

Linear Transformations

4.1

Definition and Examples

In the study of vector spaces, the most important types of mappings are linear transformations.

Definition

A mapping L from a vector space V into a vector space W is said to be a **linear transformation** if

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{v}_1 + \beta \mathbf{v}_2) = \alpha L(\mathbf{v}_1) + \beta L(\mathbf{v}_2)$$
 (1)

for all $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V$ and for all scalars α and β .

Remark: L is a linear transformation if and only if L satisfies (2) and (3).

$$L(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = L(\mathbf{v}_1) + L(\mathbf{v}_2) \qquad (\alpha = \beta = 1)$$
(2)

and

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{v}) = \alpha L(\mathbf{v})$$
 ($\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_1, \beta = 0$) Uploaded By: Rawan Fares

In the case that the vector spaces V and W are the same, we will refer to a linear transformation $L: V \to V$ as a *linear operator* on V. Thus, a linear operator is a linear transformation that maps a vector space V into itself.

Linear Operators on \mathbb{R}^2

EXAMPLE 1 Let *L* be the operator defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = 3\mathbf{x}$$

for each $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Since

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = 3(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = \alpha(3\mathbf{x}) = \alpha L(\mathbf{x})$$

and

$$L(x + y) = 3(x + y) = 3x + 3y = L(x) + L(y)$$

EXAMPLE 3 Let *L* be the operator defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, -x_2)^T$$

for each $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . Since

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha x_1 + \beta y_1 \\ -(\alpha x_2 + \beta y_2) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \alpha \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ -y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \alpha L(\mathbf{x}) + \beta L(\mathbf{y})$$

it follows that *L* is a linear operator.

Linear Transformations from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m

EXAMPLE 5 The mapping $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^1$ defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 + x_2$$

is a linear transformation, since

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1) + (\alpha x_2 + \beta y_2)$$
$$= \alpha (x_1 + x_2) + \beta (y_1 + y_2)$$
$$= \alpha L(\mathbf{x}) + \beta L(\mathbf{y})$$

EXAMPLE 7 The mapping L from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^3 defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_2, x_1, x_1 + x_2)^T$$

is linear, since

$$L(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = (\alpha x_2, \alpha x_1, \alpha x_1 + \alpha x_2)^T = \alpha L(\mathbf{x})$$

and

$$L(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = (x_2 + y_2, x_1 + y_1, x_1 + y_1 + x_2 + y_2)^T$$

= $(x_2, x_1, x_1 + x_2)^T + (y_2, y_1, y_1 + y_2)^T$
= $L(\mathbf{x}) + L(\mathbf{y})$

In general, if A is any $m \times n$ matrix, we can define a linear transformation L_A from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m by

$$L_A(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$$

for each $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The transformation L_A is linear, since

$$L_A(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}) = A(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y})$$

$$= \alpha A \mathbf{x} + \beta A \mathbf{y}$$

$$= \alpha L_A(\mathbf{x}) + \beta L_A(\mathbf{y})$$

Thus, we can think of each $m \times n$ matrix A as defining a linear transformation from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m .

Linear Transformations from V to W

EXAMPLE 9 Let *L* be the mapping from C[a, b] to \mathbb{R}^1 defined by

$$L(f) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx$$

If f and g are any vectors in C[a, b], then

$$L(\alpha f + \beta g) = \int_{a}^{b} (\alpha f + \beta g)(x) dx$$
$$= \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \beta \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$
$$= \alpha L(f) + \beta L(g)$$

Therefore, L is a linear transformation.

EXAMPLE 10 Let D be the linear transformation mapping $C^1[a, b]$ into C[a, b] defined by

$$D(f) = f'$$
 (the derivative of f)

D is a linear transformation, since

$$D(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha f' + \beta g' = \alpha D(f) + \beta D(g)$$

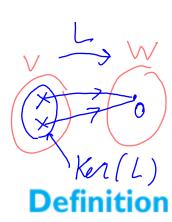
Remark:

If L is a linear transformation mapping a vector space V into a vector space W, then

- (i) $L(\mathbf{0}_V) = \mathbf{0}_W$ (where $\mathbf{0}_V$ and $\mathbf{0}_W$ are the zero vectors in V and W, respectively).
- (ii) if $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are elements of V and $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are scalars, then

$$L(\alpha_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n\mathbf{v}_n) = \alpha_1L(\mathbf{v}_1) + \alpha_2L(\mathbf{v}_2) + \dots + \alpha_nL(\mathbf{v}_n)$$

The Image and Kernel

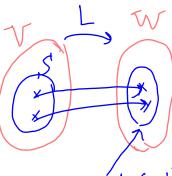


Let $L: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. We close this section by considering the effect that L has on subspaces of V. Of particular importance is the set of vectors in V that get mapped into the zero vector of W.

