§ 3.2 - Matrix Mappings and Linear Mappings  
In high school you studied functions from R to R.  
EX The function 
$$f(x) = x^2$$
 assigns to each X  
in the domain (R) as unique value y in the  
codomain (also R). We say that f maps X to  
y, or that y is the image of X under f.  
In this section we will begin to study functions  
on higher dimensional spaces:  
 $f: R^n \longrightarrow R^m$   
(domain) (codomain)  
These are sometimes called mappings transformations,  
or operators.  
Matrix Mappings  
Let A be an maxe matrix. We know that if  $\vec{X}$   
is a vector in  $R^n$ , then  $A\vec{x}$  is a vector in  $R^m$ .

This gives us a mapping 
$$f_A : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$
 defined by  $f_A(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}.$ 

We commonly call this the matrix mapping corresponding  
to A  
Note: If 
$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$
 is a mapping that sends  
 $\overline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\overline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , it would be correct to write  
 $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$ .

Instead, however, we typically write  $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \begin{bmatrix} y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$ 

or 
$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$
. This looks a little cleaner!

Ex: If 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
, then  $A$  is  $3 \times 2$ .  
By above, we can view this as a matrix mapping  $f_A : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

that sends  $\vec{X}$  to  $A\vec{x}$ .

We have 
$$f_A(2,1) = A\begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1&-1\\2&4\\3&3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\8\\9 \end{bmatrix}$$
  
and  $f_A(1,-1) = A\begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1&-1\\2&4\\3&3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\-2\\0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Ex: If 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 then  $A$  is  $Z \times 3$   
This gives us a matrix mapping  $f_A : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ .

We have 
$$f_A(1,0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$f_A(0,1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: This makes sense! We know from 
$$\$3.1$$
 that  
 $A\overline{e_i} = i^{th}$  column of A.

$$\int_{A} \left( 1, 1, 0 \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f_{A}(z,0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and 
$$\underbrace{f_A(1,1,0)}_{A} = f_A(1,0,0) + f_A(0,1,0);$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and 
$$\underbrace{f_A(2,0,0)}_{A} = 2 \underbrace{f_A(1,0,0)}_{A}.$$

This is no coincidence!

Theorem: If A is an 
$$m \times n$$
 matrix, then the  
matrix mapping  $f_A : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  satisfies  
(L1):  $f_A(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = f_A(\vec{x}) + f_A(\vec{y})$  for all  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
(L2):  $f_A(t\vec{x}) = tf_A(\vec{x})$  for all  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\frac{P_{\text{roof}}}{(L2)} : f_A(\overline{x}, \overline{y}) = A(\overline{x}, \overline{y}) = A \times A \overline{y} = f_A(\overline{x}) + f_A(\overline{y})$$

$$(L2) : f_A(\overline{tx}) = A(\overline{tx}) = t(A\overline{x}) = tf_A(\overline{x})$$

These two properties are: SUPER important!  
Let's see why!  
EX: Suppose A is a 3x3 matrix and we know  

$$f_A(i, 0, 0) \in (3, 3, 1),$$
  
 $f_A(0, 0) \in (-1, 0, 1),$   
 $f_A(0, 0, 1) \in (0, 2, 0).$   
What is  $f_A(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ ?  
Solution: Since  $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 0\\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = (1) \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 0\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + (41) \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + (2) \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 0\\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$  We have  
 $f_A(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) = f_A(1, 0, 0) + 4f_A(0, 1, 0) + 2f_A(0, 0, 1))$   
 $= \begin{bmatrix} 3\\ 3\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 4 \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ 0\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 2\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$   
So why are (L1) and (L2) important?  
Because if a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  satisfies (L1) and  
(L2) and we know  $f(\overline{x}_1), f(\overline{x}_2), \dots, f(\overline{x}_k),$  then we can find

$$f(t_1\vec{x_1} + t_2\vec{x_2} + \dots + t_k\vec{x_k}) = t_1f(\vec{x_1}) + t_2f(\vec{x_2}) + \dots + t_kf(\vec{x_k}).$$

For a matrix mapping we can say even more!  
Since 
$$f_A(\vec{e_i}) = A\vec{e_i} = i^{th}$$
 column of  $A$ , we have  
 $A = \left[f_A(\vec{e_i}) \ f_A(\vec{e_2}) \ \cdots \ f_A(\vec{e_n})\right]$ 

So fa is entirely determined by what it does to the standard basis!

