

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & -2 & -5 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

show that the subspace  $\mathcal{X}$  spanned by  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2\}$  is an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then describe the restriction  $\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}$  and determine the coordinate matrix of  $\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Solution:** Observe that  $\mathbf{Ax}_1 = 2\mathbf{x}_1 \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Ax}_2 = \mathbf{x}_1 + 2\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{X}$ , so the image of any  $\mathbf{x} = \alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{X}$  is back in  $\mathcal{X}$  because

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}(\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta\mathbf{x}_2) = \alpha\mathbf{Ax}_1 + \beta\mathbf{Ax}_2 = 2\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta(\mathbf{x}_1 + 2\mathbf{x}_2) = (2\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{x}_1 + 2\beta\mathbf{x}_2.$$

This equation completely describes the action of  $\mathbf{A}$  restricted to  $\mathcal{X}$ , so

$$\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = (2\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{x}_1 + 2\beta\mathbf{x}_2 \quad \text{for each } \mathbf{x} = \alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + \beta\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Since  $\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x}_1) = 2\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{x}_1 + 2\mathbf{x}_2$ , we have

$$[\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} [\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} & [\mathbf{A}_{/\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}} \end{array} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The invariant subspaces for a linear operator  $\mathbf{T}$  are important because they produce simplified coordinate matrix representations of  $\mathbf{T}$ . To understand how this occurs, suppose  $\mathcal{X}$  is an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{T}$ , and let

$$\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r\}$$

be a basis for  $\mathcal{X}$  that is part of a basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r, \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_q\} .$$

for the entire space  $\mathcal{V}$ . To compute  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ , recall from the definition of coordinate matrices that

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left( [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \mid \cdots \mid [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_r)]_{\mathcal{B}} \mid [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \mid \cdots \mid [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_q)]_{\mathcal{B}} \right).$$

Because each  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_j)$  is contained in  $\mathcal{X}$ , only the first  $r$  vectors from  $\mathcal{B}$  are needed to represent each  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_j)$ , so, for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, r$ ,

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{x}_i \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_j)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{rj} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The space

$$\mathcal{Y} = \text{span} \{ \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_q \}$$

may not be an invariant subspace for  $\mathbf{T}$ , so all the basis vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  may be needed to represent the  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_j)$ 's. Consequently, for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, q$ ,

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^r \beta_{ij} \mathbf{x}_i + \sum_{i=1}^q \gamma_{ij} \mathbf{y}_i \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{y}_j)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{rj} \\ \gamma_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{qj} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left( \begin{array}{cccccc} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1r} & \beta_{11} & \cdots & \beta_{1q} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{r1} & \cdots & \alpha_{rr} & \beta_{r1} & \cdots & \beta_{rq} \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \gamma_{11} & \cdots & \gamma_{1q} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \gamma_{q1} & \cdots & \gamma_{qq} \end{array} \right).$$

- The equation  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{x}_i$  mean that

$$[\mathbf{T}_{/\mathcal{X}}]_{\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} & \cdots & \alpha_{1r} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} & \cdots & \alpha_{2r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{r1} & \alpha_{r2} & \cdots & \alpha_{rr} \end{pmatrix}$$

- So, we have

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} [\mathbf{T}_{/\mathcal{X}}]_{\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}}} & \mathbf{B}_{r \times q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{q \times q} \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{. . .}}$$

- This says that the matrix representation for  $\mathbf{T}$  can be made to be block triangular whenever a basis for an invariant subspace is available.
- The more invariant subspaces we can find, the more tools we have to construct simplified matrix representations.

This notion easily generalizes in the sense that if  $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}} \cup \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Z}}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{V}$ , where  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Y}}, \dots, \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Z}}$  are bases for invariant subspaces under  $\mathbf{T}$  that have dimensions  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$ , respectively, then  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  has the block-diagonal form

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r_1 \times r_1} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B}_{r_2 \times r_2} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{r_k \times r_k} \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{T}/_{\mathcal{X}}]_{\mathcal{B}_x}, \quad \mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{T}/_{\mathcal{Y}}]_{\mathcal{B}_y}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{T}/_{\mathcal{Z}}]_{\mathcal{B}_z}.$$

The situations discussed above are also reversible in the sense that if the matrix representation of  $\mathbf{T}$  has a block-triangular form

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r \times r} & \mathbf{B}_{r \times q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{q \times q} \end{pmatrix}$$

relative to some basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r, \mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_q\},$$

then the  $r$ -dimensional subspace  $\mathcal{U} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$  spanned by the first  $r$  vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  must be an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{T}$ . Furthermore, if the matrix representation of  $\mathbf{T}$  has a block-diagonal form

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r \times r} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{q \times q} \end{pmatrix}$$

relative to  $\mathcal{B}$ , then both

$$\mathcal{U} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{W} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_q\}$$

must be invariant subspaces for  $\mathbf{T}$ .

The general statement concerning invariant subspaces and coordinate matrix representations is given below.

## Invariant Subspaces and Matrix Representations

Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be a linear operator on an  $n$ -dimensional space  $\mathcal{V}$ , and let  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \dots, \mathcal{Z}$  be subspaces of  $\mathcal{V}$  with respective dimensions  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$  and bases  $\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}}, \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Y}}, \dots, \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Z}}$ . Furthermore, suppose that  $\sum_i r_i = n$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}} \cup \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Y}} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{Z}}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{V}$ .

