

8. Linear mappings and matrices

A mapping f from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m is called *linear* if it fulfills the following two properties:

$$(1) \quad f(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) = f(\vec{a}) + f(\vec{b}) \quad \text{for all } \vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$(2) \quad f(\lambda \vec{a}) = \lambda f(\vec{a}) \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{and all } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

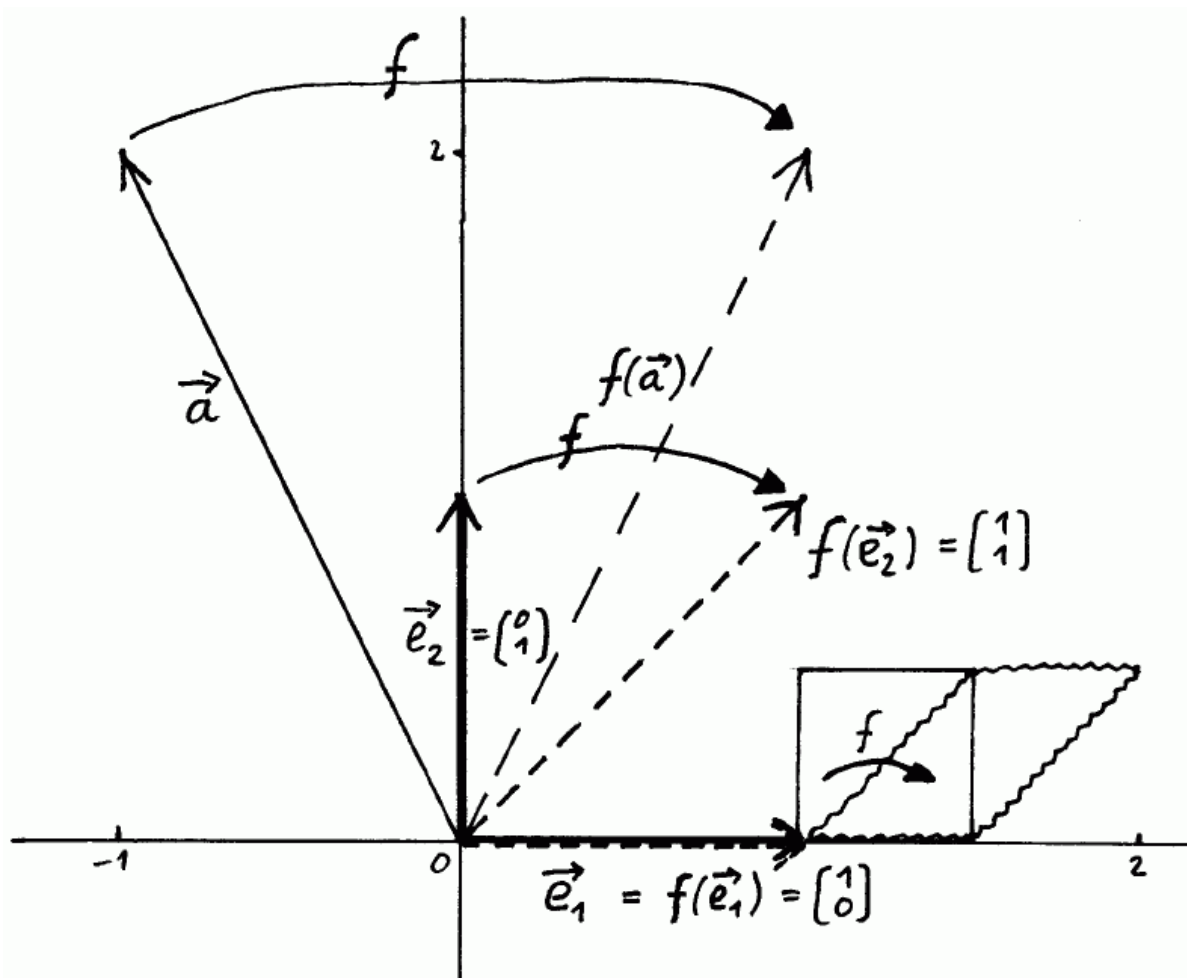
Mappings of this sort appear frequently in the applications. E.g., some important geometrical mappings fall into the class of linear mappings: Rotations around the origin, reflections, projections, scalings, shear mappings...