Ex: From the previous example,  

$$f_A(1,0,0) = (3,3,1), \quad f_A(0,1,0) = (-1,0,1), \quad f_A(0,0,1) = (0,2,0)$$

So 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} f_A(\vec{e_1}) & f_A(\vec{e_2}) & f_A(\vec{e_3}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Linear Mappings

We saw above that matrix mappings satisfy (L1) and (L2). Are there other maps with these properties?

Definition: If a function L: 
$$\mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$
 satisfies  
(L1)  $L(\vec{x}+\vec{y}) = L(\vec{x}) + L(\vec{y})$  for all  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  
(L2)  $L(t\vec{x}) = tL(\vec{x})$  for all  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  
We call L a linear mapping or a linear transformation.  
Ex: Show that the map  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  given by  
 $f(x_i, x_2) = (x_2, x_1 - 2x_2)$  is linear.  
Solution: We must show  
(L1)  $f(\vec{x}+\vec{y}) = f(\vec{x}) + f(\vec{y})$  and (L2)  $f(t\vec{x}) = tf(\vec{x})$   
for all  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$(L1) \quad f(\vec{x}+\vec{y}) = f(x_1+y_1, x_2+y_2)$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_2+y_2\\ (x_1+y_1) - 2(x_2+y_2) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_2+y_2\\ (x_1-2x_2) + (y_1-2y_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_{2} \\ x_{1}-2x_{2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_{1} \\ y_{1}-2y_{2} \end{bmatrix} = f(x_{1},x_{2}) + f(y_{1},y_{2}).$$
  
$$\therefore (L1) \text{ holds}.$$

$$(L2): f(tx): f(tx_1, tx_2)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} tx_2 \\ tx_1 - 2(tx_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} tx_2 \\ t(x_1 - 2x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= t \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 \end{bmatrix} = t f(x_1, x_2) \qquad \therefore (L2) \text{ hold s.}$$

To show a function is <u>NOT linear</u>, we must exhibit <u>Specific vectors</u> that violate (L1) or (L2).

Ex: Show that the function 
$$g: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$
 given by  
 $g(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x, x_2, x_3)$  is NOT linear.

Solution: Note that 
$$g(i_1,i_1) = \begin{bmatrix} (1)(1) \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  
 $g(z_1,z_1,z) = \begin{bmatrix} (2)(z) \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . (if of ...  
 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ z \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  but  $g(z_1,z_1,z) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \pm 2 \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2g(i_1,i_1)$   
 $\vdots, (L2) = fails, so g is NOT linear!$ 

Alternative argument:  

$$g(1,0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} (1\times0) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } g(0,1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} (0\times1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
but  $g(1,1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} (1\times1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .  
So  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , but  
 $g(1,1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = g(1,0,0) + g(0,1,0)$ .  
Thus, (L2) fails, so g is NOT linear.

: (LI) holds.

$$(LZ) \quad h(t\bar{x}) = h(t\bar{x}_{1}, t\bar{x}_{2}, t\bar{x}_{3})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} t\bar{x}_{1} - t\bar{x}_{2} \\ t\bar{x}_{1} + 4(t\bar{x}_{3}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} t(\bar{x}_{1} - \bar{x}_{2}) \\ t(\bar{x}_{1} + 4\bar{x}_{3}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= t \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} - z_{2} \\ x_{1} + 4\bar{x}_{3} \end{bmatrix} = th(\bar{x})$$

$$\therefore (LZ) \text{ holds}$$

Since h satisfies (LI) and (LZ), h is linear.

