

# Chap. 6

# Linear Transformations

## Linear Algebra

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### 6.1 Introduction to Linear Transformation

- Learn about functions that **map** a vector space  $V$  into a vector space  $W$  ---  $T: V \rightarrow W$

$V$ : domain of  $T$



$T: V \rightarrow W$

range

w

image of v

$W$ : codomain of  $T$



- If  $\mathbf{v}$  is in  $V$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  is in  $W$  s.t.  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{w}$ , then  $\mathbf{w}$  is called the **image** of  $\mathbf{v}$  under  $T$ .
- The set of *all images* of vectors in  $V$  is called the **range** of  $T$ .
- The set of *all*  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$  s.t.  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{w}$  is called the **preimage** of  $\mathbf{w}$ .



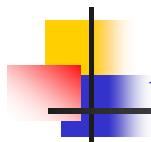
## Ex. 1: A function from $R^2$ into $R^2$

For any vector  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  in  $R^2$ , and let  $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^2$  be defined by

$$T(v_1, v_2) = (v_1 - v_2, v_1 + 2v_2)$$

- Find the image of  $\mathbf{v} = (-1, 2)$   
 $T(-1, 2) = (-1 - 2, -1 + 2 \cdot 2) = (-3, 3)$
- Find the preimage of  $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 11)$

$$\begin{aligned} T(v_1, v_2) &= (v_1 - v_2, v_1 + 2v_2) = (-1, 11) \\ \Rightarrow v_1 - v_2 &= -1; v_1 + 2v_2 = 11 \\ \Rightarrow v_1 &= 3; v_2 = 4 \end{aligned}$$



# Linear Transformation

- Let  $V$  and  $W$  be vector spaces. The function  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is called a **linear transformation** of  $V$  into  $W$  if the following two properties are true for all  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$  and for any scalar  $c$ .
  1.  $T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$
  2.  $T(c\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u})$
- A linear transformation is said to be *operation preserving* (the operations of **addition** and **scalar multiplication**).



## Ex. 2: Verifying a linear transformation from $R^2$ into $R^2$

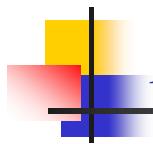
Show that the function  $T(v_1, v_2) = (v_1 - v_2, v_1 + 2v_2)$  is a linear transformation from  $R^2$  into  $R^2$ .

Let  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  and  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2)$

- Vector addition:  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} = (v_1 + u_1, v_2 + u_2)$ 

$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}) &= T(v_1 + u_1, v_2 + u_2) \\ &= ((v_1 + u_1) - (v_2 + u_2), (v_1 + u_1) + 2(v_2 + u_2)) \\ &= (v_1 - v_2, v_1 + 2v_2) + (u_1 - u_2, u_1 + 2u_2) \\ &= T(\mathbf{v}) + T(\mathbf{u}) \end{aligned}$$
  - Scalar multiplication:  $c\mathbf{v} = c(v_1, v_2) = (cv_1, cv_2)$ 

$$\begin{aligned} T(c\mathbf{v}) &= (cv_1 - cv_2, cv_1 + 2cv_2) = c(v_1 - v_2, v_1 + 2v_2) = cT(\mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$
- Therefore  $T$  is a linear transformation.



## Ex. 3: Not linear transformation

- $f(x) = \sin(x)$

In general,  $\sin(x_1 + x_2) \neq \sin(x_1) + \sin(x_2)$

- $f(x) = x^2$

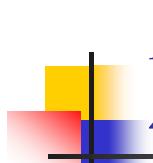
In general,  $(x_1 + x_2)^2 \neq x_1^2 + x_2^2$

- $f(x) = x + 1$

$$f(x_1 + x_2) = x_1 + x_2 + 1$$

$$f(x_1) + f(x_2) = (x_1 + 1) + (x_2 + 1) = x_1 + x_2 + 2$$

Thus,  $f(x_1 + x_2) \neq f(x_1) + f(x_2)$



## Linear Operation & Zero / Identity Transformation

- A linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow V$  from a vector space into *itself* is called a **linear operator**.
- **Zero transformation** ( $T: V \rightarrow W$ ):  
 $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$ , for all  $\mathbf{v}$
- **Identity transformation** ( $T: V \rightarrow V$ ):  
 $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}$ , for all  $\mathbf{v}$



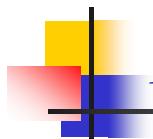
## Thm 6.1: Linear transformations

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Let  $T$  be a linear transformation from  $V$  into  $W$ , where  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are in  $V$ . Then the following properties are true.

1.  $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$
2.  $T(-\mathbf{v}) = -T(\mathbf{v})$
3.  $T(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) - T(\mathbf{v})$
4. If  $\mathbf{v} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n$ , then  

$$T(\mathbf{v}) = c_1T(\mathbf{v}_1) + c_2T(\mathbf{v}_2) + \dots + c_nT(\mathbf{v}_n)$$



## Proof of Theorem 6.1

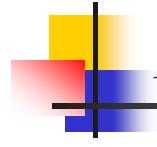
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1. Note that  $0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ . Then it follows that  

$$T(\mathbf{0}) = T(0\mathbf{v}) = 0T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$
2. Follow from  $-\mathbf{v} = (-1)\mathbf{v}$ , which implies that  

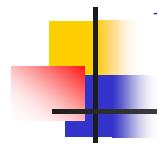
$$T(-\mathbf{v}) = T[(-1)\mathbf{v}] = (-1)T(\mathbf{v}) = -T(\mathbf{v})$$
3. Follow from  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{v})$ , which implies that  

$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) &= T[\mathbf{u} + (-1)\mathbf{v}] = T(\mathbf{u}) + (-1)T(\mathbf{v}) \\ &= T(\mathbf{u}) - T(\mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$
4. Left to you



## Remark of Theorem 6.1

- A linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is determined completely by its ***action*** on a basis of  $V$ .
- If  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is a **basis** for the vector space  $V$  and if  $T(\mathbf{v}_1), T(\mathbf{v}_2), \dots, T(\mathbf{v}_n)$  are given, then  $T(\mathbf{v})$  is determined for *any*  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$ .