We show at the example of a shear mapping that such a mapping is completely determined (for all input vectors) if its effect on the vectors of the standard basis are known:

Example

Let f be the mapping from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^2 which performs a *shear* along the x axis, i.e., the image of each point under f can be found at the same height as the original point, but shifted along the x axis by a length which is proportional (in our example: even equal) to the y coordinate.

The figure illustrates the effect of f at the examples of the standard basis vectors and an arbitrary vector \vec{a} :



We have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f: \mathbb{R}^2 &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\
 f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \cdot f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 f \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

f is indeed a linear mapping, that means:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) &= f(\vec{a}) + f(\vec{b}) \quad \text{and} \\
 f(c \cdot \vec{a}) &= c \cdot f(\vec{a}) \quad \text{are fulfilled.}
 \end{aligned}$$

The general formula for this shear mapping is apparently:

$$f \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

To get knowledge about the image $f \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$

of an arbitrary vector $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, it is sufficient to know the *images of the vectors of the standard basis*, i.e., $f \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x \cdot \vec{e}_1 + y \cdot \vec{e}_2$$

f is linear

$$\Rightarrow f \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = f(x \cdot \vec{e}_1 + y \cdot \vec{e}_2) \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} x \cdot f(\vec{e}_1) + y \cdot f(\vec{e}_2)$$

Here: $f \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$,

confirming our formula above.

That means: These images, here $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, describe f completely.

They are put together in a *matrix*:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \text{matrix of } f.$$

In general:

Matrix of a linear mapping $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

has m rows and n columns
 \Rightarrow "matrix of type $(m; n)$ "
 all entries a_{ij} are real numbers

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix describes its associated linear mapping completely.

The result of the application of f to a vector $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can easily be calculated as the *product* of the *matrix of f with the vector \vec{x}* .

In our example:

$$f \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot x + 1 \cdot y \\ 0 \cdot x + 1 \cdot y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

In the general case:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \cdot x_1 + a_{12} \cdot x_2 + \dots + a_{1n} \cdot x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \cdot x_1 + a_{m2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + a_{mn} \cdot x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 6 \\ 3 \cdot 5 + 4 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 \\ 39 \end{bmatrix}$$

General definition of a matrix:

A *matrix* of type $(m; n)$, also: $m \times n$ matrix ("m cross n"), is a system of $m \cdot n$ numbers a_{ij} , $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, \dots, n$, ordered in m rows and n columns:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

a_{ij} is called the *element* or *entry* of the i -th row and the j -th column. The $m \cdot n$ numbers a_{ij} are the *components* of the matrix.

A matrix of type $(m; n)$ has m rows and n columns. Each row is an n -dimensional vector (row vector), and each column is an m -dimensional column vector.

The list of elements a_{ii} ($i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ with $r = \min(m, n)$) is called the *principal diagonal* of the matrix.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & -3 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & -1 \\ -3 & 4 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A is of type $(3; 4)$.

A has 3 row vectors:

$$\vec{z}_1 = (1, 4, -3, 2) \quad , \quad \vec{z}_2 = (2, 3, 0, -1) \quad , \quad \vec{z}_3 = (-3, 4, 1, 1)$$

and four column vectors:

$$\vec{s}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \vec{s}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \vec{s}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \vec{s}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Its principal diagonal is 1; 3; 1.

Special forms of matrices:

- quadratic matrix:

If $m = n$, i.e., if the matrix A has as many rows as it has columns, A is called *quadratic*.

- $m = 1$: A matrix of type $(1; n)$ is a row vector.

- $n = 1$: A matrix of type $(m; 1)$ is a column vector.