Let $L: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. The **kernel** of L, denoted $\ker(L)$, is defined by

$$\ker(L) = \{ \mathbf{v} \in V \mid L(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}_W \}$$

Definition



Let $L: V \to W$ be a linear transformation and let S be a subspace of V. The **image** of S, denoted L(S), is defined by

$$L(S) = \{ \mathbf{w} \in W \mid \mathbf{w} = L(\mathbf{v}) \text{ for some } \mathbf{v} \in S \}$$

The image of the entire vector space, L(V), is called the **range** of L.

Theorem 4.1.1 If $L: V \to W$ is a linear transformation and S is a subspace of V, then

- (i) ker(L) is a subspace of V.
- (ii) L(S) is a subspace of W.

Theorem:

Let $T:V\to W$ be a linear transformation where V,W are vector spaces.

Suppose the dimension of V is n. Then $n = \dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(\operatorname{im}(T))$.

EXAMPLE 11 Let L be the linear operator on \mathbb{R}^2 defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right]$$

A vector \mathbf{x} is in ker(L) if and only if $x_1 = 0$. Thus, ker(L) is the one-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by \mathbf{e}_2 . A vector \mathbf{y} is in the range of L if and only if \mathbf{y} is a multiple of \mathbf{e}_1 . Hence, $L(\mathbb{R}^2)$ is the one-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by \mathbf{e}_1 .

$$L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

(j) Ker L:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Kerl} \ \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ n_2 \end{array} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \iff \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \iff 3 = 0$$

:. Ker
$$L = \{ (2) : x_1 \in \mathbb{R} \} = \text{Span} \{ (2) \} = \text{Span} \{ e_2 \}$$

Let
$$\begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ \chi_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
, then $L \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ \chi_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\therefore Rang L = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \chi_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : \chi_1 \in IR^2 \right\} = Span \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = Span \left\{ \ell_1 \right\}$$

EXAMPLE 12 Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear transformation defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1 + x_2, x_2 + x_3)^T$$

and let *S* be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 spanned by \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_3 . If $\mathbf{x} \in \ker(L)$, then

$$x_1 + x_2 = 0$$
 and $x_2 + x_3 = 0$

Setting the free variable $x_3 = a$, we get

$$x_2 = -a, x_1 = a$$

and hence $\ker(L)$ is the one-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 consisting of all vectors of the form $a(1,-1,1)^T$.

If $\mathbf{x} \in S$, then \mathbf{x} must be of the form $(a, 0, b)^T$, and hence $L(\mathbf{x}) = (a, b)^T$. Clearly, $L(S) = \mathbb{R}^2$. Since the image of the subspace S is all of \mathbb{R}^2 , it follows that the entire range of L must be \mathbb{R}^2 [i.e., $L(\mathbb{R}^3) = \mathbb{R}^2$].

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$$\begin{array}{c}
1: \mathbb{R}^{3} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2} \\
0 & \text{Ker } L: \\
\begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{3} \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Ker } L \Longrightarrow L\begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \iff \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} + x_{2} \\ x_{2} + x_{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
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\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} + x_{2} \\ x_{3} \\ x_{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} + x_{2} \\ x_{3} \\ x_{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix}$$

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$$L(S) = \{\binom{a}{b} : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\} = \mathbb{R}^{2}$$

$$(ii) Rang L = L(\mathbb{R}^{3}) :$$

$$S' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{3} \Rightarrow L(S) \subseteq L(\mathbb{R}^{3})$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2} = L(S) \subseteq L(\mathbb{R}^{3}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow L(S') = L(\mathbb{R}^{3}) = \mathbb{R}^{2}.$$

SECTION 4.1 EXERCISES

4. Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be a linear operator. If

$$L((1,2)^T) = (-2,3)^T$$

and

$$L((1,-1)^T) = (5,2)^T$$

find the value of $L((7,5)^T)$.