## Ex 4: Linear transformations and bases

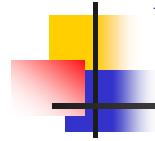
Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a linear transformation s.t.

$$T(1, 0, 0) = (2, -1, 4); \quad T(0, 1, 0) = (1, 5, -2);$$

$$T(0, 0, 1) = (0, 3, 1). \text{ Find } T(2, 3, -2).$$

- $(2, 3, -2) = 2(1, 0, 0) + 3(0, 1, 0) - 2(0, 0, 1)$

$$\begin{aligned} T(2, 3, -2) &= 2T(1, 0, 0) + 3T(0, 1, 0) - 2T(0, 0, 1) \\ &= 2(2, -1, 4) + 3(1, 5, -2) - 2(0, 3, 1) \\ &= (7, 7, 0) \end{aligned}$$



## Ex 5: Linear transformation defined by a matrix

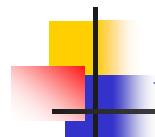
The function  $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^3$  is defined as follows

$$T(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find  $T(\mathbf{v})$ , where  $\mathbf{v} = (2, -1)$

$$T(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,  $T(2, -1) = (6, 3, 0)$



## Example 5 (cont.)

- Show that  $T$  is a linear transformation from  $R^2$  to  $R^3$ .

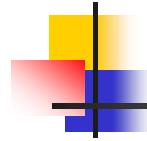
1. For any  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $R^2$ , we have

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

2. For any  $\mathbf{u}$  in  $R^2$  and any scalar  $c$ , we have

$$T(c\mathbf{u}) = A(c\mathbf{u}) = c(A\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u})$$

Therefore,  $T$  is a linear transformation from  $R^2$  to  $R^3$ .



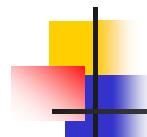
## Thm 6.2: Linear transformation given by a matrix

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The function  $T$  defined by

$$T(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v}$$

is a **linear transformation** from  $R^n$  into  $R^m$ .

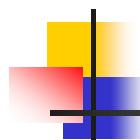
In order to **conform** to matrix multiplication with an  $m \times n$  matrix, the vectors in  $R^n$  are represented by  $m \times 1$  matrices and the vectors in  $R^m$  are represented by  $n \times 1$  matrices.



## Remark of Theorem 6.2

- The  $m \times n$  matrix **zero matrix** corresponds to the **zero transformation** from  $R^n$  into  $R^m$ .
- The  $n \times n$  matrix **identity matrix  $I_n$**  corresponds to the **identity transformation** from  $R^n$  into  $R^n$ .
- An  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  defines a **linear transformation** from  $R^n$  into  $R^m$ .

$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}v_1 + a_{12}v_2 + \cdots + a_{1n}v_n \\ a_{21}v_1 + a_{22}v_2 + \cdots + a_{2n}v_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}v_1 + a_{m2}v_2 + \cdots + a_{mn}v_n \end{bmatrix} \in R^m$$



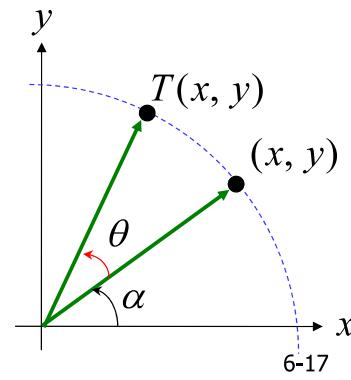
## Ex 7: Rotation in the plane

Show that the linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given by the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$  has the property that it rotates every vector in **counterclockwise about the origin** through the angle  $\theta$ . **Sol:** Let  $\mathbf{v} = (x, y) = (r \cos\alpha, r \sin\alpha)$

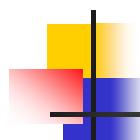
$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{v}) &= A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r \cos\alpha \\ r \sin\alpha \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} r \cos\theta \cos\alpha - r \sin\theta \sin\alpha \\ r \sin\theta \cos\alpha + r \cos\theta \sin\alpha \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} r \cos(\theta + \alpha) \\ r \sin(\theta + \alpha) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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Chapter 6



6-17



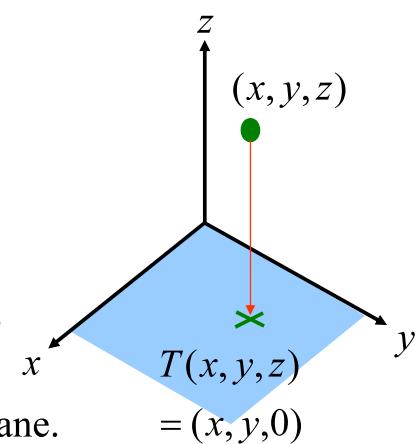
## Ex 8: A projection in $\mathbb{R}^3$

The linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

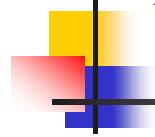
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is called a **projection** in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

If  $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z)$  is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then  $T(\mathbf{v}) = (x, y, 0)$ . In other words,  $T$  maps every vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  to its **orthogonal projection** in the  $xy$ -plane.



$$T(x, y, z) = (x, y, 0)$$



## Ex 9: Linear transformation from $M_{m,n}$ to $M_{n,m}$

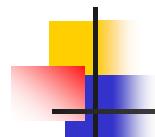
Let  $T: M_{m,n} \rightarrow M_{n,m}$  be the function that maps  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  to its **transpose**. That is,  $T(A) = A^T$   
Show that  $T$  is a linear transformation.

*pf:* Let  $A$  and  $B$  be  $m \times n$  matrix.

$$\because T(A + B) = (A + B)^T = A^T + B^T = T(A) + T(B)$$

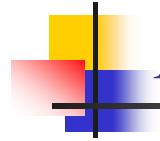
$$\text{and } T(cA) = (cA)^T = c(A^T) = cT(A)$$

$\therefore T$  is a linear transformation from  $M_{m,n}$  into  $M_{n,m}$



## 6.2 The Kernel and Range of a Linear Transformation

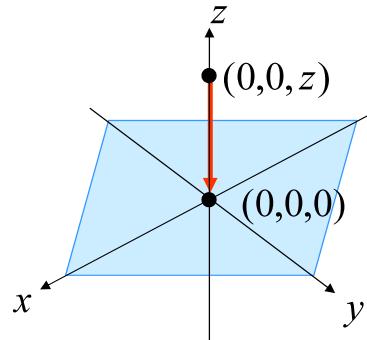
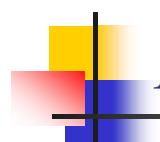
- Definition of **Kernel** of a Linear Transformation  
Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a **linear transformation**. Then the set of all vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$  that satisfy  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$  is called **the kernel** of  $T$  and is denoted by  $\ker(T)$ .
- The kernel of the **zero transformation**  $T: V \rightarrow W$  consists of all of  $V$  because  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$  for every  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$ . That is,  $\ker(T) = V$ .
- The kernel of the **identity transformation**  $T: V \rightarrow V$  consists of the single element  $\mathbf{0}$ . That is,  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .



