

LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

- We have already seen repeatedly that a matrix can be used to transform vectors. Let T be a matrix, and v be a vector in \mathbb{R}^2 and w be a vector in \mathbb{R}^3 . Let $w = T(v)$:

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad w = T(v) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- T will transform any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 into a vector in \mathbb{R}^3 : $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 2x - y \\ 3x + 4y \end{bmatrix}$
- The **transformation** or **mapping** T from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m is a rule that assigns each vector v in \mathbb{R}^n to a unique vector $T(v)$ in \mathbb{R}^m
- The **domain** of T is \mathbb{R}^n .
- The **codomain** of T is \mathbb{R}^m .
- Thus the transformation would be described as $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$
- The vector $T(v)$ is the **image** of v .
- The set of all possible images is known as the **range** of T .

- In our example $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 2x - y \\ 3x + 4y \end{bmatrix}$, the range of T would be all linear combinations,

$$x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ thus the column space of } T.$$

WHEN IS A TRANSFORMATION "LINEAR?"

- $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is called a linear transformation if and only if :
 $T(u + v) = T(u) + T(v)$ for all u and v in \mathbb{R}^n
 $T(cv) = cT(v)$ for all v in \mathbb{R}^n and all scalars c
- Steps to verify that our example transformation is linear:

$$T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m = T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 2x - y \\ 3x + 4y \end{bmatrix}, \text{ let } u = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } v = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
T(u+v) &= T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 \\ y_1+y_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 \\ 2(x_1+x_2)-(y_1+y_2) \\ 3(x_1+x_2)+4(y_1+y_2) \end{bmatrix} = \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 \\ 2x_1+2x_2-y_1-y_2 \\ 3x_1+3x_2+4y_1+4y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1+x_2 \\ (2x_1-y_1)+(2x_2-y_2) \\ (3x_1+4y_1)+(3x_2+4y_2) \end{bmatrix} = \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 2x_1-y_1 \\ 3x_1+4y_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ 2x_2-y_2 \\ 3x_2+4y_2 \end{bmatrix} = T\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} + T\begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = T(u) + T(v)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
T(cv) &= T\left(c\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = T\left(\begin{bmatrix} cx \\ cy \end{bmatrix}\right) = \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} cx \\ 2(cx)-(cy) \\ 3(cx)+4(cy) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cx \\ c(2x-y) \\ c(3x+4y) \end{bmatrix} = \\
&= c\begin{bmatrix} x \\ 2x-y \\ 3x+4y \end{bmatrix} = cT\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = cT(v)
\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, our example transformation was indeed linear.
- This is true for any $m \times n$ matrix A . Let $T_A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be defined by $T_A(x) = Ax$ for any x in \mathbb{R}^n . Let u and v be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and c be a scalar:

$$T_A(u+v) = A(u+v) = Au + Av = T_A(u) + T_A(v) \text{ and } T_A(cv) = A(cv) = c(Av) = cT_A(v)$$

ROTATIONS AS LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

- A rotation about the origin through an angle θ is a linear transformation from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n .
- Let R_θ be the rotation, and u and v be vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 . Provided that the vectors are not parallel, we know that $\|u+v\|$ is the diagonal of a parallelogram formed by the two vectors. Applying R_θ would rotate the entire parallelogram through angle θ , and thus the diagonal of the parallelogram must be $R_\theta(u) + R_\theta(v)$ and therefore $R_\theta(u+v) = R_\theta(u) + R_\theta(v)$.

Applying R_θ to v and cv would obtain $R_\theta(v)$ and $R_\theta(cv)$. Since a rotation does not affect lengths, $R_\theta(cv) = cR_\theta(v)$

- The matrix of this linear transformation can be found by determining the effects on standard basis vectors: $R_\theta \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}$ and $R_\theta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (which is orthogonal, so $R_\theta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$)
- $R_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$

