

The matrix representation of a lin. transformation.

Definition Let V be a fin. dim. v.s. An ordered basis for V is a basis for V endowed with a specific order.

Example. In \mathbb{F}^3 , $\beta = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is an ordered basis. (recall $e_1 = (1, 0, 0)$, $e_2 = (0, 1, 0)$, $e_3 = (0, 0, 1)$).

Also, $\gamma = \{e_2, e_1, e_3\}$ is an ordered basis.

So β and γ is the same set, but $\beta \neq \gamma$ as ordered bases. The choice of the order matters!

For the v.s. \mathbb{F}^n , we call $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ the standard ordered basis for \mathbb{F}^n .

Similarly, for the v.s. $P_n(F)$ we call $\{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$ the standard ordered basis for $P_n(F)$.

Definition Let $\beta = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ be an ordered basis for a fin. dim. v.s. V .

For $x \in V$, let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$ be the unique scalars such that

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i u_i. \quad (\text{by Theorem 1.8.})$$

We define the coordinate vector of x relative to β , denoted $[x]_\beta$, by

$$[x]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{so } [x]_\beta \text{ is a vector in } \mathbb{F}^n).$$

so each vector can be described by its coordinates with respect to a fixed basis.

Notice that $[u_i]_\beta = e_i$.

The correspondence $x \rightarrow [x]_\beta$ is a lin. transformation from V to \mathbb{F}^n . (Exercise).

Example. Let $V = P_2(\mathbb{R})$, and let $\beta = \{1, x, x^2\}$ be the standard ordered basis for V .

Consider $f(x) = 4 + 6x - 7x^2 \in V$, then

$$[f]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Definition Suppose V, W are fin. dim. v.s., with ordered bases $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and $\gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$, respectively.

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be linear.

Then for each j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, there exist unique scalars $a_{ij} \in F$, $i \leq i \leq m$ such that

$$T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} w_i \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

We call the $m \times n$ matrix A defined by $A_{ij} = a_{ij}$ the matrix representation of T in the ordered bases β and γ , and write $A = [T]_\beta^\gamma$.

If $V=W$ and $\beta = \gamma$, then we write $A = [T]_\beta$.

Notice. The j^{th} column of A is $[T(v_j)]_\gamma$.

If $U: V \rightarrow W$ is a lin. trans. s.t. $[U]_\beta^\gamma = [T]_\beta^\gamma$ then $U=T$ (by the corollary to Theorem 2.6)

So $[T]_\beta^\gamma$ gives an explicit way to describe T which is very useful in computations.

Example. Let $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be the lin. transf. defined by

$$T(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 + 3a_2, 0, 2a_1 - 4a_2).$$

Let $\beta = \{e_1, e_2\}$, $\gamma = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ - the standard bases for \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 , respectively. Now:

$$T(1, 0) = (1, 0, 2) = 1e_1 + 0e_2 + 2e_3$$

$$T(0, 1) = (3, 0, -4) = 3e_1 + 0e_2 - 4e_3.$$

Hence

$$[T]_\beta^\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

But if we take $\gamma' = \{e_3, e_2, e_1\}$, then $[T]_\beta^{\gamma'} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

Definition Let $T, U : V \rightarrow W$ be functions, where V, W are v.s. over F , and let $a \in F$. We define:

$$T+U : V \rightarrow W \quad \text{by} \quad (T+U)(x) = T(x) + U(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in V.$$

$$aT : V \rightarrow W \quad \text{by} \quad (aT)(x) = aT(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in V.$$

So $T+U$ and aT are both functions from V to W .

These operations preserve linearity.

Theorem 2.7 Let V, W be v.s. over F , let $T, U : V \rightarrow W$ be linear.

a) For all $a \in F$, $aT+U$ is linear.

b) With this operations of addition and scalar multiplication, the set of all linear transformations from V to W is a v.s. over F .

