

Ch.5 - Linear maps & their matrix representations

(1)

§1. Linear maps (or linear transformations)

Def. Let V & W be vector spaces. A linear map (or linear transformation) is any function $L: V \rightarrow W$ such that (a) $(\forall x, y \in V) \{L(x+y) = L(x) + L(y)\}$ & (b) $(\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R})(\forall x \in V) \{L(\alpha x) = \alpha L(x)\}$.

Ex.1 Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by $L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_3 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } L\left\{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}\right\} &= L\begin{pmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \\ x_3 + y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (x_1 + y_1) + 2(x_3 + y_3) \\ 3(x_2 + y_2) - (x_3 + y_3) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_3 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_1 + 2y_3 \\ 3y_2 - y_3 \end{pmatrix} = L\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + L\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\& L\left\{\alpha \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}\right\} = L\begin{pmatrix} \alpha x_1 \\ \alpha x_2 \\ \alpha x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha x_1 + 2\alpha x_3 \\ 3\alpha x_2 - \alpha x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_3 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha L\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

So L is a linear map.

Ex.2 Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by $L\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^3 \\ x_1 x_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\text{Then } L\left\{\alpha \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}\right\} = L\begin{pmatrix} \alpha x_1 \\ \alpha x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (\alpha x_1)^3 \\ (\alpha x_1)(\alpha x_2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^3 x_1^3 \\ \alpha^2 x_1 x_2 \end{pmatrix} \neq \alpha L\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

if we take $\alpha = 2$. So L is not a linear map.

Prop. 1 If $L: V \rightarrow W$ is a linear map, then

(a) $L(\underline{0}_V) = \underline{0}_W$

(b) $L(-\underline{x}) = -L(\underline{x})$

(c) $L(\alpha \underline{x} + \beta \underline{y}) = \alpha L(\underline{x}) + \beta L(\underline{y})$

Proof: (a) $L(\underline{0}_V) = L(0 \cdot \underline{0}_V) = 0 \cdot L(\underline{0}_V) = \underline{0}_W$

(b) $L(-\underline{x}) = L((-1) \cdot \underline{x}) = (-1) \cdot L(\underline{x}) = -L(\underline{x})$.

(c) $L(\alpha \underline{x} + \beta \underline{y}) = L(\alpha \underline{x}) + L(\beta \underline{y}) = \alpha L(\underline{x}) + \beta L(\underline{y})$.

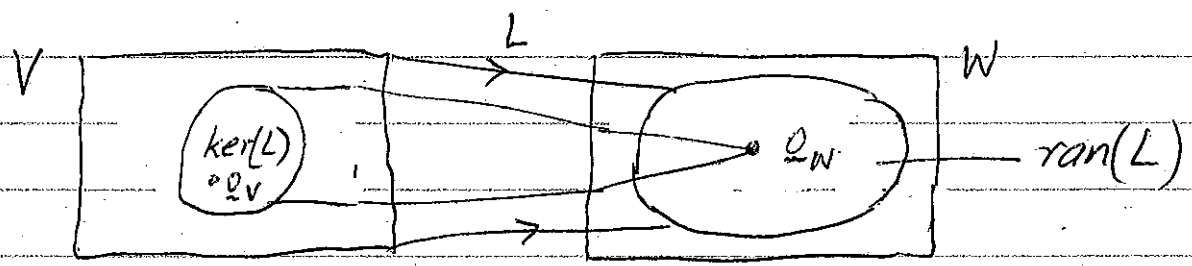
Def. Let $L: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map. We define the kernel of L by $\ker(L) = \{ \underline{x} \in V : L(\underline{x}) = \underline{0}_W \}$.

Also let S be a subspace of V . We define the image of S under L by $L[S] = \{ L(\underline{x}) : \underline{x} \in S \}$.

If $S = V$, we call $L[V]$ the range of L and denote it by $\text{ran}(L)$.

Finally let R be a subspace of W . We define the pre-image of R under L by $L^{-1}[R] = \{ \underline{x} \in V : L(\underline{x}) \in R \}$.

Note that $\ker(L) = \{ \underline{x} \in V : L(\underline{x}) = \underline{0}_W \} = L^{-1}[\underline{0}_W]$.