PROJECTIONS AS LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

- As an example, let ℓ be a line through the origin in \mathbb{R}^2 . The linear transformation $P_\ell : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ projects a vector in \mathbb{R}^2 onto ℓ .
- ℓ has a directional vector d onto which we will project an arbitrary vector v .
- The projection of v onto d is given by $\left(\frac{d^T v}{d^T d} \right) d$
- Therefore, the transformation $P_\ell : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is linear because:

$$\begin{aligned} P_\ell(u+v) &= \left(\frac{d^T(u+v)}{d^T d} \right) d = \left(\frac{d^T u + d^T v}{d^T d} \right) d = \\ &= \left(\frac{d^T u}{d^T d} + \frac{d^T v}{d^T d} \right) d = \left(\frac{d^T u}{d^T d} \right) d + \left(\frac{d^T v}{d^T d} \right) d = \\ &P_\ell(u) + P_\ell(v) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly $P_\ell(cv) = cP_\ell(v)$

TRANSPOSITION AS A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

- Let $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be defined as $T_A = A^T$
- $T(A+B) = (A+B)^T = A^T + B^T = T(A) + T(B)$
- $T(cA) = (cA)^T = cA^T = cT(A)$

DIFFERENTIATION AS A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

- Let D be the differential operator $D : \Delta \rightarrow \Phi$ defined by $D(f) = f'$
- Let f and g be differentiable functions.
- D is a linear transformation because $D(f+g) = (f+g)' = f' + g' = D(f) + D(g)$ and $D(cf) = (cf)' = cf' = cD(f)$.

INTEGRATION AS A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

- Let $S : \mathcal{C}[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $S(f) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$

- Let f and g be functions in $\mathcal{C}[a, b]$.

- S is a linear transformation because

$$\begin{aligned} S(f + g) &= \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx = \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x))dx = \\ &= \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx = S(f) + S(g) \end{aligned}$$

- Similarly, $S(cf) = cS(f)$

EXAMPLES OF NON-LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

- $T : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : T(x) = 2^x$

Let $x = 1$ and $y = 2$

$$T(x + y) = T(3) = 2^3 = 8 \neq 6 = 2^1 + 2^2 = T(x) + T(y)$$

- $T : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : T(x) = x + 1$

Let $x = 1$ and $y = 2$

$$T(x + y) = T(3) = 3 + 1 = 4 \neq 5 = (1 + 1) + (2 + 1) = T(x) + T(y)$$

- $T : M_{22} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : T(A) = |A|$

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(A + B) = |A + B| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \neq 0 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = T(A) + T(B)$$

$T : V \rightarrow W$ and T 's effect on a basis for V

Example:

$$T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow F : T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 - 3x + x^2 \text{ and } T \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1 - x^2$$

- Find $T \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^2 , and therefore $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is in its span. Solve $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ to

find the appropriate scalars $c_1 = -7$ and $c_2 = 3$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } T \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} &= T \left(-7 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right) = -7T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 3T \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -7(2 - 3x - 10x^2) + 3(1 - x^2) = -11 + 21x - 10x^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Find $T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$.

$$= (5a - 3b) + (-9a + 6b)x + (4a - 3b)x^2$$

Therefore, let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation, and let $B = v_1, \dots, v_n$ be a basis that spans V . $T(B) = T(v_1), \dots, T(v_n)$ is a basis that spans the range of T .

COMPOSITION OF LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

Let $T:U \rightarrow V$ and $S:V \rightarrow W$ be linear transformations. The composition of S with T is the mapping $S \circ T$ definite by $(S \circ T)(u) = S(T(u))$

EXAMPLE:

Let $T:\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow F_1$ and $S:F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ be the linear transformations defined by

$$T\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x \text{ and } S(f(x)) = xf(x)$$

- Find $(S \circ T)\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$(S \circ T)\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = S\left(T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}\right)\right) = S(3 + (3-2)x) = S(3+x) = x(3+x) = 3x + x^2$$

- Find $(S \circ T)\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$

$$(S \circ T)\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = S\left(T\left(\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}\right)\right) = S(a + (a+b)x) = x(a + (a+b)x) = ax + (a+b)x^2$$

If $T:U \rightarrow V$ and $S:V \rightarrow W$ are linear transformation, then $S \circ T:U \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation.

