Linear Transformations

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Let V and W be vector spaces and $L: V \to W$. We say L is a *linear* transformation if

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2. $L(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = L(\mathbf{v}_1) + L(\mathbf{v}_2)$ for every $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V$.

Examples: the simplest example is the *zero transformation*:

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It is common for authors to omit the parentheses when the transformation is linear. That is, writing $L\mathbf{v}$ instead of $L(\mathbf{v})$. However, parentheses must be used when necessary to avoid confusion: $L(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = L\mathbf{v}_1 + L\mathbf{v}_2$ and $L(\alpha \mathbf{v}) = \alpha L\mathbf{v}$.

Define $P_1: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ and $P_2: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ by

$$P_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \text{ and } P_2 \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ x_2 \end{array} \right)$$

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Multiplying from the left by an $m \times n$ matrix is a linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ to $\mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$: If C is $m \times n$ while A and B are $n \times k$ then $C(\alpha A) = \alpha CA$ and C(A + B) = CA + CB.

Properties of linear transformations

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- 2. $L(-\mathbf{v}) = -L(\mathbf{v})$, where \mathbf{v} is any vector in V,
- 3. if $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are vectors in V then

$$L(c_1\mathbf{v}_1+c_2\mathbf{v}_2+\cdots+c_n\mathbf{v}_n)=c_1L\mathbf{v}_1+c_2L\mathbf{v}_2+\cdots+c_nL\mathbf{v}_n.$$

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The third property above comes from applying the two conditions in the definition repeatedly:

$$L(c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots) = L(c_1\mathbf{v}_1) + L(c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots) = c_1L(\mathbf{v}_1) + L(c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots)$$

Two subspaces associated with a linear transformation

Definition

Let $L: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. The *kernel* or *null space* of L (denoted ker(L) or $\mathcal{N}(L)$) is the set

$$\ker(L) = \mathcal{N}(L) = \{ \mathbf{v} \in V : L(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}_W \}.$$

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

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

The image of V, namely L(V), is called the *range of* L, sometimes denoted $\mathcal{R}(L)$.

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Similarly, $\mathbf{w} = L(\mathbf{v})$ in L(S) and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ imply that $\alpha \mathbf{w} = \alpha L(\mathbf{v}) = L(\alpha \mathbf{v})$ is in L(S).

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 $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_k$ are the columns of A and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \end{bmatrix}$ then

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There is nothing special about muliplying on the left, $A\mathbf{x}$. We could also regard \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^k as sets of row vectors. Then we can define a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$ by $T(\vec{\mathbf{x}}) = \vec{\mathbf{x}}A$. In this case, the range $T(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the row space of A.

Recall the linear transformation P_1 we defined earlier

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The rotation transformations R_{θ} satisfy $\ker(R_{\theta}) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ and $R_{\theta}(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathbb{R}^2$.

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Another example $T : \mathcal{P}_3 \to \mathcal{P}_4$:

$$T(a + bx + cx^{2}) = ax + (b/2)x^{2} + (c/3)x^{3}$$

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$$T(a + bx + cx^{2}) = ax + (b/2)x^{2} + (c/3)x^{3}$$

(Check that this is a linear transformation.) Its kernel and range:

$$\ker(T) = \{0\}$$
 and $T(\mathcal{P}_3) = \{a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 \mid a = 0\}$