Proof.

a) Let $x, y \in V$ and $c \in F$. Then

$$(aT+U)(cx+y) = (aT)(cx+y) + U(cx+y) = a(T(cx+y)) + (cU(x) + U(y)) = a(cT(x) + T(y)) + cU(x) + U(y) = acT(x) + cU(x) + aT(y) + U(y) = c(aT+U)(x) + (aT+U)(y).$$

Hence the map $aT+U$ is linear.

b) Note that the zero transformation T_0 (recall $T_0(x) = 0$ for all $x \in V$) plays the role of the zero vector, and it's easy to verify that all of the axioms (V1)-(V8) of a vector space are satisfied.

Definition For V, W v.s. over F , we denote $\mathcal{L}(V, W) = \{T : T \text{ is a lin. transf. from } V \text{ to } W\}$ — a v.s. over F .

In case $V=W$, we write $\mathcal{L}(V)$ instead of $\mathcal{L}(V, V)$.

Algebraic description of the operations in $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Last time we saw: • every lin. transformation can be represented by a matrix,

• linear transformations from V to W form a vector space $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$, under pointwise addition and

These operations on $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ correspond to matrix addition and scalar mult. on the representations.

scalar mult.

Theorem 2.8

Let V, W be fin. dim. v.s. with ordered bases β and γ , respectively.

Let $T, U : V \rightarrow W$ be linear. Then:

$$a) [T+U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} + [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma}.$$

$$b) [aT]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = a[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \quad \text{for all scalars } a \in F.$$

Proof.

a) Let $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and $\gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$.

There exist unique scalars a_{ij} and b_{ij} ($1 \leq i \leq m$, $1 \leq j \leq n$) s.t.:

$$T(v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} w_j \quad \text{and} \quad U(v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m b_{ij} w_j \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Hence

$$(T+U)(v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m (a_{ij} + b_{ij}) w_j.$$

Thus, for the matrix $[T+U]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ we have

$$([T+U]_{\beta}^{\gamma})_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij} = ([T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} + [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma})_{ij}.$$

b) Similar (Exercise.)

Example. Let $T, U : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by

$$T(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 + 3a_2, 0, 2a_1 - 4a_2),$$

$$U(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 - a_2, 2a_1, 3a_1 + 2a_2).$$

Let β, γ be the standard ordered bases for \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 , resp. Then

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{calculated in the previous example} \quad [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Applying definition, we have

$$(T+U)(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 + 3a_2, 0, 2a_1 - 4a_2) + (a_1 - a_2, 2a_1, 3a_1 + 2a_2) = (2a_1 + 2a_2, 2a_1, 5a_1 - 2a_2). \text{ So}$$

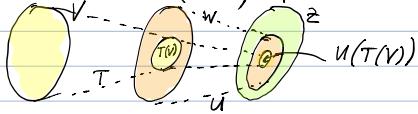
$$[T+U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 5 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} + [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \text{ - as Theorem 2.8 predicts.}$$

Composition of lin. transf's and matrix multiplication.

Definition. Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ and $U: W \rightarrow Z$ be two lin. transf's of v.s.'s.

Their composition, denoted by UT , is a function from V to Z defined by

$$UT(x) = U(T(x)) \text{ for all } x \in V.$$



Theorem 2.9. Let V, W, Z be v.s. over \mathbb{F} .

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ and $U: W \rightarrow Z$ be linear.

Then $UT: V \rightarrow Z$ is linear.

Proof.

Let $x, y \in V$ and $a \in \mathbb{F}$. Then

$$UT(ax+y) = U(T(ax+y)) \stackrel{(T \text{ is lin.})}{=} U(aT(x)+T(y)) \stackrel{(U \text{ is lin.})}{=} aU(T(x))+U(T(y)) = a(UT)(x)+UT(y).$$

See Problem Set 4 for more basic properties of the composition.

Assume that V, W, Z are v.s. over \mathbb{F} , and let

$\alpha = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, $\beta = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$, $\gamma = \{z_1, \dots, z_p\}$ be ordered bases for V, W and Z , respectively.

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ and $U: W \rightarrow Z$ be linear.

Let $A = [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ and $B = [T]_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ be their matrix representations.

We have $UT: V \rightarrow Z$ - their composition.

Let's calculate its matrix representation $[UT]_{\alpha}^{\gamma}$.

