

LECTURE 11

1. Transformations: Who Needs Them?
2. Linear Transformations: Their Geometric and Algebraic Definition.
3. Onto and One-to-one Transformations
4. Null Space and Range Space: Their Importance
5. Example.

11.1

Linear Transformations

The complexity of mathematics is a reflection of the complexity of the relations that exist in the world.

One's quantitative grasp of the nature of the physical world is achieved by mathematical relations. Of these,

linear relations, also known as linear transformations, are the

easiest to understand, the best understood and the most ubiquitous in a person's mathematical arsenal of concepts.

A linear transformation expresses (= is) a relationship between vector spaces,

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and as such between R^m and R^n for finite-dimensional vector spaces.

The distinguishing feature of a linear transformation is that it relates closed triangles, more generally closed polygons, to closed triangles;

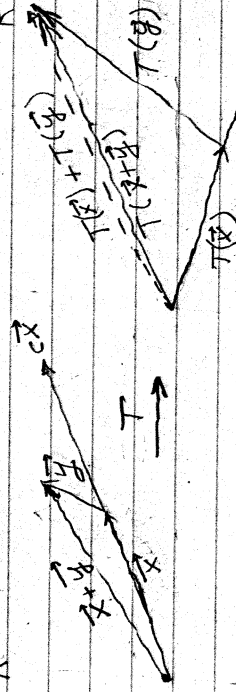


Figure 11.1:

The linear transformation of a linear combination (superposition) of vectors into a linear superposition of the transformed vectors.

This geometrical feature is expressed algebraically by means of the

following

Definition 11.1 (Linear transformation)

Let U and V be vector spaces.

Consider the map

$$T: U \rightarrow V$$
$$u \mapsto T(u)$$

Then T is a linear transformation whenever

$$T(c_1 u + c_2 w) = c_1 T(u) + c_2 T(w)$$

for all $u, w \in U$ and $c_1, c_2 \in \text{scalars}$.

Comment

(i) U is called the domain or the domain space of T .

(ii) V is called the target or the target space of T .

(iii) The set $\{v: v = T(u); u \in U\}$ is called the range or the range space of T .

Linear transformations come in two

(not necessarily mutually exclusive) flavors:

onto or surjective and one-to-one or

injective as defined by

Definition 11.2 a (onto map = surjective map)

T is said to be an onto map if

for any $v \in V$ there exists at least one $u \in U$ such that

$$T(u) = v; \quad (*)$$

in other words

(i) if \exists a solution to Eq. (*)

or

(ii) if Eq. (*) can be solved for u

or

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(iii) if the set $\{u: T(u) = v\} \neq \emptyset$ (not the empty set) $\forall v \in V$.

Comment:

(i) $T(u)$ is called the image of u (or 'under') the transformation T .

(ii) The set $\{u: T(u) = v\} \equiv T^{-1}(v)$ is called the preimage of v . Note that the preimage is a set!

The concept of one-to-oneness (or injectivity) is defined by

Definition 11.2.b (one-to-one map = injective map)

T is said to be one-to-one if

$$T(u_1) = T(u_2) \Rightarrow u_1 = u_2$$

in other words, if the solution to $T(u) = v$ is unique.

Solutions

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There are two sets of properties central to all of linear algebra. On one hand

there is the spanning property and the

linear independence of a given set of elements of a vector space. On the other

hand there is the onto and one-to-one

property of a given transformation.

These two pairs of properties are not mere

juxtapositions. On the contrary, they

are logically equivalent. The cause

of this equivalence are the concepts

of existence and uniqueness of

the equations:

spanning ppty?

existence: $c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_n v_n = \vec{v} \leftrightarrow T(\vec{u}) = \vec{v} \leftrightarrow T$ is onto

uniqueness: $c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_n v_n = \vec{0} \leftrightarrow T(\vec{u}) = \vec{0} \leftrightarrow T$ is one-to-one
lin. independence

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The criterion whether or not T is onto or/and one-to-one can be restated in terms of two fundamental subspaces that characterize T . Doing so highlights the underlying similarity that unites into an intelligible whole the plethora of concepts that make up the landscape of linear mathematics.