$$\begin{aligned}(S \circ T)(u+v) &= S(T(u+v)) \\ &= S(T(u) + T(v)) \\ &= S(T(u)) + S(T(v)) \\ &= (S \circ T)(u) + (S \circ T)(v)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(S \circ T)(cu) &= S(T(cu)) \\ &= S(cT(u)) \\ &= cS(T(u)) \\ &= c(S \circ T)(u)\end{aligned}$$

INVERSES OF LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

A linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ is invertible if there is a linear transformation $T': W \rightarrow V$ such that $T' \circ T = I_V$ and $T \circ T' = I_W$

EXAMPLE:

Verify that the linear mapping $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow F_1: T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x$ and

$T': F_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2: T'(c+dx) = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d-c \end{bmatrix}$ are inverses.

$$(T' \circ T) \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = T' \left(T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right) = T'(a + (a+b)x) = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ (a+b) - a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(T \circ T')(c + dx) = T(T'(c + dx)) = T \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d - c \end{bmatrix} = c + (c + (d - c))x = c + dx$$

Therefore they are inverses because $T' \circ T = I_{\mathbb{R}^2}$ and $T \circ T' = I_{F_1}$.

KERNEL AND RANGE

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

- The **kernel** of T [$\ker(T)$] is the set of all vectors in V that are mapped by T to 0 in W .

$$\ker(T) = \{v \text{ in } V : T(v) = 0\}$$

- The **range** of T [$\text{range}(T)$] is the set of all vectors in W that are images of vectors in V under T .

EXAMPLES:

Find the kernel and range of the differential operator $D : P_3 \rightarrow P_2 : D(p(x)) = p'(x)$

$$D(a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3) = b + 2cx + 3dx^2$$

$$\ker(D) = \{a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 : D(a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3) = 0\}$$

$$= \{a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 : b + 2cx + 3dx^2 = 0\}$$

$b + 2cx + 3dx^2 = 0$ iff $b = 2c = 3d = 0$, implying $b = c = d = 0$, therefore

$$\ker(D) = \{a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 : b = c = d = 0\}$$

$$= \{a : a \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\}$$

Therefore, the kernel of D is the set of all constant polynomials. The range of D is all of P_2 because every polynomial in P_2 is the image under D of some polynomial in P_3 .

Find the kernel and range of $S : P_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : S(p(x)) = \int_0^1 p(x) dx$

$$S(a + bx) = \int_0^1 (a + bx) dx$$

$$\left[ax + \frac{b}{2}x^2 \right]_0^1 = \left(a + \frac{b}{2} \right) - 0 = a + \frac{b}{2}$$

$$\ker(S) = \{a + bx : S(a + bx) = 0\}$$

$$= \left\{ a + bx : a + \frac{b}{2} = 0 \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ a + bx : a = -\frac{b}{2} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ -\frac{b}{2} + bx \right\}$$

Therefore, the kernel consists of all linear polynomials whose graphs have the property that the area between the line and the x-axis is equally distributed above and below the axis.

The range of S is \mathbb{R} since every real number can be obtained as the image under S of a first degree polynomial.

Find the kernel and range of $T : M_{22} \rightarrow M_{22} : T(A) = A^T$

$$\ker(T) = \{A \text{ in } M_{22} : T(A) = 0\}$$

$$= \{A \text{ in } M_{22} : A^T = 0\}$$

$\ker(T) = 0$ because if $A^T = 0$, then $(A^T)^T = 0^T = 0$. Also $\text{range}(T) = M_{22}$ because $A = (A^T)^T = T(A^T)$

In each of the examples, the kernel of T is a subspace of V, the range of T is a subspace of W.

RANK AND NULLITY

- The rank of T is the dimension of the range of T .
- The nullity of T is the dimension of the kernel of T .