For $1 \leq j \leq n$, we have

$$(UT)(v_j) = U(T(v_j)) = U\left(\sum_{k=1}^m B_{kj} w_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m B_{kj} U(w_k) = \sum_{k=1}^m B_{kj} \left(\sum_{i=1}^p A_{ik} z_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^p \left(\sum_{k=1}^m A_{ik} B_{kj}\right) z_i = \sum_{i=1}^p C_{ij} z_i$$

where

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m A_{ik} B_{kj}.$$

$$\text{Hence } [UT]_{\alpha}^{\gamma} = C = (C_{ij})_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq p \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}}.$$

This computation motivates the definition of matrix multiplication.

Definition. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and B an $n \times p$ matrix. We define the product of A and B , denoted AB , to be the $m \times p$ matrix such that

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj} \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq p.$$

Example.

$$1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 4 + 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 5 \\ 0 \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot 2 + (-1) \cdot 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 13 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2) Matrix multiplication is not commutative.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ but } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ so it is possible that } AB \neq BA.$$

3) Recall the definition of the transpose of a matrix from Problem Set 2:

If $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, then its transpose $A^t \in M_{n \times m}(\mathbb{F})$ is given by $(A^t)_{ij} = A_{ji}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$.

We show that

$$(AB)^t = B^t A^t$$

Indeed, we have
 $(AB)_{ij}^t = (AB)_{ji} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{jk} B_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^n B_{ki} A_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^n (B^t)_{ik} (A^t)_{kj} = (B^t A^t)_{ij}$.

Returning to our previous calculation, we can now state it in a compact form using matrix multiplication.

Theorem 2.11.

Let V, W and Z be fin. dim. v.s. with ordered bases α, β and γ , respectively.

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ and $U: W \rightarrow Z$ be lin. transformations. Then

$$[UT]_\gamma^\beta = [U]_\gamma^\beta [T]_\alpha^\beta.$$

Corollary. Let V be a fin. dim. v.s. with an ordered basis β .

$$\text{Let } T, U \in L(V). \text{ Then } [UT]_\beta = [U]_\beta [T]_\beta.$$

Example. Let $U: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{R})$ and $T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_3(\mathbb{R})$ be the lin. transf. defined by
 $U(f(x)) = f'(x)$ and $T(f(x)) = \int f(t) dt$.

Let $\alpha = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$ and $\beta = \{1, x, x^2\}$ be the standard ordered bases of $P_3(\mathbb{R})$ and $P_2(\mathbb{R})$, respectively.
 We have:

$$\begin{aligned} U(1) &= 0 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 & \text{Hence } [U]_\alpha^\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \\ U(x) &= 1 = 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 \\ U(x^2) &= 2x = 0 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 \\ U(x^3) &= 3x^2 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 3 \cdot x^2. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for T we have:

$$\begin{aligned} T(1) &= x = 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3 \\ T(x) &= \frac{1}{2}x^2 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3 & \text{Hence } [T]_\beta^\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}. \\ T(x^2) &= \frac{1}{3}x^3 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus } [UT]_\beta = [U]_\alpha^\beta [T]_\beta^\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = [I]_\beta, \text{ where } I: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{R}) \text{ is the identity transformation.}$$

This confirms the fundamental theorem of calculus in a special case!

Definition The $n \times n$ identity matrix I_n is defined by $(I_n)_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$.
 Hence $I_1 = (1)$, $I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, etc.

We summarize basic properties of matrix multiplication.

Theorem 2.12. Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$, $B, C \in M_{n \times p}(F)$, and $D, E \in M_{p \times m}(F)$. Then

$$a) A(B+C) = AB+AC \text{ and } (D+E)A = DA+EA.$$

$$b) a(AB) = (aA)B = A(aB) \text{ for any scalar } a \in F.$$

$$c) I_m A = A = A I_n.$$

$$d) \text{If } \dim(V) = n \text{ and } I: V \rightarrow V \text{ is the identity transformation, then } [I]_\beta = I_n \text{ for any ordered basis } \beta \text{ for } V.$$

Proof.

See textbook.

Compare to the basic properties of the composition of lin. transformations (Theorem 2.10).

Calculating value of a lin. transf. using its matrix representation.