We know that <u>some</u> linear mappings (matrix mappings) can be described using matrices. Can matrices be used to describe all linear mappings? QUESTION

Hmm... to answer this let's consider an example.

Consider the mapping 
$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$
 given by  
 $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1 - x_2),$ 

Which we showed above is linear.

Ex:

If this were a matrix mapping fA, then its columns should be ...

$$|s^{+} column = f(\vec{e}_{1}) = f(1,0) = (0,1)$$
  
2<sup>rd</sup> column = f(\vec{e}\_{2}) = f(0,1) = (1,-1).

Taking 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 we get  

$$\begin{aligned}
f_A(x_1, x_2) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ x_1 - x_2 \end{bmatrix} = f(x_1, x_2)
\end{aligned}$$
So yes, f is a matrix mapping! It turns out  
this is always the case.

Theorem: If 
$$L: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$$
 is linear, then  $L$  can  
be represented as a matrix mapping with matrix  
 $[L] = [L(\vec{e_i}) \ L(\vec{e_2}) \ \cdots \ L(\vec{e_n})]$ 

$$\frac{P_{\text{roof}}}{L\left(\vec{x}\right)} = L\left(x_{1}\vec{e_{1}} + x_{2}\vec{e_{2}} + \dots + x_{n}\vec{e_{n}}\right)$$

$$= x_{1}L\left(\vec{e_{1}}\right) + x_{2}L\left(\vec{e_{2}}\right) + \dots + x_{n}L\left(\vec{e_{n}}\right)$$

$$= \left[L\left(\vec{e_{1}}\right) + L\left(\vec{e_{2}}\right) - \dots + L\left(\vec{e_{n}}\right)\right] \begin{bmatrix}x_{1}\\x_{2}\\\vdots\\x_{n}\end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left[L\right]\vec{x}$$

Ex: Above, we saw that 
$$h: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$
 given by  
 $h(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 - x_2, x_1 + 4x_3)$ 

is linear. How can we represent this as a matrix mapping? Use this to find 
$$h(2,1,0)$$
.

Solution: The corresponding matrix is
$$\begin{bmatrix} h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h(\vec{e_1}) & h(\vec{e_2}) & h(\vec{e_3}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Since

$$h(\vec{e}_{1}) = h(1,0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$h(\vec{e}_{2}) = h(0,1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and }$$

$$h(\vec{e}_{3}) = h(0,0,1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ We have }$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & -I & 0 \\ I & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let's find 
$$h(2,1,0)!$$
  
 $h(2,1,0) = \left(h\right) \left[ \begin{array}{c} 2\\ 1\\ 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 & -1 & 0\\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c} 2\\ 1\\ 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1\\ 2 \end{array} \right].$ 

Combinations of Mappings  
Suppose we have functions  
L: 
$$\mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}^{m}$$
,  $M: \mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}^{m}$ , and  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
From these functions, we can make new functions:  
[sun] L+M:  $\mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}^{m}$  given by  $(L+M)(\bar{x}) = L(\bar{x}) + M(\bar{x})$   
[multiple]  $tL: \mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}^{m}$  given by  $(tL)(\bar{x}) = tL(\bar{x})$ ,  
[ $\underline{FACT}$ : IF L and M are linear, then so  
are L+M and  $tL!$ 

[This is not a tough fact to prove, but it is tedious.  
Try it as an exercise!]  
Note: If L and M are linear, we can find  
[L] and [M] by calculating 
$$L(e_i)$$
 and  $M(e_i)$ .  
Can we use [L] and [M] to find  $[L+M]$ ?  
Can we use [L] to find  $[LL+M]$ ?  
Yes! It turns out that  $[L+M] = [L] + [M]$   
and  $[LL] = L[L]$ .

