MATH 304

Lecture 21: Properties of linear transformations.

Linear Algebra

Properties of linear transformations.

Range and kernel.

General linear equations.

Linear transformation

Definition. Given vector spaces V_1 and V_2 , a mapping $L: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ is **linear** if

$$\frac{L(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = L(\mathbf{x}) + L(\mathbf{y}),}{L(r\mathbf{x}) = rL(\mathbf{x})}$$

for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V_1$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$.

Basic properties of linear transformations

Let $L: V_1 \to V_2$ be a linear mapping.

- $L(r_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + r_k\mathbf{v}_k) = r_1L(\mathbf{v}_1) + \cdots + r_kL(\mathbf{v}_k)$ for all k > 1, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \in V_1$, and $r_1, \dots, r_k \in \mathbb{R}$.
- $L(r_1\mathbf{v}_1 + r_2\mathbf{v}_2) = L(r_1\mathbf{v}_1) + L(r_2\mathbf{v}_2) = r_1L(\mathbf{v}_1) + r_2L(\mathbf{v}_2),$ $L(r_1\mathbf{v}_1 + r_2\mathbf{v}_2 + r_3\mathbf{v}_3) = L(r_1\mathbf{v}_1 + r_2\mathbf{v}_2) + L(r_3\mathbf{v}_3) =$
 - = $r_1L(\mathbf{v}_1) + r_2L(\mathbf{v}_2) + r_3L(\mathbf{v}_3)$, and so on. • $L(\mathbf{0}_1) = \mathbf{0}_2$, where $\mathbf{0}_1$ and $\mathbf{0}_2$ are zero vectors in
 - V_1 and V_2 , respectively. $L(\mathbf{0}_1) = L(0\mathbf{0}_1) = 0L(\mathbf{0}_1) = \mathbf{0}_2$.
 - $L(-\mathbf{v}) = -L(\mathbf{v})$ for any $\mathbf{v} \in V_1$.

$$L(-\mathbf{v}) = L((-1)\mathbf{v}) = (-1)L(\mathbf{v}) = -L(\mathbf{v}).$$

Examples of linear mappings

- Scaling $L: V \to V$, $L(\mathbf{v}) = s\mathbf{v}$, where $s \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Dot product with a fixed vector

$$\ell: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}, \ \ell(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}_0, \ \text{where} \ \mathbf{v}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- Cross product with a fixed vector
- $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$, $L(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{v}_0$, where $\mathbf{v}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$.
- Multiplication by a fixed matrix

 $L: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, $L(\mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{v}$, where A is an $m \times n$ matrix and all vectors are column vectors.

- Coordinate mapping
- $L: V \to \mathbb{R}^n$, $L(\mathbf{v}) =$ coordinates of \mathbf{v} relative to an ordered basis $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ for the vector space V.

Linear mappings of functional vector spaces

- Evaluation at a fixed point
- $\ell: F(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}, \ \ell(f) = f(a), \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{R}.$
- Multiplication by a fixed function $L: F(\mathbb{R}) \to F(\mathbb{R}), \ L(f) = gf, \text{ where } g \in F(\mathbb{R}).$
 - Differentiation $D: C^1(\mathbb{R}) \to C(\mathbb{R}), L(f) = f'.$
 - Integration over a finite interval

$$\ell: C(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}, \ \ell(f) = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$
, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \ a < b$.

More properties of linear mappings

- If a linear mapping $L:V\to W$ is invertible then the inverse mapping $L^{-1}:W\to V$ is also linear.
- If $L: V \to W$ and $M: W \to X$ are linear mappings then the composition $M \circ L: V \to X$ is also linear.
- If $L_1: V \to W$ and $L_2: V \to W$ are linear mappings then the sum $L_1 + L_2$ is also linear.

Linear differential operators

• an ordinary differential operator

$$L: C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \to C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}), \quad L=g_0\frac{d^2}{dx^2}+g_1\frac{d}{dx}+g_2,$$

where g_0, g_1, g_2 are smooth functions on \mathbb{R} .

That is, $L(f) = g_0 f'' + g_1 f' + g_2 f$.

• Laplace's operator $\Delta: C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2) \to C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2)$,

$$\Delta f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

(a.k.a. the Laplacian; also denoted by ∇^2).

Examples. $\mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$: the space of $m \times n$ matrices.

•
$$\alpha: \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathcal{M}_{n,m}(\mathbb{R}), \quad \alpha(A) = A^T.$$

$$\alpha(A+B) = \alpha(A) + \alpha(B) \iff (A+B)^T = A^T + B^T.$$

 $\alpha(rA) = r \alpha(A) \iff (rA)^T = rA^T.$

Hence α is linear.

•
$$\beta: \mathcal{M}_{2,2}(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}, \ \beta(A) = \det A.$$

Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Then
$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

We have $\det(A) = \det(B) = 0$ while $\det(A + B) = 1$. Hence $\beta(A + B) \neq \beta(A) + \beta(B)$ so that β is not linear.

Range and kernel

Let V, W be vector spaces and $L: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear mapping.

Definition. The **range** (or **image**) of L is the set of all vectors $\mathbf{w} \in W$ such that $\mathbf{w} = L(\mathbf{v})$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in V$. The range of L is denoted L(V).

The **kernel** of L, denoted ker L, is the set of all vectors $\mathbf{v} \in V$ such that $L(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$.

Theorem (i) The range of L is a subspace of W. (ii) The kernel of L is a subspace of V.

Example. $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$, $L \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$.

The kernel ker(L) is the nullspace of the matrix.

$$L\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The range $L(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is the column space of the matrix.

Example. $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$, $L \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$.

The range of L is spanned by vectors (1,1,1), (0,2,0), and (-1,-1,-1). It follows that $L(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is the plane spanned by (1,1,1) and (0,1,0).

To find ker(L), we apply row reduction to the matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence $(x, y, z) \in \ker(L)$ if x - z = y = 0. It follows that $\ker(L)$ is the line spanned by (1, 0, 1).

Example. $L: C^3(\mathbb{R}) \to C(\mathbb{R}), L(u) = u''' - 2u'' + u'.$

According to the theory of differential equations, the initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} u'''(x) - 2u''(x) + u'(x) = g(x), & x \in \mathbb{R}, \\ u(a) = b_0, \\ u'(a) = b_1, \\ u''(a) = b_2 \end{cases}$$

has a unique solution for any $g \in C(\mathbb{R})$ and any $b_0, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that $L(C^3(\mathbb{R})) = C(\mathbb{R})$.

Also, the initial data evaluation I(u) = (u(a), u'(a), u''(a)), which is a linear mapping $I: C^3(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^3$, is one-to-one when restricted to $\ker(L)$. Hence dim $\ker(L) = 3$.

It is easy to check that $L(xe^x) = L(e^x) = L(1) = 0$. Besides, the functions xe^x , e^x , and 1 are linearly independent (use Wronskian). It follows that $\ker(L) = \operatorname{Span}(xe^x, e^x, 1)$.

General linear equations

Definition. A linear equation is an equation of the form

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

where $L: V \to W$ is a linear mapping, **b** is a given vector from W, and **x** is an unknown vector from V.

The range of L is the set of all vectors $\mathbf{b} \in W$ such that the equation $L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution.

The kernel of L is the solution set of the **homogeneous** linear equation $L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$.

Theorem If the linear equation $L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}$ is solvable and dim ker $L < \infty$, then the general solution is

$$\mathbf{x}_0 + t_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + t_k \mathbf{v}_k$$
,

where \mathbf{x}_0 is a particular solution, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ is a basis for the kernel of L, and t_1, \dots, t_k are arbitrary scalars.