Theorem 2.14.

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be linear, V, W fin. dim. v.s.'s with ordered bases β and δ , respectively.

Then, for each $u \in V$ we have

$$[T(u)]_{\delta} = [T]_{\beta}^{\delta} [u]_{\beta}.$$

vector in W $n \times n$ matrix $n \times 1$ matrix
its coordinate vector,
viewed as an $n \times 1$ matrix

matrix multiplication

Proof.

Suppose $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, $\delta = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ - ordered bases for V and W , respectively.

Let $x \in V$, say $x = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$.

That is, $[x]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$.

Let $B = [T]_{\beta}^{\delta}$. Then

$$T(x) = a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n) = a_1 \left(\sum_{i=1}^m B_{i1} w_i \right) + \dots + a_n \left(\sum_{i=1}^m B_{in} w_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=1}^n a_j B_{ij} \right) w_i.$$

Hence

$$[T(x)]_{\delta} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n a_j B_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_j B_{mj} \end{pmatrix} = B \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} - \text{as wanted.}$$

Example. Let $T: P_3(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{R})$ given by $T(f(x)) = f'(x)$.

Then $[T]_{\beta}^{\delta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ - calculated in a previous example
 β, δ - standard ordered bases.

Let $p(x) \in P_3(\mathbb{R})$ be arbitrary, for example $p(x) = 2 - 4x + x^2 + 3x^3$.

Then $T(p(x)) = p'(x) = -4 + 2x + 9x^2$.

Hence:

$$[T(p(x))]_{\delta} = [p'(x)]_{\delta} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}.$$

But also

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\delta} [p(x)]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} - \text{illustrating Theorem 2.14.}$$

Associating a linear transformation to a matrix

Definition Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$. We denote by L_A the mapping

$L_A: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ defined by $L_A(x) = Ax$.
 regarded as column vectors.

We call L_A a left-multiplication transformation.

Example.

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 3}(\mathbb{R})$, hence $L_A: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.

$$\text{If } x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ then } L_A(x) = Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 2.15 (Properties of L_A)

Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$. Then $L_A: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ is linear.

If $B \in M_{m \times n}(F)$ and β, γ are the standard ordered bases for F^n and F^m , resp., then:

a) $[L_A]_\beta^\gamma = A$.

b) $L_A = L_B \iff A = B$.

c) $L_{A+B} = L_A + L_B$, $L_{aA} = a \cdot L_A$ for all $a \in F$.

d) If $T: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ is lin, then there is a unique $C \in M_{m \times n}(F)$ s.t. $T = L_C$. In fact, $C = [T]_\beta^\gamma$.

e) If $E \in M_{n \times p}(F)$, then $L_{AE} = L_A L_E$.

f) If $m = n$, then $L_{I_n} = I_{F^n}$.

Proof. Linearity of L_A is clear by Theorem 2.12.

a) The j^{th} column of $[L_A]_\beta^\gamma$ is $L_A(e_j) = Ae_j$, which is also the j^{th} column of A .
So $[L_A]_\beta^\gamma = A$.

b) " \Leftarrow ": clear

" \Rightarrow ": If $L_A = L_B$, then by (a), $A = [L_A]_\beta^\gamma = [L_B]_\beta^\gamma = B$.

d) Let $T: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ be lin, let $C = [T]_\beta^\gamma$.

By Theorem 2.14,

$$[T(x)]_\gamma = [T]_\beta^\gamma [x]_\beta, \text{ or } T(x) = Cx = L_C(x) \text{ for all } x \in F^n.$$

So $T = L_C$. The uniqueness of C follows from (b).

e) $(AE)e_j = \text{the } j^{\text{th}} \text{ column of } AE = A(Ee_j)$ — both equalities are easy to see by writing out the products.

Thus $L_{AE}(e_j) = (AE)e_j = A(Ee_j) = L_A(Ee_j) = L_A(L_E(e_j))$.

Hence $L_{AE} = L_A L_E$ (by the corollary to Theorem 2.6, if two linear transf's agree on a basis, then they are equal).

(c), (f) — Exercise.