## Ex 3: Finding the kernel

Find the kernel of the projection  $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^3$  given by  
 $T(x, y, z) = (x, y, 0)$ .

**Sol:** This linear transformation projects the vector  $(x, y, z)$  in  $R^3$  to the vector  $(x, y, 0)$  in  $xy$ -plane. Therefore,  
 $\ker(T) = \{ (0, 0, z) : z \in R \}$

## Ex 4: Finding the kernel

Find the kernel of  $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^3$  given by  
 $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - 2x_2, 0, -x_1)$ .

**Sol:** The kernel of  $T$  is the set of all  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$  in  $R^2$   
 s.t.  $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - 2x_2, 0, -x_1) = (0, 0, 0)$ .  
 Therefore,  $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$ .  
 $\Rightarrow \ker(T) = \{ (0, 0) \} = \{ \mathbf{0} \}$



## Ex 5: Finding the kernel

Find the kernel of  $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^2$  defined by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , where

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

**Sol:** The kernel of  $T$  is the set of all  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  in  $R^3$  s.t.

$T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (0, 0)$ . That is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -t \\ t \end{bmatrix}, t \in R$$

Therefore,  $\ker(T) = \{t(1, -1, 1) : t \in R\} = \text{span}\{(1, -1, 1)\}$



## Thm 6.3: Kernel is a subspace

The **kernel** of a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a **subspace of the domain  $V$** .

**pf:** 1.  $\ker(T)$  is a nonempty subset of  $V$ .

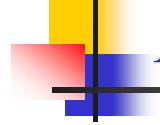
2. Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be vectors in  $\ker(T)$ . Then

$$T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \text{ (vector addition)}$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is in the kernel

3. If  $c$  is any scalar, then  $T(c\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u}) = c\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$   
(scalar multiplication), Thus,  $c\mathbf{u}$  is in the kernel.

■ The **kernel** of  $T$  sometimes called the **nullspace** of  $T$ .

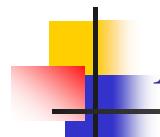


## Ex 6: Finding a basis for kernel

Let  $T: R^5 \rightarrow R^4$  be defined by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}$  is in  $R^5$

and  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Find a basis for  $\ker(T)$  as a subspace of  $R^5$ .

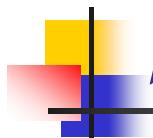


## Example 6 (cont.)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus **one** basis for the kernel  $T$  is given by

$$B = \{ (-2, 1, 1, 0, 0), (1, 2, 0, -4, 1) \}$$



# Solution Space

- A basis for the **kernel** of a linear transformation  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$  was found by solving the homogeneous system given by  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
  
- It is the same produce used to find the **solution space** of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

*Section 6-2 The Range of a Linear Transform*

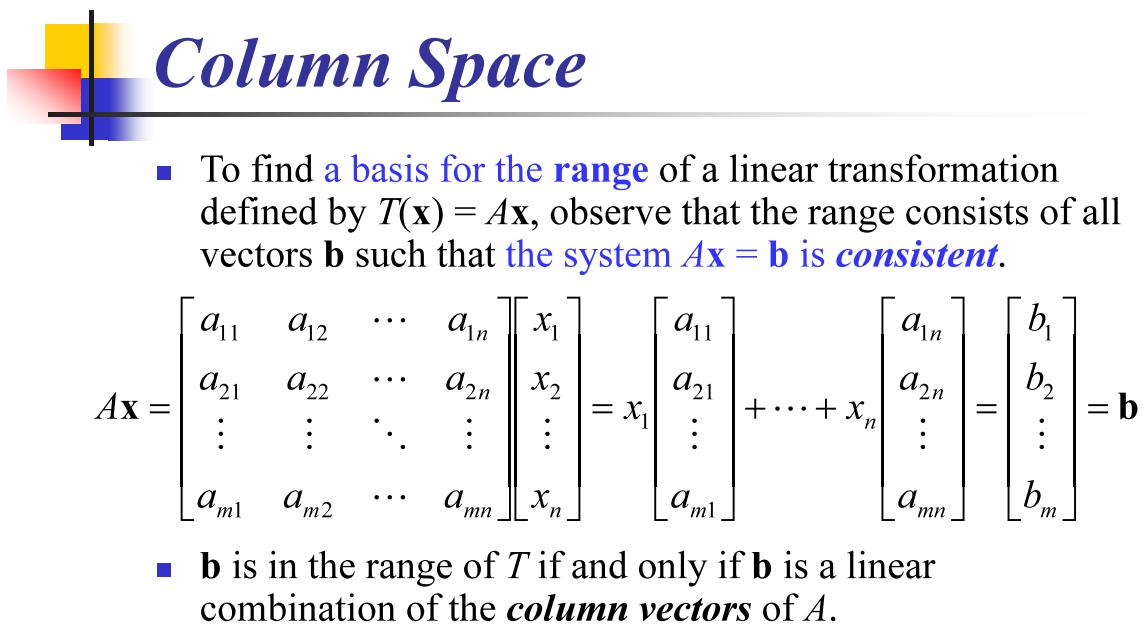
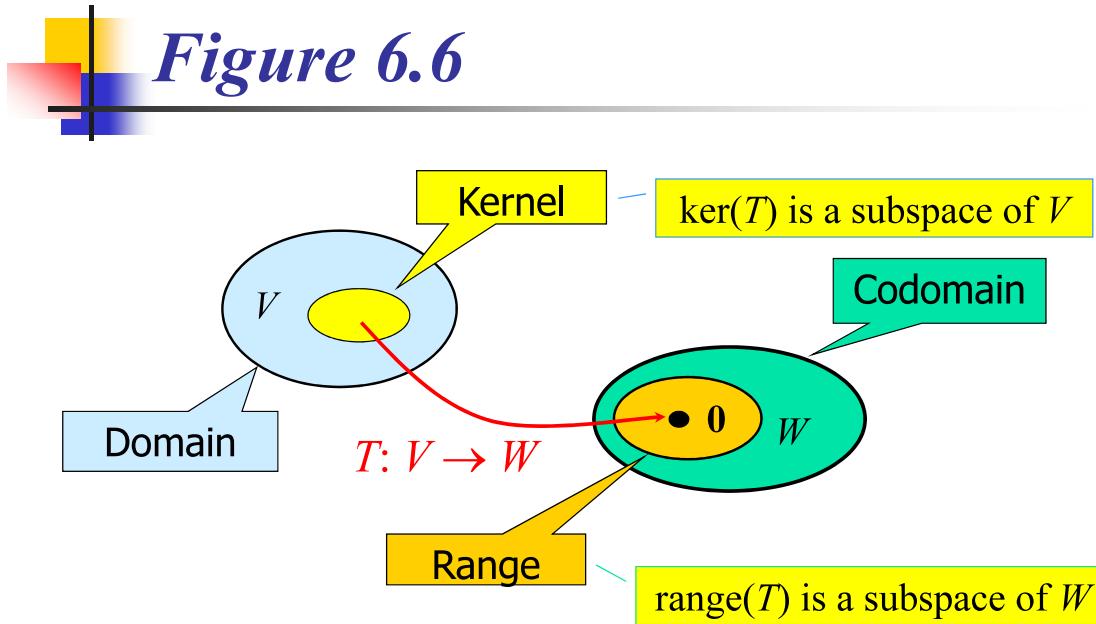