Why? Well, for any 
$$\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$$
, we have  
 $[L+M]\vec{x} = (L+M)\vec{x}$   
 $= L(\vec{x}) + M(\vec{x})$   
 $= [L]\vec{x} + M[\vec{x}] = ([L]+[M])\vec{x}$   
 $\therefore [L+M] = [L] + [M]$  by Q3 of Assignment 7.

Exercise: Initate the above argument to show that 
$$[tL] = t[L]$$
.

Ex: Consider the mappings 
$$L(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_1 + x_2)$$
  
 $M(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1 - x_2).$ 

By the above FACT, the functions  

$$(L+M)(x_{i},x_{i}) = L(x_{i},x_{i}) + M(x_{i},x_{i})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_{i} \\ x_{i}+x_{i} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x_{i} \\ x_{i}-x_{i} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i}+x_{i} \\ 2x_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$
and  

$$(2L)(x_{i},x_{i}) = 2L(x_{i},x_{i})$$

$$= 2 \begin{bmatrix} x_{i} \\ x_{i}+x_{i} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_{i} \\ 2x_{i}+2x_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

are also linear.

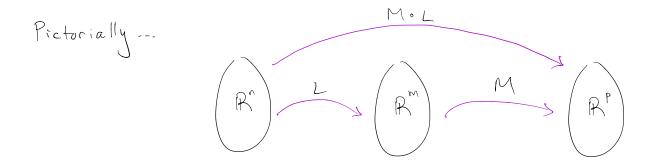
We have 
$$[L] = [L(\vec{e_1}) \ L(\vec{e_2})] = [I \ 0]$$
  
 $[M] = [M(\vec{e_1}) \ M(\vec{e_2})] = [0 \ I]$ 

We could do the same thing to find [L+M] and [ZL], OR we could use the equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} L+M \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} M \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ I & I \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & -I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & I \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2L \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} L \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compositions



Just like in the cases of addition and scalar multiplication, we have...

If 
$$L$$
 and  $M$  are linear, then so is  $M \circ L$   
Why? Well, if  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  
 $(M \circ L)(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = M(L(\vec{x} + \vec{y}))$   
 $= M(L(\vec{x}) + L(\vec{y}))$  (as  $L$  is linear)  
 $= M(L(\vec{x})) + M(L(\vec{y}))$  (as  $M$  is linear)  
 $= (M \circ L)(\vec{x}) + (M \circ L)(\vec{y})$   $\therefore (LI) h \circ Ids$   
 $(M \circ L)(t\vec{x}) = M(L(t\vec{x}))$   
 $= M(t L(\vec{x}))$  (as  $L$  is linear)

$$= \pm M(L(\vec{x})) \qquad (as M is linear)$$
$$= \pm (M \cdot L)(\vec{x}) \qquad (LZ) holds$$

Just like before, if L and M are linear and we know [L] and [M], then we can find [M.L].

Indeed, if 
$$\vec{x}$$
 is any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  
 $\left[M \circ L\right] \vec{x} = (M \circ L)(\vec{x})$   
 $= M(L(\vec{x}))$   
 $= M([L]\vec{x}) = [M][L]\vec{x}.$ 

By Q3 of Assignment 7, we have [M.L] = [M][L].

Ex: Consider the linear mappings from the previous  
example:  
$$L(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_1 + x_2)$$
,  $M(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1 - x_2)$ .

We found that 
$$[L] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $[M] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .  
By the above results, the composition map  
 $(M \circ L)(x_{1}, x_{2}) = M(L(x_{1}, x_{2}))$   
 $= M(x_{1}, x_{1} + x_{2}) = (x_{1} + x_{2}, -x_{2})$ 

is also linear.

We could find this by computing 
$$(M \circ L)(\vec{e_1})$$
 and  $(M \circ L)(\vec{e_2}) \dots OR$  we could use

$$\begin{bmatrix} M \circ L \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$