Theorem 2.16 (Matrix multiplication is associative)

Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$, $B \in M_{n \times p}(F)$, $C \in M_{p \times r}(F)$. Then

$$A(BC) = (AB)C.$$

Proof.

We have (using Theorem 2.15(e) and associativity of the composition of functions)

$$L_{A(BC)} = L_A L_{BC} = L_A(L_B L_C) = (L_A L_B)L_C = L_{AB} L_C = L_{(AB)C}.$$

By Theorem 2.15(e), $A(BC) = (AB)C$.

Invertibility

Definition. Let V and W be v.s. and $T: V \rightarrow W$ linear.

A function $U: W \rightarrow V$ is an inverse of T if $TU = I_W$ and $UT = I_V$.

If T has an inverse, then T is invertible.

If T is invertible, then the inverse of T is unique and is denoted by T^{-1} .

Basic facts about invertible functions.

i) Let T and U be invertible. Then the following holds:

a) $(TU)^{-1} = U^{-1}T^{-1}$

b) $(T^{-1})^{-1} = T$; in particular, T^{-1} is invertible.

2) T is invertible $\iff T$ is a bijection.

Proof. 2) " \Rightarrow " for any $y \in W$, $TT^{-1}(y) = I_W(y) = y$. Hence $y = T(I_V(y))$, so T is surjective.

Assume $T(x_1) = T(x_2)$, then $T^{-1}(T(x_1)) = T^{-1}(T(x_2))$, hence $x_1 = x_2$ — so T is injective.

Theorem 2.17. Let V, W be v.s., let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be lin. and invertible. Then $T^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$ is also linear.

Proof.

Let $y_1, y_2 \in W$ and $c \in F$. Since T is both surjective and injective, there exist unique vectors $x_1, x_2 \in V$ s.t. $T(x_1) = y_1$ and $T(x_2) = y_2$.

Thus $x_1 = T^{-1}(y_1)$ and $x_2 = T^{-1}(y_2)$. And so

$$T^{-1}(cy_1 + y_2) = T^{-1}(cT(x_1) + T(x_2)) = T^{-1}(T(cx_1 + x_2)) = I_V(cx_1 + x_2) = cx_1 + x_2 = cT^{-1}(y_1) + T^{-1}(y_2).$$

Example. Let $T: P_1(R) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the lin. transf defined by $T(a+bx) = (a, a+b)$.

Then $T^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow P_1(R)$ is defined by $T^{-1}(c, d) = c + (d-c)x$ — also linear, as Theorem 2.17 predicts.

• Recall the analogy between linear transformations and matrices.

Definition. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. Then A is **invertible** if there exists $B \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ s.t. $AB = BA = I$.

Note. If A is invertible, then the matrix B such that $AB = BA = I$ is **unique**, called the **inverse of A** and (I if C were another such matrix, then $C = CI = C(AB) = (CA)B = IB = B$). denoted A^{-1} .

Example. The inverse of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Indeed, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Lemma. Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be lin. and invertible, and $\dim(V) < \infty$. Then $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$.

Proof. Let $\beta = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a basis for V .

By Theorem 2.2, $\text{Span}(T(\beta)) = R(T) = W$.

Next, T is a bijection, so:

$\dim(N(T)) = 0$ (as $N(T) = \{0\}$ as T is injective).

$\dim(R(T)) = \dim(W)$ (as $R(T) = W$).

Hence, by the dimension theorem, $\dim(V) = \dim(N(T)) + \dim(R(T)) = \dim(W)$.

Theorem 2.18. Let V, W be fin. dim. v.s. with ordered bases β and γ , resp.

Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be lin.

Then T is invertible $\Leftrightarrow [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ is invertible.

Furthermore, $[T^{-1}]_{\gamma}^{\beta} = ([T]_{\beta}^{\gamma})^{-1}$.

Proof.

\Rightarrow Suppose T is invertible.

By the Lemma, $\dim(V) = \dim(W) = n$. So $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \in M_{n \times n}(F)$.