Ex.3 Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by $L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_3 \\ x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix}$. Then L is a linear map.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a) } \ker(L) &= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_3 \\ x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : x_1 = -x_3 \ \& \ x_2 = x_3 \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -\alpha \\ \alpha \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \left\{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Ex. 3 (b) $\text{ran}(L) = \left\{ L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \in V \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_2 \\ x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix} : x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ (3)

$$= \left\{ x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + x_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : x_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$$= \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \mathbb{R}^2.$$

(c) Let $S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$. Then $S' = \left\{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$.

$$L[S] = \left\{ L \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \alpha \\ 0 - \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \left\{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

(d) Let $R = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 3\alpha \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$. Then $R = \left\{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ is subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 . Also

$$L^{-1}[R] = \left\{ \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : L(\underline{x}) \in R \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : \begin{matrix} x_1 + x_2 = 3\alpha \\ x_2 - x_3 = \alpha \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} : x_1 = 3\alpha - x_2 \text{ \& } x_3 = x_2 - \alpha \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 3\alpha - \beta \\ \beta \\ \beta - \alpha \end{pmatrix} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \left\{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

Proposition 2. Let $L: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map, S' be a subspace of V , and R be a subspace of W . Then

(a) $\ker(L)$ & $L^{-1}[R]$ are subspaces of V .

(b) $\text{ran}(L)$ & $L[S]$ are subspaces of W .

Proof: (a) Since $\ker(L) = L^{-1}[\{0_W\}]$, it will suffice to prove the result only for $L^{-1}[R]$. Now $L(0_V) = 0_W \in R$ because R is a subspace of W . So $0_V \in L^{-1}[R]$. Hence $L^{-1}[R] \neq \emptyset$. Suppose $x_1, x_2 \in L^{-1}[R]$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $L(x_1) \in R$ & $L(x_2) \in R$. So

$L(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2) = L(\underline{x}_1) + L(\underline{x}_2) \in R$ bec. R is a subspace ⁽⁴⁾
 & $L(\alpha \underline{x}_1) = \alpha L(\underline{x}_1) \in R$ because R is a subspace.
 Hence $\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2 \in L^{-1}[R]$ and $\alpha \underline{x}_1 \in L^{-1}[R]$. Thus
 $L^{-1}[R]$ is a subspace of V

(b) Since $\text{ran}(L) = L[V]$, it will suffice to prove the
 result only for $L[S]$. Now for any subspace
 S of V , $\underline{0}_V \in S$ & $L(\underline{0}_V) = \underline{0}_W$. So $\underline{0}_W \in L[S]$.
 Hence $L[S] \neq \emptyset$. Also if $\underline{y}_1, \underline{y}_2 \in L[S]$ & $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,
 then we can find $\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2 \in S$ such that $\underline{y}_1 = L(\underline{x}_1)$
 & $\underline{y}_2 = L(\underline{x}_2)$. So
 $\underline{y}_1 + \underline{y}_2 = L(\underline{x}_1) + L(\underline{x}_2) = L(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2) \in L[S]$ and
 $\alpha \underline{y}_1 = \alpha L(\underline{x}_1) = L(\alpha \underline{x}_1) \in L[S]$ because
 $\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2 \in S$ & $\alpha \underline{x}_1 \in S$, since S is a subspace of V .
 $\therefore L[S]$ is a subspace of W .

Prop. 3 Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Define
 $L_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ by $L_A(\underline{x}) = A\underline{x}$. Then L_A is a linear map.

Proof: Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then
 $L_A(\underline{x} + \underline{y}) = A(\underline{x} + \underline{y}) = A\underline{x} + A\underline{y} = L_A(\underline{x}) + L_A(\underline{y})$
 & $L_A(\alpha \underline{x}) = A(\alpha \underline{x}) = \alpha(A\underline{x}) = \alpha L_A(\underline{x})$. Hence
 L_A is a linear map.

Ex. 4 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $L_A \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + x_3 \\ x_2 - 3x_3 \end{bmatrix}$. We can check directly that
 $L_A: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is a linear map or
 we can just appeal to Proposition 3.

(5)
Recall that a straight line in 2 or 3 dimensions can be specified by a fixed vector on the line & by a vector giving the direction of the line.

$$\Lambda = \{ \underline{a} + \alpha \underline{b} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

Recall also that a plane in 3 dimensions can be specified by a fixed vector in the plane & two independent vectors giving the parallel plane through the origin. $\Pi = \{ \underline{a} + \alpha \underline{b} + \beta \underline{c} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \}$

Fact 5: If $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a linear map, and Λ & Π are a line & a plane, then $L[\Lambda]$ & $L[\Pi]$ are also a line & a plane (or degenerate ones)

Proof: $L[\Lambda] = \{ L(\underline{a} + \alpha \underline{b}) : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \} = \{ L(\underline{a}) + L(\alpha \underline{b}) : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$
 $= \{ L(\underline{a}) + \alpha L(\underline{b}) : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \} =$ a straight line.