# Thm 6.4: Range is a subspace

The **range** of a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a **subspace of the domain  $V$** .

- $\text{range}(T) = \{ T(\mathbf{v}): \mathbf{v} \text{ is in } V \}$
- $\ker(T)$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

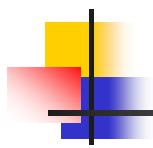
- pf:*
1.  $\text{range}(T)$  is a nonempty because  $T(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$ .
  2. Let  $T(\mathbf{u})$  and  $T(\mathbf{v})$  be vectors in  $\text{range}(T)$ . Because  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are in  $V$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is also in  $V$ . Hence the sum  $T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})$  is in the range of  $T$ . (vector addition)
  3. Let  $T(\mathbf{u})$  be a vector in the range of  $T$  and let  $c$  be a scalar. Because  $\mathbf{u}$  is in  $V$ , it follows that  $c\mathbf{u}$  is also in  $V$ . Hence,  $cT(\mathbf{u}) = T(c\mathbf{u})$  is in the range of  $T$ . (scalar multiplication)



- To find a basis for the range of a linear transformation defined by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , observe that the range consists of all vectors  $\mathbf{b}$  such that the system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is *consistent*.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + x_n \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}$$

- $\mathbf{b}$  is in the range of  $T$  if and only if  $\mathbf{b}$  is a linear combination of the *column vectors* of  $A$ .



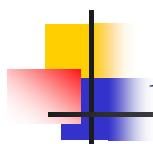
## Corollary of Theorems 6.3 & 6.4

Let  $T: R^n \rightarrow R^m$  be the linear transformation given by

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

[Theorem 6.3] The kernel of  $T$  is equal to the  
solution space of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

[Theorem 6.4] The column space of  $A$  is equal to  
the range of  $T$ .



## Ex 7: Finding a basis for range

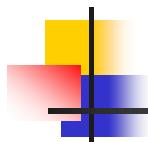
Let  $T: R^5 \rightarrow R^4$  be the linear transform given in Example 6.  
Find a basis for the range of  $T$ .

*Sol:* The row echelon of  $A$ :

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

One basis for the range of  $T$  is

$$B = \{ (1, 2, -1, 0), (2, 1, 0, 0), (1, 1, 0, 2) \}$$



## Rank and Nullity

---

Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation.

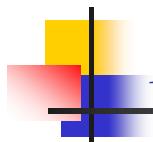
- The dimension of the ***kernel*** of  $T$  is called the **nullity** of  $T$  and is denoted by **nullity( $T$ )**.
- The dimension of the ***range*** of  $T$  is called the **rank** of  $T$  and is denoted by **rank( $T$ )**.



## Thm 6.5: Sum of rank and nullity

---

- Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation from an  $n$ -dimension vector space  $V$  into a vector space  $W$ . Then ***the sum of the dimensions of the range and the kernel*** is equal to ***the dimension of the domain***. That is,  
 $\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = n$   
or  
 $\dim(\text{range}) + \dim(\text{kernel}) = \dim(\text{domain})$



## Proof of Theorem 6.5

The linear transformation from an  $n$ -dimension vector space into an  $m$ -dimension vector space can be represented by a matrix, i.e.,  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$  where  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix.

Assume that the matrix  $A$  has a rank of  $r$ . Then,

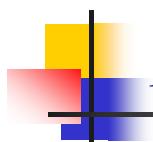
$$\text{rank}(T) = \dim(\text{range of } T) = \dim(\text{column space}) = \text{rank}(A) = r$$

From Thm 4.7, we have

$$\text{nullity}(T) = \dim(\text{kernel of } T) = \dim(\text{solution space}) = n - r$$

Thus,

$$\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = n + (n - r) = n$$



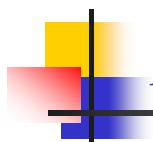
## Ex 8: Finding the rank & nullity

Find the rank and nullity of  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

**Sol:** Because  $\text{rank}(A) = 2$ , the rank of  $T$  is 2.

The nullity is  $\dim(\text{domain}) - \text{rank} = 3 - 2 = 1$ .

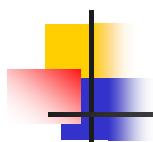


## Ex 8: Finding the rank & nullity

Let  $T: R^5 \rightarrow R^7$  be a linear transformation

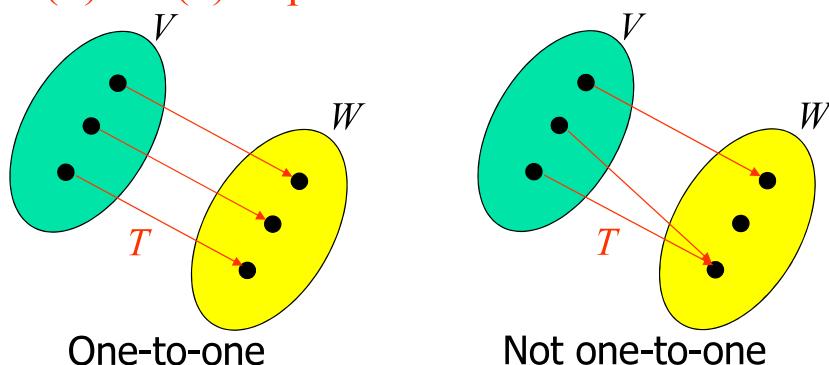
- Find the dimension of the kernel of  $T$  if the dimension of the range is 2.  
 $\dim(\text{kernel}) = n - \dim(\text{range}) = 5 - 2 = 3$
- Find the rank of  $T$  if the nullity of  $T$  is 4  
 $\text{rank}(T) = n - \text{nullity}(T) = 5 - 4 = 1$
- Find the rank of  $T$  if  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$   
 $\text{rank}(T) = n - \text{nullity}(T) = 5 - 0 = 5$

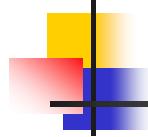
Section 6-2 One-to-One & Onto Linear Transformation



## One-to-One Mapping

- A linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is said to be **one-to-one** if and only if for all  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$ ,  $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v})$  implies that  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ .





## Thm 6.6: One-to-one Linear transformation

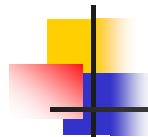
Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Then  $T$  is **one-to-one** if and only if  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

*pf:*  $\Rightarrow$  Suppose  $T$  is one-to-one. Then  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$  can have only one solution:  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ . In this case,  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  and  $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v})$ . Because  $T$  is a linear transformation, it follows that

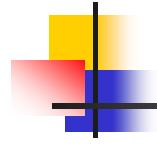
$$T(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) - T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$

This implies that  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$  lies in the kernel of  $T$  and must therefore equal  $\mathbf{0}$ . Hence  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$ , and we can conclude that  $T$  is one-to-one.



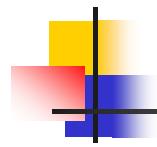
## Example 10

- The linear transformation  $T: M_{m,n} \rightarrow M_{n,m}$  given by  $T(A) = A^T$  is **one-to-one** because its kernel consists of **only** the  $m \times n$  zero matrix.
- The **zero transformation**  $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^3$  is **not one-to-one** because its kernel is **all** of  $R^3$ .



## Onto Linear Transformation

- A linear transformation  $T : V \rightarrow W$  is said to be **onto** if **every element in  $W$  has a preimage in  $V$** .
- $T$  is onto  $W$  when  $W$  is equal to the range of  $T$ .
- [Thm 6.7] Let  $T : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation, where  $W$  is finite dimensional. Then  $T$  is **onto** if and only if the rank of  $T$  is equal to the dimension of  $W$ , i.e.,  $\text{rank}(T) = \dim(W)$ .
- One-to-one:  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  or  $\text{nullity}(T) = 0$



## Thm 6.8: One-to-one and onto linear transformation

- Let  $T : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation with vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$  **both of dimension  $n$** . Then  $T$  is **one-to-one** if and only if it is **onto**.
- pf:*  $\Rightarrow$  If  $T$  is one-to-one, then  $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  and  $\dim(\ker(T)) = 0$ . In this case,  $\dim(\text{range of } T) = n - \dim(\ker(T)) = n = \dim(W)$ . By Theorem 6.7,  $T$  is onto.
- $\Leftarrow$  If  $T$  is onto, then  $\dim(\text{range of } T) = \dim(W) = n$ . Which by Theorem 6.5 implies that  $\dim(\ker(T)) = 0$ . By Theorem 6.6,  $T$  is onto-to-one.



## Example 11

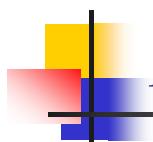
The linear transformation  $T:R^n \rightarrow R^m$  is given by  $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ .

Find the nullity and rank of  $T$  and determine whether  $T$  is one-to-one, onto, or either.

$$(a) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, (b) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, (c) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, (d) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

| $T:R^n \rightarrow R^m$     | dim(domain) | rank(T) | nullity(T) | one-to-one | onto |
|-----------------------------|-------------|---------|------------|------------|------|
| (a) $T:R^3 \rightarrow R^3$ | 3           | 3       | 0          | Yes        | Yes  |
| (b) $T:R^2 \rightarrow R^3$ | 2           | 2       | 0          | Yes        | No   |
| (c) $T:R^3 \rightarrow R^2$ | 3           | 2       | 1          | No         | Yes  |
| (d) $T:R^3 \rightarrow R^3$ | 3           | 2       | 1          | No         | No   |

### Section 6-2 Isomorphisms of Vector Spaces



## Isomorphism

**Def:** A linear transformation  $T : V \rightarrow W$  that is **one-to-one** and **onto** is called **isomorphism**. Moreover, if  $V$  and  $W$  are vector spaces such that there exists an isomorphism from  $V$  to  $W$ , then  $V$  and  $W$  are said to be **isomorphic** to each other.

### Theorem 6.9: Isomorphism Spaces & Dimension

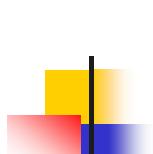
Two finite-dimensional vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$  are **isomorphic** if and only if they are of the same dimension.



## Ex 12: Isomorphic Vector Spaces

The following vector spaces are isomorphic to each other.

- $R^4 = 4\text{-space}$
- $M_{4,1} = \text{space of all } 4 \times 1 \text{ matrices}$
- $M_{2,2} = \text{space of all } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices}$
- $P_3 = \text{space of all polynomials of degree 3 or less}$
- $V = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, 0) : x_i \text{ is a real number}\}$   
(subspace of  $R^5$ )



## 6.3 Matrices for Linear Transformation

- Which one is better?

$$T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (2x_1 + x_2 - x_3, -x_1 + 3x_2 - 2x_3, 3x_2 + 4x_3)$$

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Simpler to write. Simpler to read, and more adapted for computer use.

- The key to representing a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  by a **matrix** is to determine how it acts on a **basis** of  $V$ .
- Once you know *the image of every vector in the basis*, you can use the properties of linear transformations to determine  $T(\mathbf{v})$  for *any*  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$ .

## Thm 6.10: Standard matrix for a linear transformation

Let  $T: R^n \rightarrow R^m$  be a **linear transformation** such that

$$T(\mathbf{e}_1) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}, T(\mathbf{e}_2) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix}, \dots, T(\mathbf{e}_n) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the  $m \times n$  matrix whose  $n$  **columns** corresponds to  $T(\mathbf{e}_i)$ , is such that  $T(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v}$  for every  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $R^n$ .  $A$  is called the **standard matrix** for  $T$ .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Proof of Theorem 6.10

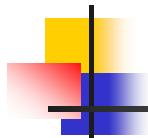
Let  $\mathbf{v} = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]^T = v_1\mathbf{e}_1 + v_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \cdots + v_n\mathbf{e}_n \in R^n$ .

