

# 1 Recap

- Recalled the definition of a vector space  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  (usually reals or complex numbers). By the way, using induction and associativity,  $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i v_i$  can be defined unambiguously.
- Subspaces and the linear span of a set.
- Finite-dimensional vector spaces, dimension, and the notion of a basis.
- Ordered bases and components.

# 2 Linear Transformations/Maps

Recall that one of the aims of defining vector spaces was to solve linear equations in general. Often, this involves adding/subtracting to get “new variables” that can be solved for. Moreover, given two vector spaces, are they the same vector space in disguise? (Is Voldemort being called Tom Riddle?) To this end, we needed to define maps/functions/transformations between vector spaces that preserve the vector space structure. Recall that if  $V, W$  are vector spaces (over the same field), then a function  $T : V \rightarrow W$  is called a linear transformation/linear map if  $T(av) = aT(v)$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V$  and  $T(v+w) = T(v) + T(w)$  or alternatively,  $T(av + bw) = aT(v) + bT(w)$ . So  $T(0) = T(0.v) = 0.T(v) = 0$ .

The image  $T(V)$  is a *subspace* of  $W$  : If  $T(v), T(w) \in T(V)$ , then  $aT(v) + bT(w) = T(av + bw) \in T(V)$ .  $T(\sum_i c_i v_i) = \sum_i T(c_i v_i)$ : We prove by induction. For  $n = 1$ , it follows from definition. Assume truth for  $n$ . For  $n + 1$ ,  $T(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} c_i v_i) = T(\sum_{i=1}^n c_i v_i + c_{n+1} v_{n+1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i T(v_i) + c_{n+1} T(v_{n+1})$ .

Examples and Non-examples of Linear Transformations:

- If  $V = \mathbb{R}^n, W = \mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  real matrix, then  $T(x) = Ax$ , i.e.,  $(T(x))_i = \sum_j A_{ij} x_j$  is a linear map. (In fact, *all* linear maps between these particular  $V$  and  $W$  arise this way.) However,  $T(x) = Ax + b$  is NOT linear.
- If  $V$  is the space of continuous  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $W = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $T(f) = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$  is a linear map. However,  $\int_0^1 f^2 dx$  is NOT linear.
- If  $V$  is the space of real polynomials of degree  $\leq 5$  and  $W = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $T(p) = p(0)$  is a linear map. (It is called an evaluation map.)

# 3 Algebraic operations on Linear maps

If  $V, W$  are vector spaces over the same field,  $T, H : V \rightarrow W$  are linear maps, then  $T + H$  is linear and so is  $cT$  for all  $c \in \mathbb{F}$ . One can verify that the set of all linear maps  $L(V, W)$  forms a vector space in its own right. If  $V, W, X$  are vector spaces, and  $T : V \rightarrow W, U : W \rightarrow X$  are linear maps, then  $U \circ T : V \rightarrow X$  is linear.  $R(ST) = (RS)T$ , i.e., associativity holds. Moreover,  $(R + S)T = RT + ST$  and  $R(S + T) = RS + RT$ .

## 4 Linear maps and matrices for finite-dimensional vector spaces

Given ordered bases  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  for  $V$  and  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  for  $W$ ,  $T(\sum_k c_k e_k) = \sum_k c_k T(e_k)$  and hence it is enough to know what  $T(e_k)$  are. Let  $T(e_k) = \sum_j T_{jk} f_j$ . Then  $T(\sum_k c_k e_k) = \sum_k c_k \sum_j T_{jk} f_j = \sum_j (\sum_k T_{jk} c_k) f_j$ .

The matrix  $T_{jk}$  determines  $T$  and vice-versa. The components  $c_k$ , if represented by a column vector (as is usually the case), go to a *new* component-column-vector  $d_j$  as  $d = [T]c$ . So to link linear maps and matrices, one needs to *choose* ordered bases for *both*, the image AND the target. Different choices of ordered bases give rise to *different* matrices representing the *same* linear map.

Examples of matrix-representation of linear maps

- The algorithm is as follows : The first column of the matrix is obtained by calculating  $T(e_1)$  and writing its components as a column vector in the given ordered basis of the target. Likewise for the other columns.
- So if we consider the *differentiation* linear map from degree  $\leq 2$  polynomials to itself with an ordered basis  $\{1, x, x^2\}$ ,  $T(1) = 0 = 0.1 + 0.x + 0.x^2$ ,  $T(x) = 1 = 1.1 + 0.x + 0.x^2$ , and  $T(x^2) = 2x = 0.1 + 2.x + 0.x^2$ .

- Thus the matrix is  $[T] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Matrix operations:

If  $A, B$  are two  $m \times n$  matrices with entries in  $\mathbb{F}$ , then  $[A + B]_{ij} := [A]_{ij} + [B]_{ij}$  and if  $c \in \mathbb{F}$ , then  $[cA]_{ij} := c[A]_{ij}$ .

If we choose ordered bases  $\{e_i\}$ ,  $\{f_j\}$ ,  $\{g_k\}$  for f.d vector spaces  $V, W, X$ , and if  $T : V \rightarrow W$ ,  $U : W \rightarrow X$  are linear maps, then then we get two matrices  $[T]$  and  $[U]$  representing the maps. It turns out that  $U \circ T$  is represented by  $[U][T]$  where multiplication is in the sense of *matrix multiplication*, i.e.,  $([A][B])_{ij} = \sum_k [A]_{ik} [B]_{kj}$  : Indeed,  $U(T(e_i)) = U(\sum_j T_{ji} f_j) = \sum_j T_{ji} U(f_j) = \sum_j T_{ji} \sum_k U_{kj} g_k = \sum_{j,k} U_{kj} T_{ji} g_k$ . In fact, matrix multiplication is defined so that this happens.

Properties of matrix multiplication:

- $A(BC) = (AB)C$  whenever it makes sense.
- $(A + B)C = AC + BC$  and  $C(A + B) = CA + CB$  whenever it makes sense.
- The simplest proof is to interpret each of the matrices as linear maps between appropriate vector spaces and use the fact that  $[U \circ T] = [U][T]$ .

Null space/Kernel of a linear map: Suppose we consider the equation  $2x + 3y = 1$ . How many solutions does it have ? Infinitely many. What about  $2x + 3y = 1, 4x + 6y = 3$  ? Zero. What about  $2x + 3y = 1, 4x + 6y = 2$  ? Infinitely many. What about  $2x + 3y = 1, x - y = 0$  ? Exactly one. More generally,  $T : V \rightarrow W$  need not be surjective or

injective. Suppose  $T(v) = w$ . How many solutions does this equation have if it has one? Note that if  $T(v_1) = T(v_2) = w$ , then  $T(v_1 - v_2) = 0$ . Motivated by this observation, we define the *null space*  $N(T) \subset V$  as the set  $v \in V$  so that  $T(v) = 0$ . If  $T(v) = T(w) = 0$ , then  $T(av + bw) = aT(v) + bT(w) = 0$  and hence  $N(T)$  is a *subspace* of  $V$ .