- $m = n = 1$: A matrix of type $(1; 1)$ can be identified with a single real number (i.e., its single entry).

- diagonal matrix:

If A is quadratic and all elements outside the principal diagonal are 0, A is called a *diagonal matrix*.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- unit matrix:

The unit matrix E is a diagonal matrix where all elements of the principal diagonal are 1.

It plays an important role: Its associated linear mapping is the *identical mapping* $f(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}$.

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- zero matrix:

The matrix where *all* entries are 0 is called the zero matrix.

- triangular matrix:

A matrix where all elements below the principal diagonal are 0 is called an *upper triangular matrix*.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & -1 & 7 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 42 \end{bmatrix}$$

Analogous: A matrix where all elements above the principal diagonal are 0 is called a *lower triangular matrix*.

Addition of matrices and *multiplication* of a matrix with a scalar:

These operations are defined in the same way as for vectors, i.e., component-wise.

Example:

$$5 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \cdot 1 - 1 & 5 \cdot 3 + 0 \\ 5 \cdot 0 + 7 & 5 \cdot 2 + 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 15 \\ 7 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

Attention: Only matrices of the same type can be added.

Multiplication of a matrix with a column vector:

Defined as above, i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \cdot x_1 + a_{12} \cdot x_2 + \dots + a_{1n} \cdot x_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \cdot x_1 + a_{m2} \cdot x_2 + \dots + a_{mn} \cdot x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The result corresponds to the image of the vector under the corresponding linear mapping.

Here, the matrix must have as many columns as the vector has components!

Transposition of a matrix:

Let A be a matrix of type $(m; n)$. The matrix A^T of type $(n; m)$, where its k -th row is the k -th column of A ($k = 1, \dots, m$), is called the *transposed matrix* of A . (Transposition = reflection at the principal diagonal.)

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ -2 & 3 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ of type } (3; 2) \Rightarrow$$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ of type } (2; 3)$$

Special case: Transposition of a row vector (type $(1; m)$) gives a column vector (type $(m; 1)$), and vice versa.

Submatrix:

A *submatrix* of type $(m-k; n-p)$ of a matrix A of type $(m; n)$ is obtained by omitting k rows and p columns from A .

The special submatrix derived from A by omitting the i -th row and the j -th column is sometimes denoted A_{ij} .

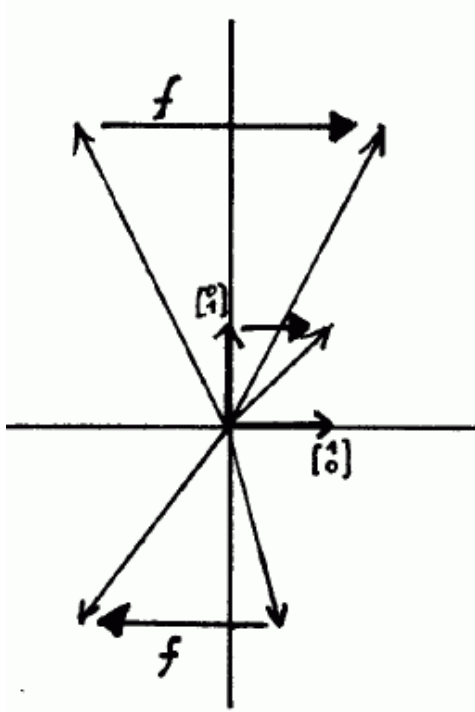
We now come back to *linear mappings*, which were our entrance point to motivate the introduction of matrices.

Properties of linear mappings are reflected in numerical attributes of their corresponding matrices.

An important example is the so-called *rank* of a linear mapping.