Because  $T$  is a linear transformation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{v}) &= T(v_1\mathbf{e}_1 + v_2\mathbf{e}_2 + \cdots + v_n\mathbf{e}_n) \\ &= T(v_1\mathbf{e}_1) + T(v_2\mathbf{e}_2) + \cdots + T(v_n\mathbf{e}_n) \\ &= v_1T(\mathbf{e}_1) + v_2T(\mathbf{e}_2) + \cdots + v_nT(\mathbf{e}_n) \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} A\mathbf{v} &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = v_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} + v_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + v_n \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= v_1T(\mathbf{e}_1) + v_2T(\mathbf{e}_2) + \cdots + v_nT(\mathbf{e}_n) = T(\mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$



## Example 1

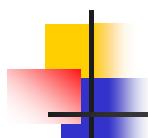
Find the standard matrix for the linear transformation  
 $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^2$  defined by  $T(x, y, z) = (x - 2y, 2x + y)$

**Sol:**

$$T(\mathbf{e}_1) = T(1, 0, 0) = (1, 2) \Rightarrow T(\mathbf{e}_1) = T\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\mathbf{e}_2) = T(0, 1, 0) = (-2, 1) \Rightarrow T(\mathbf{e}_2) = T\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(\mathbf{e}_3) = T(0, 0, 1) = (0, 0) \Rightarrow T(\mathbf{e}_3) = T\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Example 1 (cont.)

$$A = [T(\mathbf{e}_1) : T(\mathbf{e}_2) : T(\mathbf{e}_3)] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x - 2y \\ 2x + y \end{bmatrix}$$

which is equivalent to  $T(x, y, z) = (x - 2y, 2x + y)$ .

## Example 2

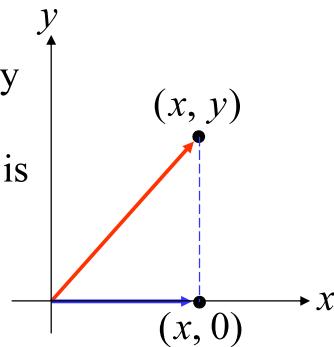
The linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is given by projecting each point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  onto the  $x$ -axis. Find the standard matrix for  $T$ .

**Sol:** This linear transformation is given by

$$T(x, y) = (x, 0).$$

Therefore, the standard matrix for  $T$  is

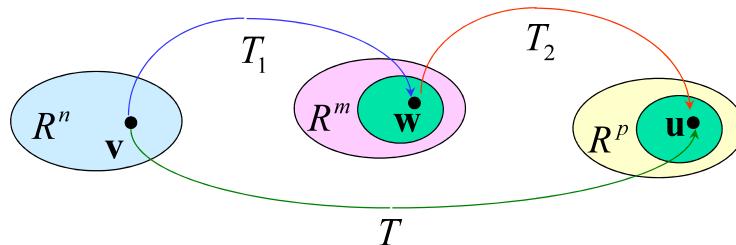
$$A = [T(1, 0) : T(0, 1)] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

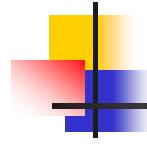


### Section 6-3 Composition of Linear Transformation

## Composition of linear transformation

- The composition  $T$ , of  $T_1: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  with  $T_2: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  is defined by  $T(\mathbf{v}) = T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = T_2 \circ T_1$  where  $\mathbf{v}$  is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- The domain of  $T$  is defined to the domain of  $T_1$ .
- The composition is **not** defined **unless** the range of  $T_1$  lies within the domain of  $T_2$ .





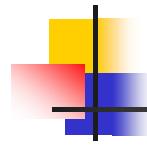
## Theorem 6.11

Let  $T_1: R^n \rightarrow R^m$  and  $T_2: R^m \rightarrow R^p$  be linear transformation with standard matrix  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ .

The **composition**  $T: R^n \rightarrow R^p$ , defined by

$T(\mathbf{v}) = T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v}))$ , is *linear transformation*.

Moreover, the **standard matrix** of  $T$  is given by the matrix product  $A = A_2A_1$ .



## Proof of Theorem 6.11

1. Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be vectors in  $R^n$  and let  $c$  be any scalar.

Because  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are linear transformation,

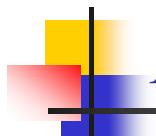
$$\begin{aligned} T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) &= T_2(T_1(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})) = T_2(T_1(\mathbf{u}) + T_1(\mathbf{v})) \\ &= T_2(T_1(\mathbf{u})) + T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v}). \end{aligned}$$

$$T(c\mathbf{v}) = T_2(T_1(c\mathbf{v})) = T_2(cT_1(\mathbf{v})) = cT_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = cT(\mathbf{v}).$$

Thus,  $T$  is a linear transformation.

2.  $T(\mathbf{v}) = T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = T_2(A_1\mathbf{v}) = A_2(A_1\mathbf{v}) = A_2A_1\mathbf{v}$

- In general, the composition  $T_2 \circ T_1$  is **not** the same as  $T_1 \circ T_2$ .



## Example 3

Let  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  be linear transformation  $R^3$  from  $R^3$  such that  $T_1(x, y, z) = (2x + y, 0, x + z)$  and  $T_2(x, y, z) = (x - y, z, y)$ . Find the standard matrices for the compositions  $T = T_2 \circ T_1$  and  $T' = T_1 \circ T_2$ .

**Sol:** The standard matrices for  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \Rightarrow A = A_1 A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T' \Rightarrow A' = A_2 A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ming-Feng Yeh

Chapter 6

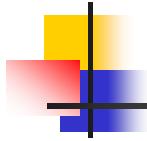
6-55



## Inverse Linear Transformation

- One benefit of matrix representation is that it can represent the **inverse** of a linear transformation.

**[Definition]** If  $T_1:R^n \rightarrow R^n$  and  $T_2:R^n \rightarrow R^n$  are linear transformations such that  $T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{v}$  and  $T_1(T_2(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{v}$ , then  $T_2$  is called the **inverse** of  $T_1$  and  $T_1$  is said to be **invertible**.

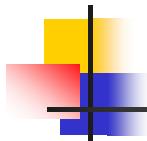


## Theorem 6.12

- Let  $T: R^n \rightarrow R^n$  be linear transformation with standard matrix  $A$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent.

1.  $T$  is **invertible**.
2.  $T$  is an **isomorphism**.
3.  $A$  is **invertible**.

And, if  $T$  is invertible with standard matrix  $A$ , then the standard matrix for  $T^{-1}$  is  $A^{-1}$ .