FROM OUR EXAMPLES:

$$D : P_3 \rightarrow P_2 : D(p(x)) = p'(x)$$

$$\text{Rank}(D)=3; \text{nullity}(D)=1$$

$$S : P_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : S(p(x)) = \int_0^1 p(x) dx$$

$$\text{Rank}(S)=1; \text{nullity}(S)=1$$

$$T : M_{22} \rightarrow M_{22} : T(A) = A^T$$

$$\text{Rank}(T)=4; \text{Nullity}(T)=0$$

RANK THEOREM:

$$\text{Rank}(T) + \text{Nullity}(T) = \dim(V) \text{ when } T : V \rightarrow W$$

Let W be the vector space of all 2×2 matrices for which $A = A^T$. Let

$$T : W \rightarrow P_2 : T \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = (a-b) + (b-c)x + (c-a)x^2. \text{ Find the rank on the nullity of } T.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\ker(T) &= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} : T \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} = 0 \right\} \\
&= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} : (a-b) + (b-c)x + (c-a)x^2 = 0 \right\} \\
&= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} : (a-b) = (b-c) = (c-a) = 0 \right\} \\
&= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} : a = b = c \right\} \\
&= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} c & c \\ c & c \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\ker(T) &= \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \text{ and thus the nullity} = \dim(\ker(T)) = 1. \text{ Therefore the rank} \\
&= \dim W - \text{nullity}(T) = 3 - 1 = 2
\end{aligned}$$

ONE-TO-ONE and ONTO LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

- $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called **one-to-one** if T maps distinct vectors in V to distinct vectors in W .
- T is called **onto** if $\text{range}(T) = W$.
 - $T: V \rightarrow W$ is **one-to-one** if for all vectors in V , $u \neq v$ implies that $T(u) \neq T(v)$ and $T(u) = T(v)$ implies that $u = v$.

EXAMPLES:

$$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 : T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ x - y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- T is **one-to-one** because Let $T \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = T \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ x_1 - y_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_2 \\ x_2 - y_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, which implies $2x_1 = 2x_2$ and $x_1 - y_1 = x_2 - y_2$ so $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 = y_2$.

- T is **NOT onto** because its range is not all of \mathbb{R}^3 . There is no vector such that $T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$D: P_3 \rightarrow P_2 : D(p(x)) = p'(x)$$

- D is not **one-to-one** because distinct polynomials in P_3 can have the same derivative.
- D is **onto** because $\text{range}(D) = P_2$.

$T : V \rightarrow W$ is one-to one if and only if $\ker(T) = 0$

$T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x$ is one-to-one because $\ker(T) = 0$ since if $T(A) = 0$, then $a = 0$ and $a+b = 0$

(therefore $b = 0$). $T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x$ is also onto because if $\ker(T) = 0$ then it is full rank:

$$\text{rank}(T) = \dim(\mathbb{R}^2) - \text{nullity}(T) = 2 - 0 = 2$$

THE MATRIX OF A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by $T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x - 2y \\ x + y - 3z \end{bmatrix}$ with bases $B = e_1, e_2, e_3$ for \mathbb{R}^3 and

$C = e_2, e_1$ for \mathbb{R}^2 . Find the matrix of T with respect to B and C .

- Compute $T(e_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(e_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $T(e_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$

- Find their coordinate vectors with respect to C

Since $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = e_2 + e_1$, $\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = e_2 - 2e_1$, $\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -3e_2 + 0e_1$, we have

$$T(e_1)_C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, T(e_2)_C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, T(e_3)_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Therefore, the matrix of T with respect to B and C is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$T(v) = T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } T(v)_C = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}_C = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{v_B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -3 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = T(v)_C$$

Let $D: P_3 \rightarrow P_2$ be the differential operator $D(p(x)) = p'(x)$. A basis for P_3 would be

$$B = 1, x, x^2, x^3 \text{ and a basis for } P_2 \text{ would be } C = 1, x, x^2.$$

Find the matrix of D with respect to B and C .