$L[\Pi] = \{ L(\underline{a} + \alpha \underline{b} + \beta \underline{c}) : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \} = \{ L(\underline{a}) + L(\alpha \underline{b}) + L(\beta \underline{c}) : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \}$
 $= \{ L(\underline{a}) + \alpha L(\underline{b}) + \beta L(\underline{c}) : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \} =$ a plane.

If $L(\underline{b}) = \underline{0}$, then $L[\Lambda] =$ a point = a degenerate line.

If $L(\underline{b})$ or $L(\underline{c}) = \underline{0}$, then $L[\Pi] =$ a line = a degenerate plane.

If $L(\underline{b})$ & $L(\underline{c}) = \underline{0}$, then $L[\Pi] =$ a point = a degenerate plane.

Def. Let $\underline{u}, \underline{v}$ & \underline{w} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 . The parallelogram determined by \underline{u} & \underline{v} is defined by $P(\underline{u}, \underline{v}) = \{ \alpha \underline{u} + \beta \underline{v} : 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \text{ \& } 0 \leq \beta \leq 1 \}$. The parallelepiped determined by $\underline{u}, \underline{v}$ & \underline{w} is defined by $S(\underline{u}, \underline{v}, \underline{w}) = \{ \alpha \underline{u} + \beta \underline{v} + \gamma \underline{w} : 0 \leq \alpha, \beta, \gamma \leq 1 \}$.

Fact 6: If $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a linear map and P & S are as above, then $L[P]$ & $L[S]$ are also parallelogram & parallelepiped.

§2. The matrix representation of a lin. map w.r.t. the standard base.

Ex 1 Consider the linear map $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ which is defined by $L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_3 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix}$. Is there a 2×3 matrix A such that $Lx = Ax$?

Sol. Yes. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$ and suppose

$Lx = Ax$. Then $x_1 + 0x_2 + 2x_3 = a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3$
 $0x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 = a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3$

So if we take $a_{11} = 1, a_{12} = 0, a_{13} = 2$ and $a_{21} = 0, a_{22} = 3, a_{23} = -1$,

then $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ & $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_3 \\ 3x_2 - x_3 \end{pmatrix}$.

Theorem 7 (Matrix Representation Theorem w.r.t. standard bases)
Let $L: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map. Then $L(x) = Ax$ where A is the $m \times n$ matrix $[L(e_1) \ L(e_2) \ \dots \ L(e_n)]$, i.e., $L(e_j)$ = the j -th column of A . Denote A by $\begin{pmatrix} L \\ E_m \ E_n \end{pmatrix}$.

Proof: Recall that $e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots$ & $e_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

So $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \dots + x_n \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \dots + x_n e_n$

$\therefore L(x) = L(x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \dots + x_n e_n)$
 $= x_1 L(e_1) + x_2 L(e_2) + \dots + x_n L(e_n)$
 $= [L(e_1) \ L(e_2) \ \dots \ L(e_n)] \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = Ax$.

Recall that ${}_{E_m}(L)_{E_n}$ denotes the matrix rep. of $L: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ w.r.t E_n & E_m (7)

Theorem 8: Let $L_1: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ & $L_2: \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be linear maps. Then (a) $L_1 \circ L_2: \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear map &

(b) ${}_{E_m}(L_1 \circ L_2)_{E_p} = {}_{E_m}(L_1)_{E_n} {}_{E_n}(L_2)_{E_p}$

Proof (a) Do for H.W.

(b) Let $A = [a_{ij}] = {}_{E_m}(L_1 \circ L_2)_{E_p}$, $B = [b_{ij}] = {}_{E_m}(L_1)_{E_n}$ and $C = [c_{ij}] = {}_{E_n}(L_2)_{E_p}$. Then for any $j = 1, \dots, p$

column j of $A = (L_1 \circ L_2)(\underline{e}_j) = L_1(L_2(\underline{e}_j))$

$= L_1(c_{1j}\underline{e}_1 + c_{2j}\underline{e}_2 + \dots + c_{nj}\underline{e}_n)$

$= c_{1j}L_1(\underline{e}_1) + c_{2j}L_1(\underline{e}_2) + \dots + c_{nj}L_1(\underline{e}_n)$

$= c_{1j}(b_{11}\underline{e}_1 + b_{21}\underline{e}_2 + \dots + b_{m1}\underline{e}_m)$