## Example 4

The linear transformation  $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^3$  is defined by

$$T(x, y, z) = (2x + 3y + z, 3x + 3y + z, 2x + 4y + z)$$

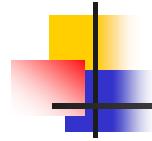
Show that  $T$  is invertible, and find its inverse.

**Sol:**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$$

$\therefore A$  is invertible. Its inverse is  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

Therefore  $T$  is invertible and its standard matrix is  $A^{-1}$ .



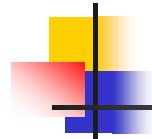
## Example 4 (cont.)

Using the standard matrix for the inverse, we can find the rule for  $T^{-1}$  by computing the image of an arbitrary vector  $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z)$ .

$$T^{-1}(\mathbf{v}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x + y \\ -x + z \\ 6x - 2y - 3z \end{bmatrix}$$

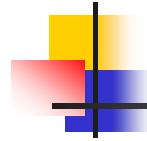
$$T^{-1}(x, y, z) = (-x + y, -x + z, 6x - 2y - 3z).$$

### Section 6-3 Nonstandard Bases and General Vector Spaces



## Nonstandard Bases

- Finding a matrix for a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$ , where  $B$  and  $B'$  are **ordered bases** for  $V$  and  $W$ , respectively.
- The coordinate matrix of  $\mathbf{v}$  relative to  $B$  is  $[\mathbf{v}]_B$ .
- To represent the linear transformation  $T$ ,  $A$  must be multiplied by a **coordinate matrix relative to  $B$** .
- The result of the multiplication will be a **coordinate matrix relative to  $B'$** .
- $[T(\mathbf{v})]_{B'} = A[\mathbf{v}]_B$ .  $A$  is called the **matrix of  $T$  relative to the bases  $B$  and  $B'$** .



## Transformation Matrix

Let  $V$  and  $W$  be finite-dimensional vector spaces with bases

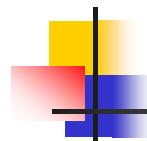
$B$  and  $B'$ , respectively, where  $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$

If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation such that

$$[T(\mathbf{v}_1)]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}, [T(\mathbf{v}_2)]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix}, \dots, [T(\mathbf{v}_n)]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix},$$

then the  $m \times n$  matrix whose columns correspond to

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{is s.t. } T(\mathbf{v}) = A[\mathbf{v}]_B.$$



## Example 5

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a linear transformation defined by

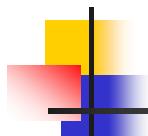
$T(x, y) = (x + y, 2x - y)$ . Find the matrix of  $T$  relative to the bases  $B = \{(1, 2), (-1, 1)\}$  and  $B' = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$

**Sol:**  $T(\mathbf{v}_1) = T(1, 2) = (3, 0) = 3\mathbf{w}_1 + 0\mathbf{w}_2$

$$T(\mathbf{v}_2) = T(-1, 1) = (0, -3) = 0\mathbf{w}_1 - 3\mathbf{w}_2$$

Therefore the coordinate matrices of  $T(\mathbf{v}_1)$  and  $T(\mathbf{v}_2)$  relative to  $B'$  are  $[T(\mathbf{v}_1)]_{B'} = [3 \ 0]^\top$ ,  $[T(\mathbf{v}_2)]_{B'} = [0 \ -3]^\top$ .

The matrix for  $T$  relative to  $B$  and  $B'$  is  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$



## Example 6

For the linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given in Example 5, use the matrix  $A$  to find  $T(\mathbf{v})$ , where  $\mathbf{v} = (2, 1)$ .

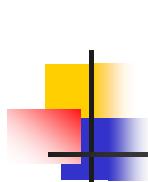
*Sol:*  $B = \{(1, 2), (-1, 1)\}$

$$\mathbf{v} = (2, 1) = 1(1, 2) - 1(-1, 1) \Rightarrow [\mathbf{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore [T(\mathbf{v})]_{B'} = A[\mathbf{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

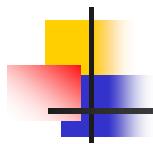
$$\because B' = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\} \Rightarrow T(\mathbf{v}) = 3(1, 0) + 3(0, 1) = (3, 3).$$

|  |
|--|
| $Ex 5: T(x, y) = (x + y, 2x - y) \Rightarrow T(2, 1) = (3, 3)$ |
|--|



## 6.4 Transition Matrix and Similarity

- The matrix of a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow V$  depends on the basis of  $V$ .
- The matrix of  $T$  relative to a basis  $B$  is **different from** the matrix of  $T$  relative to another basis  $B'$
- Is it possible to find a basis  $B$  such that the matrix of  $T$  relative to  $B$  is diagonal?



## Transition Matrices

- A linear transformation is defined by  $T: V \rightarrow V$

Matrix of  $T$  relative to  $B$ :  $A$

Matrix of  $T$  relative to  $B'$ :  $A'$

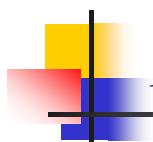
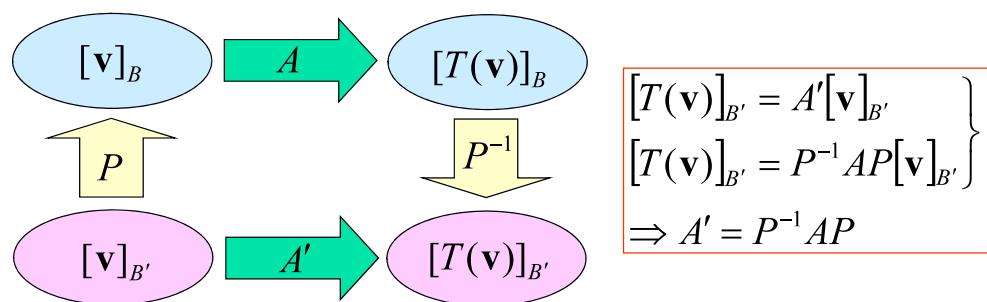
Transition matrix from  $B'$  to  $B$ :  $P$

Transition matrix from  $B$  to  $B'$ :  $P^{-1}$

$$[T(\mathbf{v})]_B = A[\mathbf{v}]_B$$

$$[T(\mathbf{v})]_{B'} = A'[\mathbf{v}]_{B'}$$

$$[\mathbf{v}]_B = P[\mathbf{v}]_{B'}; [\mathbf{v}]_{B'} = P^{-1}[\mathbf{v}]_B$$



## Example 1

Find the matrix  $A'$  for  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $T(x, y) = (2x - 2y, -x + 3y)$

relative to the basis  $B' = \{(1, 0), (1, 1)\}$ .