By definition, $T^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$ satisfies $TT^{-1} = I_W$ and $T^{-1}T = I_V$. Thus

$$I_n = [I_V]_{\beta} = [T^{-1}T]_{\beta} = [T^{-1}]_{\gamma}^{\beta} [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}.$$

Similarly,

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} [T^{-1}]_{\gamma}^{\beta} = I_n.$$

So $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ is invertible and $([T]_{\beta}^{\gamma})^{-1} = [T^{-1}]_{\gamma}^{\beta}$.

\Leftarrow Suppose $A = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$ is invertible. Then there exists $B \in M_{n \times n}(F)$ s.t. $AB = BA = I_n$.

By Theorem 2.6, there exists $U \in L(W, V)$ s.t.

$$U(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n B_{ij} v_i \text{ for } j=1, \dots, n,$$

where $\gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$, $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$.

It follows that $[U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = B$.

To show that $U = T^{-1}$, notice that

$$[UT]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = [U]_{\beta}^{\gamma} [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = BA = I_n = [I_V]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \quad - \text{by Theorem 2.11.}$$

So $UT = I_V$, and similarly, $TU = I_W$.

Example. Let β and γ be the standard ordered bases of $P_1(\mathbb{R})$ and \mathbb{R}^2 , resp.

For T given by $T(a+bx) = (a, a+b)$ from the previous example, we have

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad [T^{-1}]_{\gamma}^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{We have already checked that each of these matrices is the inverse of the other.}$$

Corollary. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$. Then A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow L_A$ is invertible. Moreover, $(L_A)^{-1} = L_{A^{-1}}$.

Isomorphisms.

Sometimes two vector spaces may consist of objects of very different nature, but behave identically from the algebraic point of view. We describe a precise way of "identifying" vector spaces with each other.

Definition. Let V, W be v.s. We say that V is **isomorphic** to W if there exists a lin. transf. $T : V \rightarrow W$ that is invertible.

Such a lin. transf. is called an **isomorphism** from V onto W .

Note. 1) V is isomorphic to V (using I_V).

2) V is isomorphic to $W \Leftrightarrow W$ is isomorphic to V .

3) If V is isomorphic to W and W is isomorphic to Z , then V is isomorphic to Z .

Thus isomorphism is an **equivalence relation** on vector spaces.

Exercise.

Example. Let $T : F^2 \rightarrow P_1(F)$ be given by $T(a_1, a_2) = a_1 + a_2 x$.

Then T is an isomorphism, so F^2 is isomorphic to $P_1(F)$.

Theorem 2.19. Let V, W be fin. dim. v.s. over F .

Then V is isomorphic to W if and only if $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$.

Proof. " \Rightarrow " Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be an isomorphism from V to W .

By the lemma above, $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$.

" \Leftarrow " Suppose $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$, and let $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, $\gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be bases for V and W , resp.

By Theorem 2.6, there exists $T : V \rightarrow W$ s.t. T is lin. and $T(v_i) = w_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

By Theorem 2.2,

$R(T) = \text{Span}(T(\beta)) = \text{Span}(\gamma) = W$, so T is surjective.

By Theorem 2.5, T is also injective.

Hence T is an isomorphism.

Corollary. Let V be a v.s. over F .

Then V is isomorphic to F^n if and only if $\dim(V) = n$.

Up to this point, we have associated linear transformations with their matrix representations, and we have seen many analogies between the operations on $L(V, W)$ and $M_{m \times n}(F)$.

Now we can show that these two spaces may be identified.

Theorem 2.20.

Let V, W be v.s. over F , $\dim(V) = n$, $\dim(W) = m$.

Let β, γ be ordered bases for V and W , respectively.

Then the function $\Phi : L(V, W) \rightarrow M_{m \times n}(F)$ defined by

$$\Phi(T) = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \quad \text{for all } T \in L(V, W)$$

is an isomorphism.

Proof.

By Theorem 2.8, ϕ is linear. So remains to show ϕ is a bijection.

That is, we need to show that for every $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$, there is a unique lin. transf. $T: V \rightarrow W$ s.t. $\phi(T) = A$.

Let $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$, $\gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$, and let $A \in M_{m \times n}(F)$ be given.

By Theorem 2.6, there exists a unique lin. transf. $T: V \rightarrow W$ s.t.

$$T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m A_{ij} w_i \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

But this means that $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = A$, or $\phi(T) = A$. Thus ϕ is an isomorphism.