The images of B under D are $D(1) = 0, D(x) = 1, D(x^2) = 2x, D(x^3) = 3x^2$ and therefore their coordinate vectors with respect to C are:

$$D(1)_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, D(x)_C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, [D(x^2)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, [D(x^3)]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Therefore } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the matrix A' of D with respect to B' and C where $B' = x^3, x^2, x, 1$

The order of the vectors in a basis will affect the matrix of a transformation with respect to the basis. Since basis B' is simply B in reverse order, we see that

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use matrix A to compute $D(5 - x + 2x^3)$

$$A[5 - x + 2x^3]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = [D(5 - x + 2x^3)]_C$$

$$\text{Let } T : P_2 \rightarrow P_2 : T(p(x)) = p(2x-1)$$

Find the matrix of the linear transformation with respect to $B = 1, x, x^2$

$$T(1) = 1, T(x) = 2x - 1, T(x^2) = (2x - 1)^2 = 1 - 4x + 4x^2$$

$$T(1)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, T(x)_B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, [T(x^2)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Therefore } T_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Compute } T(3 + 2x - x^2)$$

MATRICES OF COMPOSITE AND INVERSE TRANSFORMATIONS

$$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow P_1: T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x \text{ and } S: P_1 \rightarrow P_2: S(a+bx) = ax + bx^2 = xp(x)$$

FIND A MATRIX FOR $S \circ T$

- Standard Basis for \mathbb{R}^2 is $B = e_1, e_2$
- Standard Basis for P_1 is $C = 1, x$
- Standard Basis for P_2 is $D = 1, x, x^2$

$$T(e_1) = 1 + (1+0)x = 1 + x \quad T(e_2) = 0 + (0+1)x = x$$

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

$$S \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x + x^2 \quad S \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x^2$$

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

$$S \circ T = S_c T_c = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow P_1: T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a + (a+b)x$$

FIND T^{-1}

Because the transformation is both one-to-one and onto, it is invertible.

$$\text{In the above example we found } T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} T^{-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{This implies } \begin{bmatrix} T^{-1}(a+bx) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T^{-1} \end{bmatrix} a+bx = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b-a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{This is the same as } T^{-1}(a+bx) = ae_1 + (b-a)e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b-a \end{bmatrix}$$

AN EXAMPLE FROM CALCULUS

Using the inverse of a differential operator, find $\int x^2 e^{3x} dx$ (which usually requires two applications of integration by parts.)

$$\text{From the example problem given in class, we found } D_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ for which}$$

$$B = e^{3x}, xe^{3x}, x^2 e^{3x}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} D^{-1} \end{bmatrix}_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{9} & \frac{2}{27} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{9} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x^2e^{3x} \end{bmatrix}_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \int x^2e^{3x}dx \end{bmatrix}_B = \begin{bmatrix} D^{-1}(x^2e^{3x}) \end{bmatrix}B$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} D^{-1} \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} x^2e^{3x} \end{bmatrix}_B$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{9} & \frac{2}{27} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{9} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{27} \\ -\frac{2}{9} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\int x^2e^{3x}dx = \frac{2}{27}e^{3x} - \frac{2}{9}xe^{3x} + \frac{1}{3}x^2e^{3x} + C$$

CHANGE OF BASIS AND SIMILARITY

$$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 : T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+3y \\ 2x+2y \end{bmatrix}$$

Is it possible to find a basis B for \mathbb{R}^2 such that the transformation matrix T is diagonal with respect to B ?

With respect to a standard basis, $T_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

We can show that $T_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is diagonalizable into $T_E = S\Lambda S^{-1}$, in which Λ is a diagonal matrix.

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

If $T_E = S\Lambda S^{-1}$, then $\Lambda = S^{-1} T_E S$. Let B be the basis in \mathbb{R}^2 consisting of the columns of S , then S is the change-of-basis matrix from B to E . Then

$$T_B = S^{-1} T_E S = \Lambda$$

Therefore the transformation matrix T with respect to the basis $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is diagonal.

$$T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - 1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So the vectors that form the columns of T_B are

$$\left[T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \left[T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$T_E \sim T_B$ because when $T:V \rightarrow W$, changing a basis for V of transformation matrix A would require multiplication AM (multiply by M on the right to come first). Changing the basis for W would change A to $M^{-1}A$ (to come last). Therefore, to change both bases the same way, the new matrix is $B = M^{-1}AM$. The good basis vectors are thus the eigenvectors of A , and $B = S^{-1}AS$.