- The subspace  $\mathcal{X}$  is an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{T}$  if and only if  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  has the block-triangular form

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r_1 \times r_1} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{in which case } \mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{T}/_{\mathcal{X}}]_{\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{X}}}.$$

- The subspaces  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \dots, \mathcal{Z}$  are all invariant under  $\mathbf{T}$  if and only if  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  has the block-diagonal form

$$[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r_1 \times r_1} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B}_{r_2 \times r_2} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{r_k \times r_k} \end{pmatrix},$$

in which case

$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{T}/\mathcal{X}]_{\mathcal{B}_x}, \quad \mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{T}/\mathcal{Y}]_{\mathcal{B}_y}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{T}/\mathcal{Z}]_{\mathcal{B}_z}.$$

An important corollary concerns the special case in which the linear operator  $\mathbf{T}$  is in fact an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{Tv}$  is a matrix–vector multiplication.

## Triangular and Diagonal Block Forms

When  $\mathbf{T}$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, the following two statements are true.

- $\mathbf{Q}$  is a nonsingular matrix such that

$$\mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r \times r} & \mathbf{B}_{r \times q} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_{q \times q} \end{pmatrix}$$

if and only if the first  $r$  columns in  $\mathbf{Q}$  span an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{T}$ .

- $\mathbf{Q}$  is a nonsingular matrix such that

$$\mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{r_1 \times r_1} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{B}_{r_2 \times r_2} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{C}_{r_k \times r_k} \end{pmatrix}$$


if and only if  $\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{Q}_1 \mid \mathbf{Q}_2 \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{Q}_k)$  in which  $\mathbf{Q}_i$  is  $n \times r_i$ , and the columns of each  $\mathbf{Q}_i$  span an invariant subspace under  $\mathbf{T}$ .

**Problem:** Find all subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that are invariant under.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

**Solution:** The trivial subspace  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$  is the only zero-dimensional invariant subspace, and the entire space  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is the only two-dimensional invariant subspace. The real problem is to find all one-dimensional invariant subspaces. If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a one-dimensional subspace spanned by  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}(\mathcal{M}) \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ , then

$$\mathbf{Ax} \in \mathcal{M} \implies \text{there is a scalar } \lambda \text{ such that } \mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \implies \underline{(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}}$$

In other words,  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq N(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$ . Since  $\dim \mathcal{M} = 1$ , it must be the case that  $N(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$ , and consequently  $\lambda$  must be a scalar such that  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$  is a singular matrix. Row operations produce

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -2 & 3 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 3 - \lambda \\ -\lambda & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 3 - \lambda \\ 0 & 1 + (\lambda^2 - 3\lambda)/2 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

and it is clear that  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$  is singular if and only if  $1 + (\lambda^2 - 3\lambda)/2 = 0$ —i.e., if and only if  $\lambda$  is a root of

$$\lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2 = 0.$$

Thus  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = 2$ , and straightforward computation yields the two one-dimensional invariant subspaces

$$\mathcal{M}_1 = N(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{I}) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{M}_2 = N(\mathbf{A} - 2\mathbf{I}) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

In passing, notice that  $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In general, scalars  $\lambda$  for which  $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$  is singular are called the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ , and the nonzero vectors in  $N(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$  are known as the associated eigenvectors for  $\mathbf{A}$ . As this example indicates, eigenvalues and eigenvectors are of fundamental importance in identifying invariant subspaces and reducing matrices by means of similarity transformations.

# Exercise

1. Determine which of the following functions are linear operators on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 
  - $\mathbf{T}(x, y) = (x, 1 + y)$ ,
  - $\mathbf{T}(x, y) = (0, xy)$ ,
  - $\mathbf{T}(x, y) = (x^2, y^2)$ .
2. Explain why  $\mathbf{T}(0) = 0$  for every linear transformation  $\mathbf{T}$ .
3. Explain why rank is a similarity invariant.
4.  $\mathbf{A}(x, y, z) = (x + 2y - z, -y, x + 7z)$  is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
  - Determine  $[\mathbf{A}]_S$ , where  $S$  is the standard basis.
  - Determine  $[\mathbf{A}]_{S'}$  as well as the nonsingular matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  such that

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{S'} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1} [\mathbf{A}]_S \mathbf{Q} \quad \text{for} \quad S' = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

5. Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be an arbitrary linear operator on a vector space  $\mathcal{V}$ .
  - Is the trivial subspace  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$  invariant under  $\mathbf{T}$ ?
  - Is the entire space  $\mathcal{V}$  invariant under  $\mathbf{T}$ ?

6. Describe all of the subspaces that are invariant under the identity operator  $\mathbf{I}$  on a space  $\mathcal{V}$ .

7. Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be the linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^4$  defined by

$$\mathbf{T}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4, x_2 + x_4, 2x_3 - x_4, x_3 + x_4),$$

and let  $\mathcal{X} = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}$  be the subspace that is spanned by the first two unit vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

- (a) Explain why  $\mathcal{X}$  is invariant under  $\mathbf{T}$ .
- (b) Determine  $[\mathbf{T}/\mathcal{X}]_{\{e_1, e_2\}}$ .
- (c) Describe the structure of  $[\mathbf{T}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ , where  $\mathcal{B}$  is any basis obtained from an extension of  $\{e_1, e_2\}$ .