$+ c_{2j}(b_{12}\underline{e}_1 + b_{22}\underline{e}_2 + \dots + b_{m2}\underline{e}_m)$

\vdots

$+ c_{nj}(b_{1n}\underline{e}_1 + b_{2n}\underline{e}_2 + \dots + b_{mn}\underline{e}_m)$

$= (b_{11}c_{1j} + b_{12}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{1n}c_{nj})\underline{e}_1$

$+ (b_{21}c_{1j} + b_{22}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{2n}c_{nj})\underline{e}_2$

\vdots

$+ (b_{m1}c_{1j} + b_{m2}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{mn}c_{nj})\underline{e}_m$

$= \begin{bmatrix} (\text{row 1 of } B), (\text{column } j \text{ of } C) \\ (\text{row 2 of } B), (\text{column } j \text{ of } C) \\ \vdots \\ (\text{row } m \text{ of } B), (\text{column } j \text{ of } C) \end{bmatrix} = \text{column } j \text{ of } (BC)$

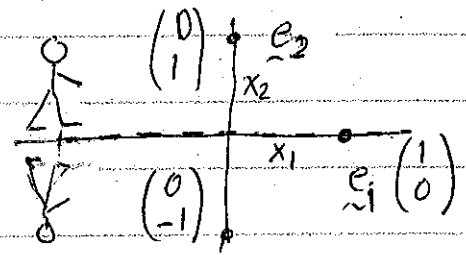
\therefore column j of $A =$ column j of (BC) for $j = 1, \dots, p$.

$\therefore A = BC$. Hence ${}_{E_m}(L_1 \circ L_2)_{E_p} = {}_{E_m}(L_1)_{E_n} {}_{E_n}(L_2)_{E_p}$.

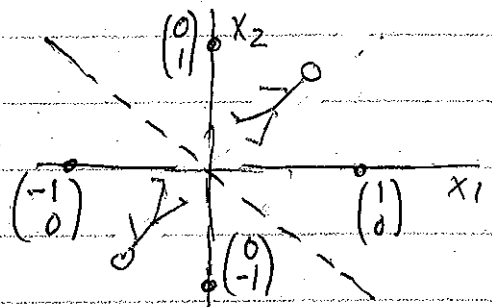
Exz Find the matrix representation w.r.t. the standard basis of the following linear maps from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^2 .

- (a) reflection in the x_1 -axis, i.e., about the polar line $\theta=0$
- (b) reflection in the line $x_1 + x_2 = 0$, i.e., about line $\theta = \frac{3\pi}{4}$
- (c) rotation through $\pi/2$ radians about the origin
- (d) rotation through θ radians about the origin
- (e) reflection in the line through the origin that makes an angle of θ radians with the x_1 -axis.

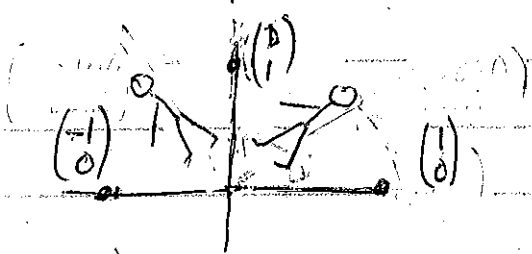
(a) $\text{Ref}(0) = [L_a(\underline{e}_1) \ L_a(\underline{e}_2)]$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$



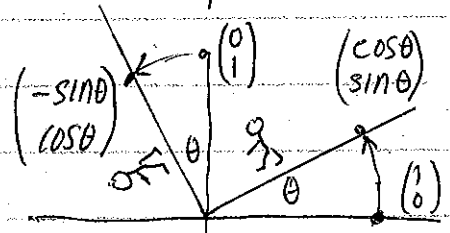
(b) $\text{Ref}(\frac{3\pi}{4}) = [L_b(\underline{e}_1) \ L_b(\underline{e}_2)]$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



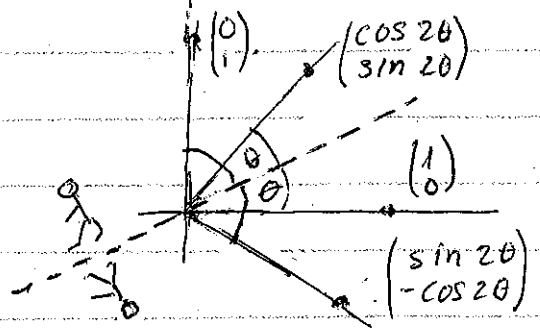
(c) $\text{Rot}(\frac{\pi}{2}) = [L_c(\underline{e}_1) \ L_c(\underline{e}_2)]$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