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This criterion is stated in terms of the following important

Theorem 11.1

Let $T: U \rightarrow V$ be a linear transformation then

(i) $\{u \in U : T(u) = 0_V\} \equiv N(T) \equiv \text{Ker}(T)$

is a subspace of U , called the nullspace or the kernel of T .

(ii) $\{v \in V : v = T(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\} \equiv R(T)$ is a

subspace of V , called the range of T .

(iii) T is onto $\iff V = R(T)$

(iv) T is one-to-one $\iff N(T) = \{0_U\}$.

Example 0

Example 1

Example 2

Example 3

Example 4 skip

Example 5

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Example #0

$T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

T is onto but not 1-1

$R(T) = \mathbb{R}^2$

$N(T) = \text{Span}\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

Example #1

$T: \mathbb{P}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$

$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \mapsto p(4) = a_0 + a_1 \cdot 4 + a_2 \cdot 4^2$

T is onto but not 1-1

$R(T) =$ entire real line

$N(T) = \{ a(x-4), (x-4)^2 \}; a, b \in \text{reals} \}$

Example #2

Let $B = \{u_1, u_2, u_3\}$ be a basis for U .

$T: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$

$u \mapsto T(u) = [u]_B = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = p\text{-tuple of}$

coord. components rel'ive to B

T is onto and 1-1

$R(T) = \mathbb{R}^p$

$N(T) = \{0_U\}$

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Example #3

Let $C'(0,1) =$ set of all fns with cont. 1st derivatives in $(0,1)$

Let $a(x) \in C(0,1) =$ set of cont. fns on $(0,1)$

$T: C'(0,1) \rightarrow C(0,1)$

$f \mapsto T(f) = \frac{df}{dx} + a(x)f$

T is onto, but not 1-1

$R(T) = C(0,1)$ because for any $g(x) \in C(0,1)$, the

diff'l equation

$y' + a(x)y = g(x)$

has a solution.

i.e. $\exists y \in C^1(0,1) \ni T(y) = g(x)$

i.e. any $g \in C(0,1)$ has a pre-image

$T^{-1}(g) = \left\{ y(x) = e^{-\int a(x) dx} \left(\int g(x) dx + c \right) \right\}$

Note: $y' = -a(x)y + e^{-\int a(x) dx} \int g(x) dx$

$N(T) =$ set of sol'ns to $y' + a(x)y = 0$,

$= \{ f = c \exp(-\int a(x) dx) \}$

Example # 4

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$$T: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k-1}$$

$$p(x) \mapsto p'(x)$$

$R(T) = \mathbb{R}^{k-1}$ because $p(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_{k-1}x^{k-1}$
 can always be solved for

$$N(T) = \{ p(x) = a_0 \mid a_0 \text{ any real } \# \}$$

Example # 5

Let $C[R] =$ set of cont. fns defined on \mathbb{R}

Let $f \in C[R] : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$T: C[R] \rightarrow C^1[R]$$

$$f \mapsto T(f)(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

T is 1-1 but not onto.

$$N(T) = \{ 0 \} \text{ because } 0 = T(f)(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt \quad \forall x$$

$$\forall x \text{ zero} = (T)f(x) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$R(T) = \{ g(x) : g(x) \in C^1 \text{ with } g(0) = 0 \} \subset C[R]$$

(v) T is 1-1 $\Leftrightarrow N(T) = \{0\}$

\Rightarrow : Let $u \in N(T)$ i.e. $T(u) = 0$
 $T(0) = 0 \Rightarrow T(u) = T(0)$
 T is 1-1 $\Rightarrow u = 0 \therefore N(T) = \{0\}$.

\Leftarrow : Consider u_1 and $u_2 \in N(T)$
 then $T(u_1) = T(u_2) = 0$
 But $N(T) = \{0\} \therefore u_1 = u_2 = 0$
 Thus $u_1 = u_2$
 $\therefore T$ is one-to-one.