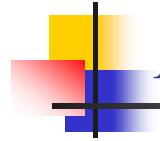
**Sol:** The standard matrix for  $T$  is  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

The transition matrix from  $B'$  to the standard basis

$$B = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\} \text{ is } P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore the matrix for  $T$  relative to  $B'$  is

$$A' = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Example 2

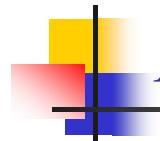
Let  $B = \{(-3, 2), (4, -2)\}$  and  $B' = \{(-1, 2), (2, -2)\}$ .  
 be bases for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 7 \\ -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$  be the matrix for  
 $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  relative to  $B$ . Find  $A'$ .

**Sol:** In Example 5 in Section 4.7,

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix of  $T$  relative to  $B'$  is given by

$$A' = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Example 3

For the linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given in Example 2,  
 find  $[\mathbf{v}]_B$ ,  $[T(\mathbf{v})]_B$ , and  $[T(\mathbf{v})]_{B'}$  for the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  whose  
 coordinate matrix  $[\mathbf{v}]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^\top$

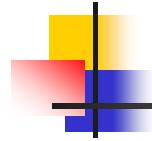
**Sol:**

$$[\mathbf{v}]_B = P[\mathbf{v}]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[T(\mathbf{v})]_B = A[\mathbf{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 7 \\ -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -21 \\ -14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[T(\mathbf{v})]_{B'} = P^{-1}[T(\mathbf{v})]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -21 \\ -14 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= A'[\mathbf{v}]_{B'}$$



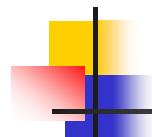
# Similar Matrices

**[Definition]** For square matrices  $A$  and  $A'$  of order  $n$ ,  
 $A'$  is said to be **similar** to  $A$  if there exists an invertible matrix  
 $P$  such that  $A' = P^{-1}AP$ .

**[Theorem 6.13]** Let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  be square matrices of order  $n$ ,

Then the following properties are true.

1.  $A$  is similar to  $A$ .
2. If  $A$  is similar to  $B$ , then  $B$  is similar to  $A$ .
3. If  $A$  is similar to  $B$  and  $B$  is similar to  $C$ ,  
 then  $A$  is similar to  $C$ .



## Example 5

Suppose  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$  is the matrix for  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  relative  
 to the standard basis. Find the matrix for  $T$  relative to the basis

$$B' = \{(1, 1, 0), (1, -1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$$

**Sol:** The transition matrix from  $B'$  to the standard matrix is

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A' = P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

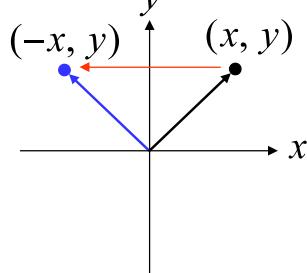
## 6.5 Applications of Linear Transformation

The geometry of linear transformations in the plane

**Reflection** in the  $y$ -axis

$$T(x, y) = (-x, y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

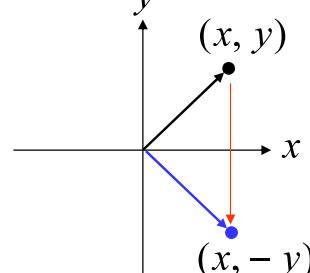


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**Reflection** in the  $x$ -axis

$$T(x, y) = (x, -y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ -y \end{bmatrix}$$



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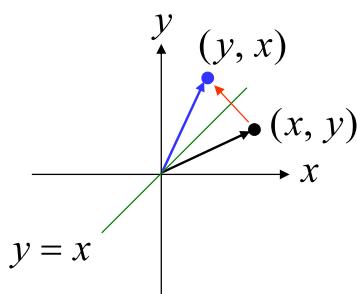
Section 6-5

## Reflection in the Plane

**Reflection** in the line  $y = x$

$$T(x, y) = (y, x)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ x \end{bmatrix}$$



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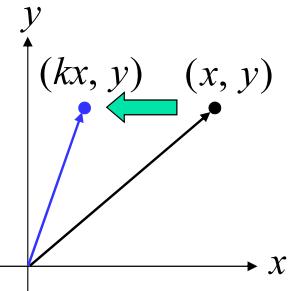
Chapter 6

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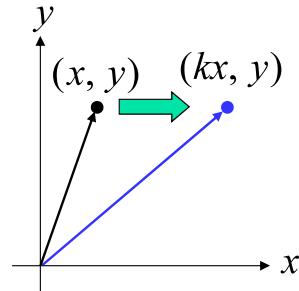
## Expansions & Contractions in the Plane -- Horizontal

$$T(x, y) = (kx, y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} kx \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$



Contraction:  $0 < k < 1$

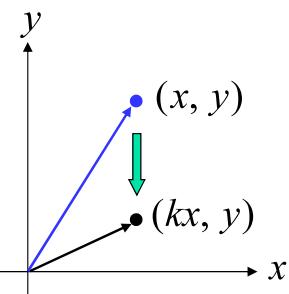


Expansion:  $k > 1$

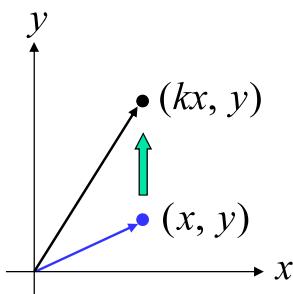
## Expansions & Contractions in the Plane -- Vertical

$$T(x, y) = (x, ky)$$

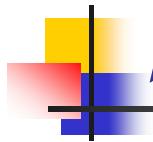
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ ky \end{bmatrix}$$



Contraction:  $0 < k < 1$



Expansion:  $k > 1$

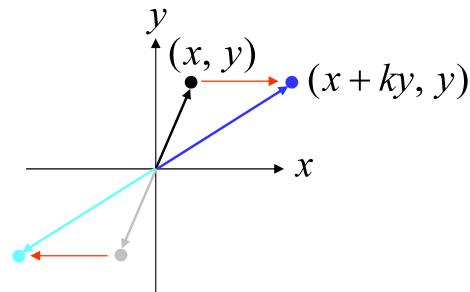


## Shears in the Plane

Horizontal shear:

$$T(x, y) = (x + ky, y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & k \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + ky \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$



Vertical shear:

$$T(x, y) = (x, y + kx)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ k & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ kx + y \end{bmatrix}$$