(d) $\text{Rot}(\theta) = [L_d(\underline{e}_1) \ L_d(\underline{e}_2)]$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$



(e) $\text{Ref}(\theta) = [L_e(\underline{e}_1) \ L_e(\underline{e}_2)]$
 $= \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\theta) & \sin(2\theta) \\ \sin(2\theta) & -\cos(2\theta) \end{bmatrix}$



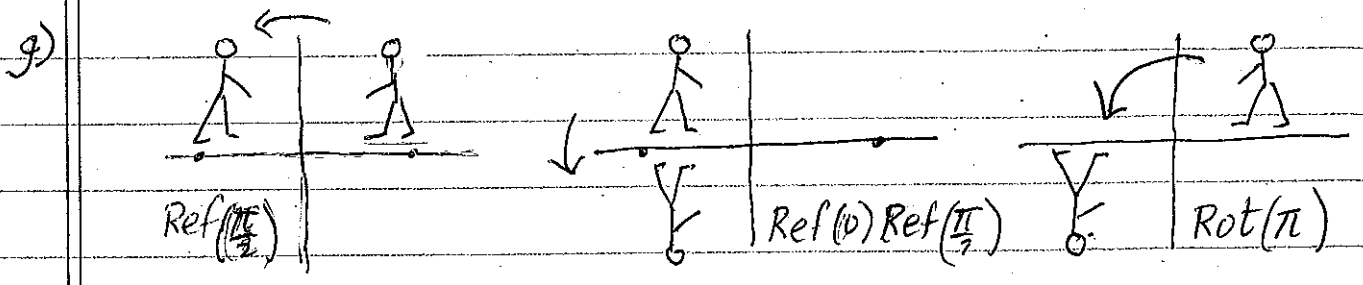
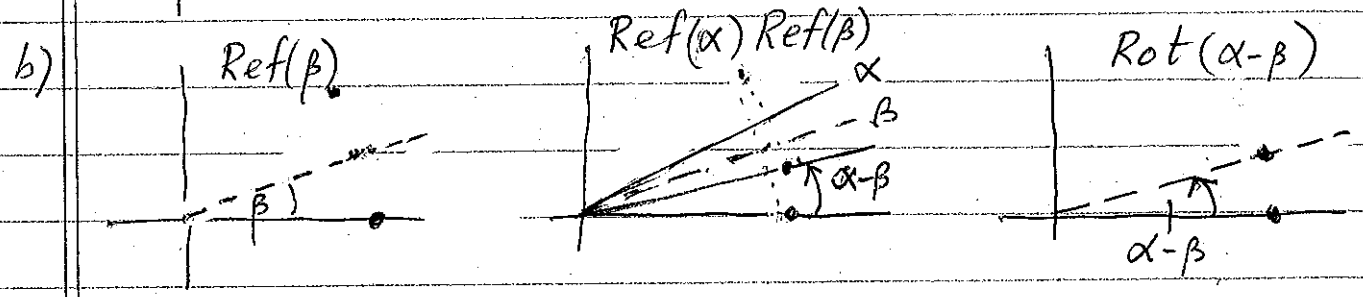
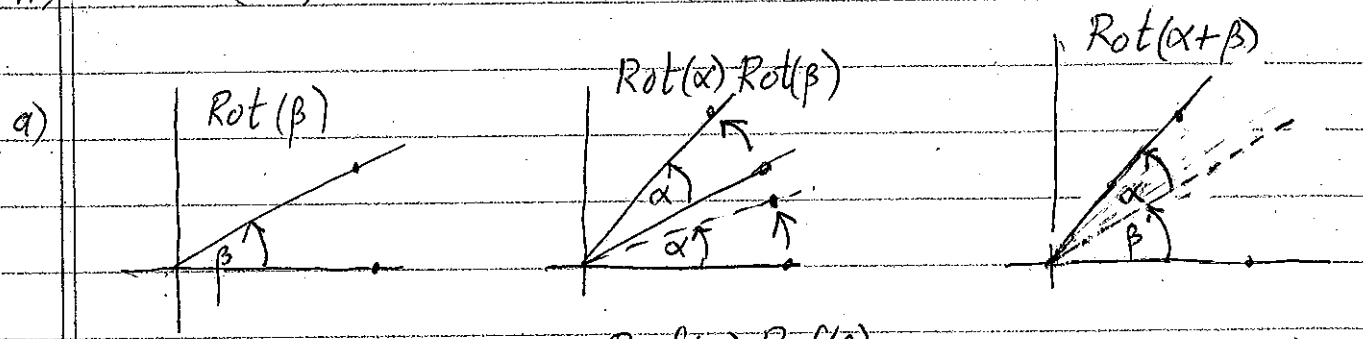
Observe that all five of these matrices are orthogonal and that the determinant of any reflection is -1 , while the determinant of any rotation is 1 . Recall that a matrix A is orthogonal if $A^T A = I$.