Corollary to Theorem 11.1

Given: $T: U \rightarrow V$ be a 1-1 lin. transformation
 $\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ lin. indep. set in U
 $\Leftrightarrow \{T(u_1), \dots, T(u_m)\}$ lin. indep. set in V

i.e. 1-1 transformations preserve lin. indep. sets.

proof \Rightarrow : Consider

$$c_1 T(u_1) + \dots + c_m T(u_m) = 0$$

$$T$$
 is 1-1 $\Rightarrow c_1 u_1 + \dots + c_m u_m = 0$
 $\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ lin. indep. $c_1 = \dots = c_m = 0$ is the only sol'n.
 $\therefore \{T(u_1), \dots, T(u_m)\}$ is lin. indep.

proof \Leftarrow : Consider $c_1 u_1 + \dots + c_m u_m = 0$
 $c_1 T(u_1) + \dots + c_m T(u_m) = 0$

$c_1 = \dots = c_m = 0$ is the only solution $\therefore u_1, \dots, u_m$ are lin. indep.
 Note: We did not use the fact that T is 1-1

Validation of Theorem 11.1 on page 11.8

(i) $N(T)$ is a subspace

proof: 1) $N(T) \subseteq U$
 2) $N(T)$ is closed under lin. comb'n. O.E.D.
 $\{ \dim N(T) \text{ is called the nullity of } T \}$

(ii) $R(T) = \{v \mid v = T(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\}$ is subspace

proof: 1) $v \in R(T) \Rightarrow T: U \rightarrow V$
 $u \mapsto T(u) = v \in V \Rightarrow R(T) \subseteq V$

2) Let $v_1, v_2 \in R(T)$

We must show that $c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 \in R(T)$

1) $\exists u_1, u_2 \in U \exists v_1 = T(u_1) \& v_2 = T(u_2)$

2) $c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 = c_1 T(u_1) + c_2 T(u_2)$

$= T(c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2)$

$\therefore c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 \in R(T)$

$R(T)$ is closed, hence a subspace

$\{ \dim R(T) \text{ is called the rank of } T \}$

(iii) T is onto $\Leftrightarrow V = R(T)$

proof: \Rightarrow : $R(T) = \{v \mid v = T(u) \text{ for some } u\} \subseteq V$ (*)

T is onto: Let $v \in V$. Then $v = T(u)$ for some u .

i.e. $v \in R(T) \therefore v \in R(T) (*)$

Thus $V = R(T)$.

\Leftarrow : $V = R(T) \Rightarrow v \in V \Rightarrow v \in R(T)$, i.e. $v = T(u)$ for some u .

i.e. T is onto.

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Given a linear transformation

$$T: U \rightarrow V$$
$$u \mapsto T(u)$$

Recall that

$$\{v: v = T(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\} = R(T) \subseteq V = \text{"target space"}$$

of T
is called the range (space) of T .

Let

$$B = \{e_1, \dots, e_p\}$$

be a basis for U , the domain (space) of T .

Proposition: $R(T) = \text{span} \{T(e_1), \dots, T(e_p)\}$

proof: 1) Let $v \in R(T) = \{v: v = T(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\}$. def'n

$$v = T(u) = T(c_1 e_1 + \dots + c_p e_p)$$
$$= c_1 T(e_1) + \dots + c_p T(e_p) \Rightarrow v \in \text{span} \{T(e_i)\}_{i=1}^p$$

$\therefore R(T) \subseteq \text{span} \{T(e_i)\}_{i=1}^p$

2) Let $v \in \text{span} \{T(e_i)\}_{i=1}^p \Rightarrow \exists c_1, \dots, c_p$ such that

$$v = c_1 T(e_1) + \dots + c_p T(e_p)$$
$$= T(c_1 e_1 + \dots + c_p e_p) \Rightarrow v \in R(T).$$

$$\therefore \text{span} \{T(e_i)\}_{i=1}^p \subseteq R(T)$$

3) $\text{span} \{T(e_i)\}_{i=1}^p = R(T)$