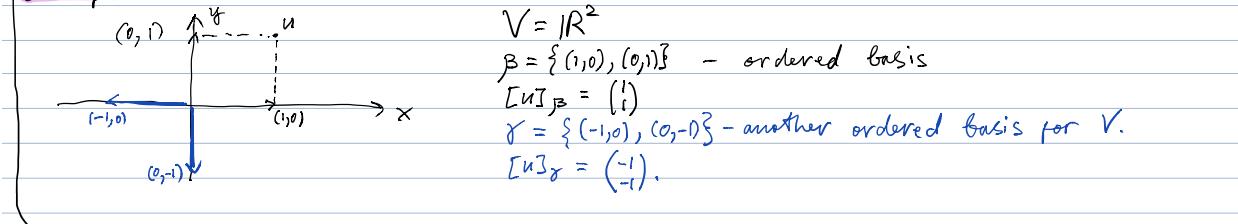
Corollary. If $\dim(V) = n$, $\dim(W) = m$, then $\dim(\mathcal{L}(V, W)) = mn$.

(by the previous theorem, as $\dim(M_{m \times n}(F)) = mn$).

Change of coordinate matrix

We have seen that once we fix an ordered basis β of a v.s. V to every vector $v \in V$ we can assign its coordinates $[v]_{\beta}$. And similarly, for $T: V \rightarrow V$, we assign its matrix rep. $[T]_{\beta}$. However, these coordinates depend on β ! And can be different for another choice of an ordered basis.

Example.



We would like a method to calculate $[v]_{\gamma}$ from $[v]_{\beta}$, for an arbitrary choice of β and γ .

Definition. Let β and β' be two ordered bases for a fin. dim. v.s. V .

We define the change of coordinate matrix (or "change of basis matrix") to be $Q = [I_v]_{\beta}^{\beta'}$.

Theorem 2.22.

- 1) Q is invertible. (and $Q^{-1} = [I_v]_{\beta'}^{\beta}$)
- 2) For any $v \in V$, $[v]_{\beta} = Q [v]_{\beta'}$.

Proof.

1) As I_v is invertible, Q is also invertible by Thm 2.18

2) For any $v \in V$,

$$[v]_{\beta} = [I_v(v)]_{\beta} = [I_v]_{\beta}^{\beta} [v]_{\beta'} = Q [v]_{\beta'}, \text{ by Theorem 2.14.}$$

So, multiplying by Q changes the β' -coordinates of a vector into its β -coordinates.

And multiplying by Q^{-1} changes β -coordinates into β' -coordinates.

Example.

In the example above, $[I_v]_{\gamma}^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

And $[v]_{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Hence $[v]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Definition A lin. transf. $T: V \rightarrow V$ from a v.s. V to itself is called a linear operator on V .

Now we determine how to calculate $[T]_{\beta}$ from $[T]_{\beta'}$, for β, β' two ordered bases for V .

Theorem 2.23. Let T be a lin. operator on a fin. dim. v.s. V .
 Let β, β' be ordered bases for V .
 Let $Q = [I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta}$ be the change of coordinate matrix, changing β' -coord's into β -coord's.
 Then $[T]_{\beta'} = Q^{-1} [T]_{\beta} Q$.

Proof.

Recall that $T = I_V T = T I_V$.

$$Q [T]_{\beta'} = [I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta} [T]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = [I_V T]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = [T I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} [I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = [T]_{\beta}^{\beta} Q. \quad (\text{by Theorem 2.11}).$$

Therefore

$$[T]_{\beta'} = Q^{-1} [T]_{\beta} Q.$$

Example.

Consider the lin. operator T on \mathbb{R}^2 defined by $T(x, y) = (x+y, x-y)$.

Let $\beta = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and $\beta' = \{(-1, 0), (0, -1)\}$ be ordered bases.

By the previous example:

$$Q = [I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{Also } Q^{-1} = [I_V]_{\beta}^{\beta'} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Also } [T]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{Hence } [T]_{\beta'} = Q^{-1} [T]_{\beta} Q = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$