Notice also that by using matrix multiplication we have

- a) $Rot(\alpha) Rot(\beta) = Rot(\alpha + \beta)$
- b) $Ref(\alpha) Ref(\beta) = Rot(2(\alpha - \beta))$
- c) $Rot(\alpha) Ref(\beta) = Ref(\alpha/2 + \beta)$
- d) $Ref(\alpha) Rot(\beta) = Ref(\alpha - (\beta/2))$

It will therefore come as no surprise that

- e) $Ref(\alpha) Ref(\alpha) = I = Rot(0)$
- f) $Rot(\alpha) Rot(-\alpha) = I = Rot(0)$
- g) $Ref(0) Ref(\pi/2) = Rot(-\pi) = Rot(\pi)$
- h) $Ref(\pi/2) Ref(0) = Rot(\pi)$



§3. Matrix Rep. w.r.t arbitrary bases & change of bases.

Def. Let V be a vector space and $B = \langle \underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \dots, \underline{v}_k \rangle$ be an ordered basis of V . If $\underline{u} \in V$, then \underline{u} can be uniquely written as

$$\underline{u} = c_1 \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k \quad \text{with } c_i \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The terms of $\langle c_1, \dots, c_k \rangle$ are called the coordinates of \underline{u} w.r.t. the ordered basis B and we use the notation $[\underline{u}]_B$ to denote the column vector $\begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_k \end{pmatrix}$.

Ex.1 Let $B = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$. Then B is an ordered basis of \mathbb{R}^2 . The vector $\underline{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ can be uniquely written as $\underline{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 5 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. So the seq. of coordinates of \underline{u} w.r.t. the ordered basis B is $\langle 5, 2 \rangle$ and we write $[\underline{u}]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

The seq. of coordinates of \underline{u} w.r.t. the standard basis $E_2 = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$ of \mathbb{R}^2 are, of course, $\langle 7, 3 \rangle$ because $\underline{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 7 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. So $[\underline{u}]_{E_n} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

Theorem 9 (Matrix Rep. Theorem w.r.t. arb. bases)

Let $B = \langle \underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n \rangle$ & $D = \langle \underline{w}_1, \dots, \underline{w}_m \rangle$ be ordered bases of the vector spaces V & W , respectively. Then for each linear transformation $L: V \rightarrow W$,

$$\text{where } [L(\underline{x})]_D = {}_D(L)_B \cdot [\underline{x}]_B,$$
$${}_D(L)_B = \left[[L(\underline{v}_1)]_D, [L(\underline{v}_2)]_D, \dots, [L(\underline{v}_n)]_D \right]$$

Note that ${}_D(L)_B$ will be an $m \times n$ matrix. The proof is very similar to that of Theorem 7.

Theorem 10: Let $L_1: V \rightarrow W$ & $L_2: U \rightarrow V$ be linear maps & $F = \{ \underline{u}_1, \dots, \underline{u}_p \}$, $G = \{ \underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n \}$ & $H = \{ \underline{w}_1, \dots, \underline{w}_m \}$ be ordered bases of U, V & W . Then