- **6.** Determine whether the following are linear transformations from \mathbb{R}^2 into \mathbb{R}^3 .
- $L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_2, 1)^T$
 - **(b)** $L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_2, x_1 + 2x_2)^T$
- **9.** Determine whether the following are linear transformations from P_2 to P_3 .
 - (a) L(p(x)) = xp(x)
- **(b)** $L(p(x)) = x^2 + p(x)$

 $\begin{pmatrix} f \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = C_1 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + C_2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ for Some (, and C_2 . Sina \(\begin{pmatrix} (\frac{1}{2}) & (\frac{1}{2}) \\ \delta & (\frac{1}{2}) \\ \delta & (\frac{1}{2}) \\ \delta & (\frac{1}{2}) \\ \delta & \delta \alpha L(3) = c, L(i) + c, L(-i) since L is a linear transform. $= C_1 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + C_2 \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ One can show that c, = 4 and C2 = 3 (Haw?) Then $L(\frac{7}{5}) = \begin{pmatrix} -8 + 15 \\ 12 + 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7\\ 18 \end{pmatrix}$ (6) (a) L is not a linear transformation since $L\left(\begin{smallmatrix}0\\0\end{smallmatrix}\right) = \left(\begin{smallmatrix}0\\0\end{smallmatrix}\right) \neq \left(\begin{smallmatrix}0\\0\end{smallmatrix}\right)$

(7) (b) L is not a linear transformation
$$L(0) = \pi^{2} \neq 0$$
(c) $L(c \rho(x)) = c \rho(x) + \pi (c \rho(x)) + \pi^{2} (c \rho(\pi))'$

$$= c \left(\rho(x) + \pi \rho(x) + \pi^{2} \rho(x)\right)$$

$$= c L(\rho(x))$$
(i) $L(\rho(x) + \rho(x)) = (\rho(x) + \rho(x)) + \pi (\rho(x) + \rho(x)) + \pi^{2} (\rho(x) + \rho(x))'$

$$= (\rho(x) + \pi \rho(x)) + \pi^{2} \rho(x) + \pi^{2} \rho(x) + \pi^{2} \rho(x)$$

$$= L(\rho(x)) + L(\rho(x)).$$
Hence, L is a linear transformation

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- **14.** Let *L* be a linear operator on \mathbb{R}^1 and let a = L(1). Show that L(x) = ax for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$.
 - 17. Determine the kernel and range of each of the following linear operators on \mathbb{R}^3 :

(a)
$$L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_3, x_2, x_1)^T$$
 (b) $L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_2, 0)^T$

- $L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_1, x_1)^T$
- 21. A linear transformation $L: V \to W$ is said to be one-to-one if $L(\mathbf{v}_1) = L(\mathbf{v}_2)$ implies that $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{v}_2$ (i.e., no two distinct vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ in V get mapped into the same vector $\mathbf{w} \in W$). Show that L is one-to-one if and only if $\ker(L) = \{\mathbf{0}_V\}$.
- 22. A linear transformation $L: V \to W$ is said to map V onto W if L(V) = W. Show that the linear transformation L defined by

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, x_1 + x_2, x_1 + x_2 + x_3)^T$$

maps \mathbb{R}^3 onto \mathbb{R}^3 .

23. Which of the operators defined in Exercise 17 are STUDENG-SO-PORE 20 Which map \mathbb{R}^3 onto \mathbb{R}^3 ?

 $(14) \qquad L: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

L(1) = a

 $L(\pi) = L(\pi(1)) = \pi L(1) = \pi \alpha \quad \forall \pi \in \mathbb{R}$

 $(17) (a) L: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$

(i) Ker L:

 $(x_1, x_2, x_3)^T \in Kerl \iff L(x_1, x_2, x_3)^T = (0, 0, 0)^T \iff (x_3, x_2, x_4)^T = (0, 0, 0)^T$ $\iff x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$

: Kerl = {(0,0,0)^T3

!. L is me to me

Let (M, X, X3) ER, then

$$L(\chi_1,\chi_2,\chi_3)^T = (\chi_3,\chi_2,\chi_1)^T = \chi_1(0,0,1)^T + \chi_2(0,1,0)^T + \chi_3(1,0,0)^T$$

:. L(R3) = span { e, e2, e33 = 1R3

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W Ker L:

$$(\chi_1,\chi_2,\chi_3)^T \in \text{Kerl} \Longrightarrow L(\chi_1,\chi_2,\chi_3)^T = (0,0,0)^T \Longrightarrow (\chi_1,\chi_1,\chi_1)^T = (0,0,0)^T \Longrightarrow \chi_1 = 0$$

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(b) Range L:

Let (1, , x2, x3) = R3 Then

 $L(x_1, x_2, x_3)^T = (x_1, x_1, x_1)^T = x_1(1, 1, 1)^T$

:. $L(R^3) = Span \{ (1,1,1)^T \}$

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