WORKING WITHIN A NON-STANDARD OR NON-EIGEN BASIS

$$T:P_2 \rightarrow P_2 : T(p(x)) = p(2x-1)$$

Find T with respect to basis $B = 1+x, 1-x, x^2$

With respect to a standard basis :

$$T(1) = 1, T(x) = 2x-1, T(x^2) = (2x-1)^2 = 1-4x+4x^2$$

$$T(1)_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, T(x)_E = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, [T(x^2)]_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Therefore } T_E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{The change of basis matrix from } B \text{ to } E \text{ is } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore it follows that $T_B = M^{-1} T_E M$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\frac{3}{2} \\ -1 & 2 & \frac{5}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find a basis C for P_2 such that T_C is a diagonal matrix.

T_E has eigenvalues 1, 2, and 4 with eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$S^{-1} T_E S = \Lambda$, and therefore S is a change of basis matrix from a basis C to E .

Therefore $C = 1, -1+x, 1-2x+x^2$

INVERSES: LEFT/RIGHT/PSEUDOINVERSE

2-SIDED INVERSES

- A is full row rank.
- A is full column rank.
- 1 solution to $Ax = b$
- $n = m = r$
- $A^{-1}A = I = AA^{-1}$

LEFT INVERSES

- A is full column rank.
- A has independent columns.
- $N(A) = 0$
- 0 or 1 solution to $Ax = b$
- $r = n < m$
- $A^T A$ is symmetric and invertible
- Therefore $\left[(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \right]$ is a “left inverse” because $\left[(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \right] A = I$
- If we multiply $\left[(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \right]$ on the right, we get $A \left[(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \right]$ which is P , a projection onto the column space.

RIGHT INVERSES

- A is full row rank.
- A has independent rows.
- $N(A^T) = 0$
- Infinite solutions to $Ax = b$
- $r = m < n$
- $n - m$ free variables.
- AA^T is invertible
- Therefore $\left[A^T (AA^T)^{-1} \right]$ is a “right inverse” because $A \left[A^T (AA^T)^{-1} \right] = I$
- If we multiply $\left[A^T (AA^T)^{-1} \right]$ on the left we get $\left[A^T (AA^T)^{-1} \right] A$, which is a projection onto the row space.

PSEUDOINVERSES

- A is neither full row nor full column rank.
- A has dependent columns and dependent rows
- $r < n$ and $r < m$
- Nonetheless, there is a one-to-one and onto relationship between a row vector x and a column vector Ax , ignoring the left and right null spaces of the matrix.

To Calculate A Pseudoinverse:

- Because every matrix has a singular value decomposition, the pseudoinverse is calculated from the SVD.
- Let $A = U\Sigma V^T$ in which U and V^T are orthogonal square invertible matrices, and Σ is

an $m \times n$ matrix of singular values: $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$

- The pseudoinverse, A^+ , can then be found through the inverse of $A = U\Sigma V^T$, $A^+ = V\Sigma^+ U^T$.
- Because U and V^T are invertible, there is no need to find their pseudoinverse. Because Σ is a purely diagonal matrix, it's inverse is easy to calculate:

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sigma_r} & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Note that $\Sigma\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^+\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq I$

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation whose transformation matrix T is A .

THE FOLLOWING ARE ALL EQUIVALENT STATEMENTS:

- A is invertible.
- $Ax = b$ has a unique solution for every b in \mathbb{R}^n .
- $Ax = 0$ has only the trivial solution.
- The reduced row echelon form of A is I .
- A is a product of elementary matrices.
- $\text{rank}(A) = n$.
- $\text{nullity}(A) = 0$.
- The column vectors of A are linearly independent.
- The column vectors of A span \mathbb{R}^n .
- The column vectors of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- The row vectors of A are linearly independent.
- The row vectors of A span \mathbb{R}^n .
- The row vectors of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- $|A| \neq 0$
- 0 is not an eigenvalue of A .
- 0 is not a singular value of A .
- T is invertible.
- T is one-to-one and onto.
- $\ker(T) = \{0\}$
- $\text{range}(T) = W$