$${}_H(L_1 \circ L_2)_F = {}_H(L_1)_G \cdot G(L_2)_F$$

Proof: Let ${}_H(L_1 \circ L_2)_F = A = [a_{ij}]$, ${}_H(L_1)_G = B = [b_{ij}]$ and $G(L_2)_F = C = [c_{ij}]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (L_1 \circ L_2)(\underline{u}_j) &= L_1(L_2(\underline{u}_j)) \\ &= L_1(c_{1j}\underline{v}_1 + c_{2j}\underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_{nj}\underline{v}_n) \quad \text{by def. of } C \\ &= c_{1j}L_1(\underline{v}_1) + c_{2j}L_1(\underline{v}_2) + \dots + c_{nj}L_1(\underline{v}_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= c_{1j}(b_{11}\underline{w}_1 + b_{21}\underline{w}_2 + \dots + b_{m1}\underline{w}_m) \quad \text{by def. of } B \\ &\quad + c_{2j}(b_{12}\underline{w}_1 + b_{22}\underline{w}_2 + \dots + b_{m2}\underline{w}_m) \quad \text{"} \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + c_{nj}(b_{1n}\underline{w}_1 + b_{2n}\underline{w}_2 + \dots + b_{mn}\underline{w}_m) \quad \text{by def. of } B \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (b_{11}c_{1j} + b_{12}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{1n}c_{nj})\underline{w}_1 \\ &\quad + (b_{21}c_{1j} + b_{22}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{2n}c_{nj})\underline{w}_2 \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + (b_{m1}c_{1j} + b_{m2}c_{2j} + \dots + b_{mn}c_{nj})\underline{w}_m \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \begin{matrix} (BC) [1,j] \underline{w}_1 \\ + (BC) [2,j] \underline{w}_2 \\ \vdots \\ + (BC) [m,j] \underline{w}_m \end{matrix} \quad \text{But } (L_1 \circ L_2)(\underline{u}_j) = \begin{matrix} A[1,j] \underline{w}_1 \\ + A[2,j] \underline{w}_2 \\ \vdots \\ + A[m,j] \underline{w}_m \end{matrix} \end{aligned}$$

by definition of A .

So column j of $BC =$ column j of A . Hence

$$A = BC. \quad \text{Thus } {}_H(L_1 \circ L_2)_F = {}_H(L_1)_G \cdot G(L_2)_F$$

Ex. 2 Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear map defined by

$$L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4x_1 - 2x_2 \\ x_1 + x_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle. \text{ Find}$$

(a) $E_2(L)_{E_2}$ and (b) $E_2(L)_B$ (c) $B(L)_B$

Sol. (a) $E_2(L)_{E_2} = [L \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, L \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}] = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

(b) $L \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 4(1) - 2(1) \\ 1 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$L \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 4(2) - 2(1) \\ 2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 6 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So $[L(v_1)]_{E_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ & $[L(v_2)]_{E_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \therefore E_2(L)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $L \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 0 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$L \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So $[L(v_1)]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ & $[L(v_2)]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \therefore B(L)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Ex. 3 Let $x = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (a) Find $[x]_B$ where $B = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$ and check that

(b) $[L(x)]_{E_2} = E_2(L)_B [x]_B$ & (c) $[L(x)]_B = B(L)_B [x]_B$.

Sol. (a) $x = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-4) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + (5) \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. So $[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$.

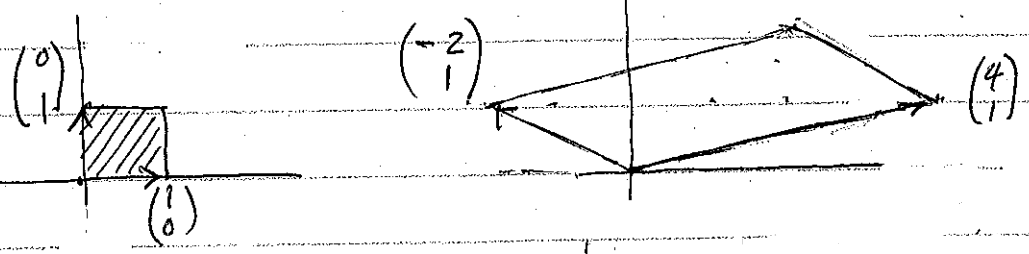
(b) $E_2(L)_B [x]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ and

$$[L(x)]_{E_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 4(6) - 2(1) \\ 6 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = E_2(L)_B [x]_B$$

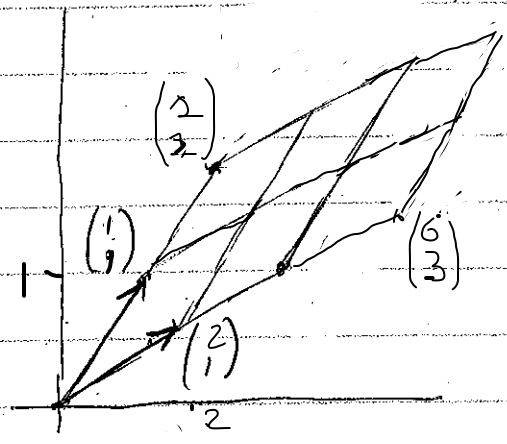
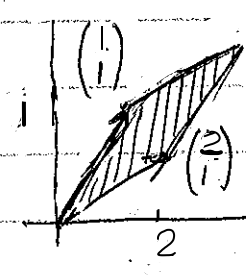
(c) $L(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 22 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} = (-8) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 15 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Also $B(L)_B [x]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -8 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}$.