We demonstrate it at two examples:

$f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ shear mapping (= example from above)



$$f \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix of f :

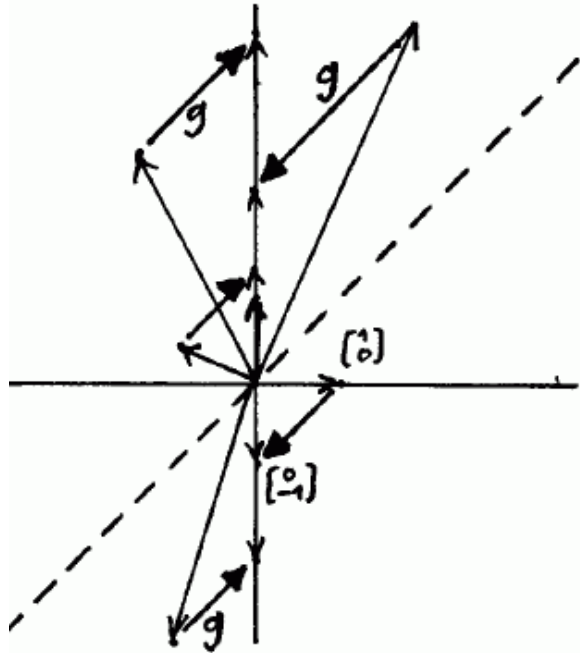
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The images

$$f \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, f \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(i.e., the column vectors of the matrix of f) are linearly independent, they span the whole plane \mathbb{R}^2

$g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ projection along the principal diagonal onto the y axis



$$g \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix of g :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The images

$$g \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, g \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(i.e., the column vectors of the matrix of g) are linearly dependent, they are on the same line through 0 (i.e., on the y axis)

\Rightarrow each vector is an image under f (f is surjective) $\text{rank } f = 2$ (= dimension of the plane)	\Rightarrow only the y axis is the range of g (g is not surjective) $\text{rank } g = 1$ (= dimension of the line)
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Definition:

The rank of a matrix A is the maximal number of linearly independent column vectors of A .

Notation: $\text{rank}(A)$, $r(A)$.

This is consistent with our former definition:

$\text{rank}(A)$ = rank of the system of column vectors of A (as a vector system).

At the same time, it is the dimension of the range of the corresponding linear mapping of A .

Theorem:

$\text{rank}(A)$ is also the maximal number of linearly independent row vectors of A .

"column rank = row rank" !

Special cases:

The rank of the zero matrix is 0 (= smallest possible rank of a matrix).

The rank of E , the $n \times n$ unit matrix, is n (= largest possible rank of an $n \times n$ matrix).

The rank of an $m \times n$ matrix A can be at most the number of rows and at most the number of columns:

$$0 \leq \text{rank}(A) \leq \min(m, n).$$

For determining the rank of a matrix, it is useful to know that under certain *elementary operations* the *rank* of a matrix *does not change*:

Elementary row operations

- (1) Reordering of rows (particularly, switching of two rows)
- (2) multiplication of a complete row by a number $c \neq 0$
- (3) addition or omission of a row which is a linear combination of other rows
- (4) addition of a linear combination of rows to another row.

Analogous for column operations.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 & -4 \\ 3 & 11 & 1 \\ -4 & -14 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

By applying elementary row operations, we transform A into an upper triangular matrix (parentheses are omitted for convenience):

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c}
 2 & 6 & -4 & :2 \\
 3 & 11 & 1 & \\
 -4 & -14 & 1 & \\
 \hline
 1 & 3 & -2 & \left. \begin{array}{l} \cdot 3 \\ - \end{array} \right\} \\
 3 & 11 & 1 & \left. \begin{array}{l} \cdot 4 \\ + \end{array} \right\} \\
 -4 & -14 & 1 & \\
 \hline
 1 & 3 & -2 & \\
 0 & 2 & 7 & \\
 0 & -2 & -7 & \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ + \end{array} \right\} \\
 \hline
 1 & 3 & -2 & \\
 0 & 2 & 7 & \\
 0 & 0 & 0 &
 \end{array}$$

The rank of A must be the same as the rank of the matrix obtained in the end.

The rank of this triangular matrix can easily be seen to be 2 (one zero row; zero rows are always linearly dependent! – The other two rows must be independent because of the first components 1 and 0.)