So $[L(x)]_B = \begin{pmatrix} -8 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix} = B(L)_B [x]_B$.

Ex 4 L w.r.t. the basis E_2



L w.r.t. the basis B.



Change of Basis

Let V be a vector space and suppose that $B = \langle v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle$ and $D = \langle w_1, \dots, w_k \rangle$ are ordered bases of V . Given $[x]_B$, how can we find $[x]_D$?

Corollary 10 (Change of Basis Theorem)

Let B & D be ordered bases of the vector space V and $I: V \rightarrow V$ be the identity linear map (i.e., $I(x) = x$). Then $[x]_D = \{D(I)_B\} [x]_B$ & $[x]_B = \{D(I)_B\}^{-1} [x]_D$

Proof: This follows immediately from Theorem 9 because $[x]_D = [I(x)]_D = \{D(I)_B\} [x]_B$. Also $[x]_B = \{I_n\} [x]_B = \{B(I)_B\} [x]_B = \{B(I \circ I)_B\} [x]_B = \{B(I)_D\} \{D(I)_B\} [x]_B$. So $\{B(I)_D\} \{D(I)_B\} = I_n$, the $n \times n$ identity matrix. So $\{D(I)_B\}$ is invertible and $\{D(I)_B\}^{-1} = \{B(I)_D\}$.

Thus $[x]_B = \{B(I)_D\} [x]_D = \{D(I)_B\}^{-1} [x]_D$

Def. The transition matrix from the basis B to the basis D is defined to any $n \times n$ matrix S such that $[x]_D = (S)[x]_B$. So $S = {}_D(I)_B$.

Prop. 12 Let $B = \langle \underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n \rangle$ be any ordered bases of \mathbb{R}^n and $E_n = \langle \underline{e}_1, \dots, \underline{e}_n \rangle$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n . Then ${}_B(I)_{E_n}$ is the $n \times n$ matrix with $\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n$ as its columns, i.e., ${}_B(I)_{E_n} = [\underline{v}_1 \ \underline{v}_2 \ \dots \ \underline{v}_n]$

Proof: If $\underline{v}_j = a_{1j}\underline{e}_1 + a_{2j}\underline{e}_2 + \dots + a_{nj}\underline{e}_n$, then $[I(\underline{v}_j)]_{E_n} = [\underline{v}_j]_{E_n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nj} \end{bmatrix}$. So column j of ${}_B(I)_{E_n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nj} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\therefore {}_{E_n}(I)_B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = [\underline{v}_1 \ \underline{v}_2 \ \dots \ \underline{v}_n]$$

Ex. 5 Let $B = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle$. Then ${}_{E_2}(I)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -7 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{and } {}_B(I)_{E_2} = \left\{ {}_{E_2}(I)_B \right\}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -7 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(-6) - (-7)} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 7 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 7 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: A quick way to find $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$ is to use the formula $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$.

.. Ex.6 Let $B = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$ and $D = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$. Find

the following transition matrices.

(a) $E_2(I)_B$ & $D(I)_{E_2}$ and (b) $D(I)_B$ & $B(I)_D$

Sol. (a) $E_2(I)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Also $E_2(I)_D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

So $D(I)_{E_2} = \{E_2(I)_D\}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

(b) $D(I)_B = D(I)_{E_2} E_2(I)_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 12 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$

$B(I)_D = \{D(I)_B\}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 12 \\ -3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-35+36} \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -12 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -12 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

Recall that an $n \times n$ matrix A was similar to the $n \times n$ matrix B if we can an invertible matrix P such that $A = P^{-1}BP$.

Theorem 13: The matrix A is similar to $B \iff A$ & B represent the same linear map $L: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ w.r.t. to two ordered bases F & G .

Proof: (\Leftarrow) Suppose $A = {}_F(L)_G$ & $B = {}_F(L)_F$. Then

$A = {}_G(L)_G = {}_G(I)_F {}_F(L)_F {}_F(I)_G = \{G(I)_F\} B \{F(I)_G\}$.

If we put $P = {}_F(I)_G$, we get $A = P^{-1}BP$.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose A is similar to B . Then we can find an invertible matrix P such that $A = P^{-1}BP$. Let $L: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be defined by $L(x) = Bx$. Then $E_n(L)_{E_n} = B$. Let G be the basis consisting of the columns of P . Then $P = E_n(I)_G$. So ${}_G(L)_G = {}_G(I)_{E_n} E_n(L)_{E_n} E_n(I)_G = P^{-1}BP = A$.