

ORMC: LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

OLYMPIAD GROUP 1, WEEK 7

Today we will focus on a quite general class of transformations of Euclidean space, called *linear transformations*; we've actually seen many examples of these before. If we think of points in \mathbb{R}^2 as vectors $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$, a *linear transformation* $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is any map with the properties

$$T(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = T(\vec{v}) + T(\vec{w}) \quad \text{and} \quad T(\alpha\vec{v}) = \alpha T(\vec{v}),$$

for any real α . Here, the additions of vectors and their scalings by α have the obvious meanings:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}, \quad 3 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Linear transformations are those which *preserve* these “linear” operations of addition and scaling (the same definition generalizes to \mathbb{R}^3 , \mathbb{R}^4 , etc.). Equivalently, they preserve linear combinations:

$$T(\alpha\vec{v} + \beta\vec{w}) = \alpha T(\vec{v}) + \beta T(\vec{w}).$$

Now we turn to a way to represent such transformations compactly. The key observation is that any vector $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ can be represented as a linear combination of the *standard basis vectors* $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that for any linear transformation T ,

$$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

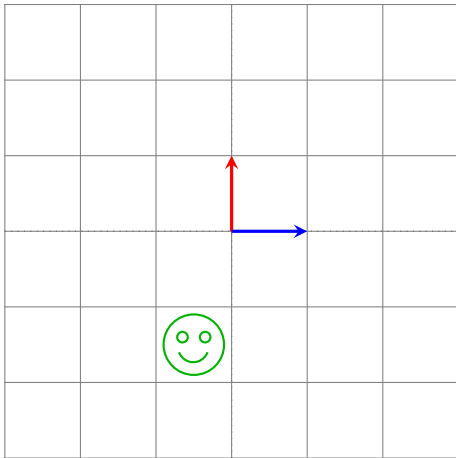
so to describe T , it suffices to know the values of $T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. We can thus represent T as a 2×2 matrix:

$$T \longleftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where } T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ d \end{pmatrix}.$$

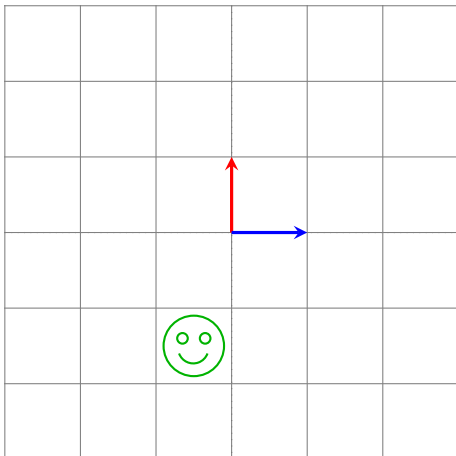
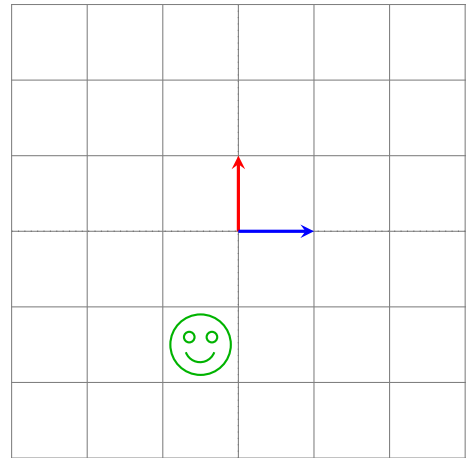
The general resulting formula is

$$\boxed{\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} b \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{pmatrix}.$$

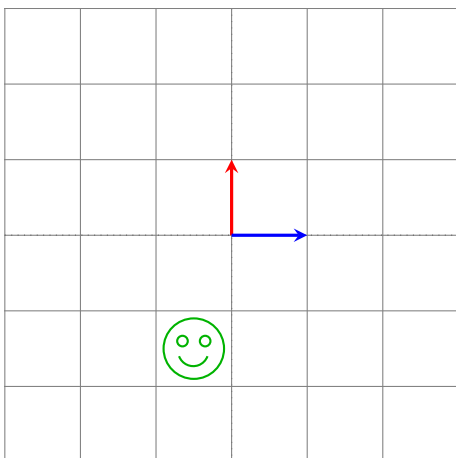
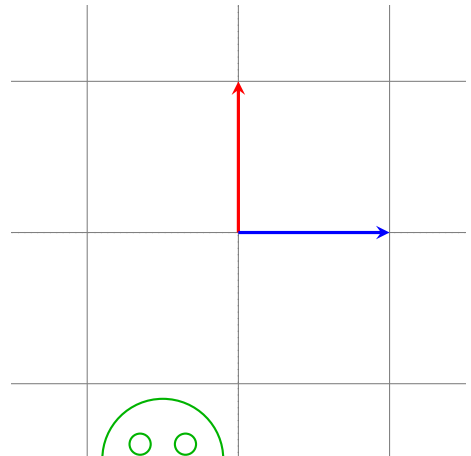
Below are a few pictures of how some linear transformations (represented as 2×2 matrices) transform the Euclidean plane. On the left, the blue and red vectors are $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.



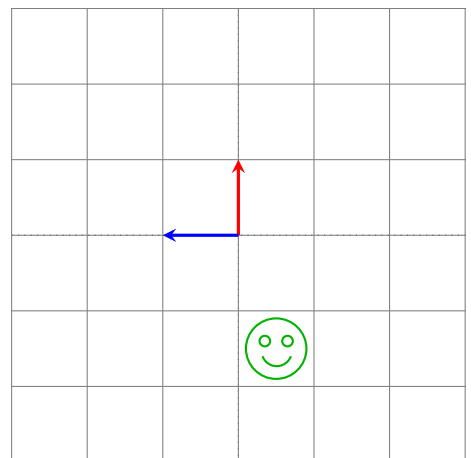
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

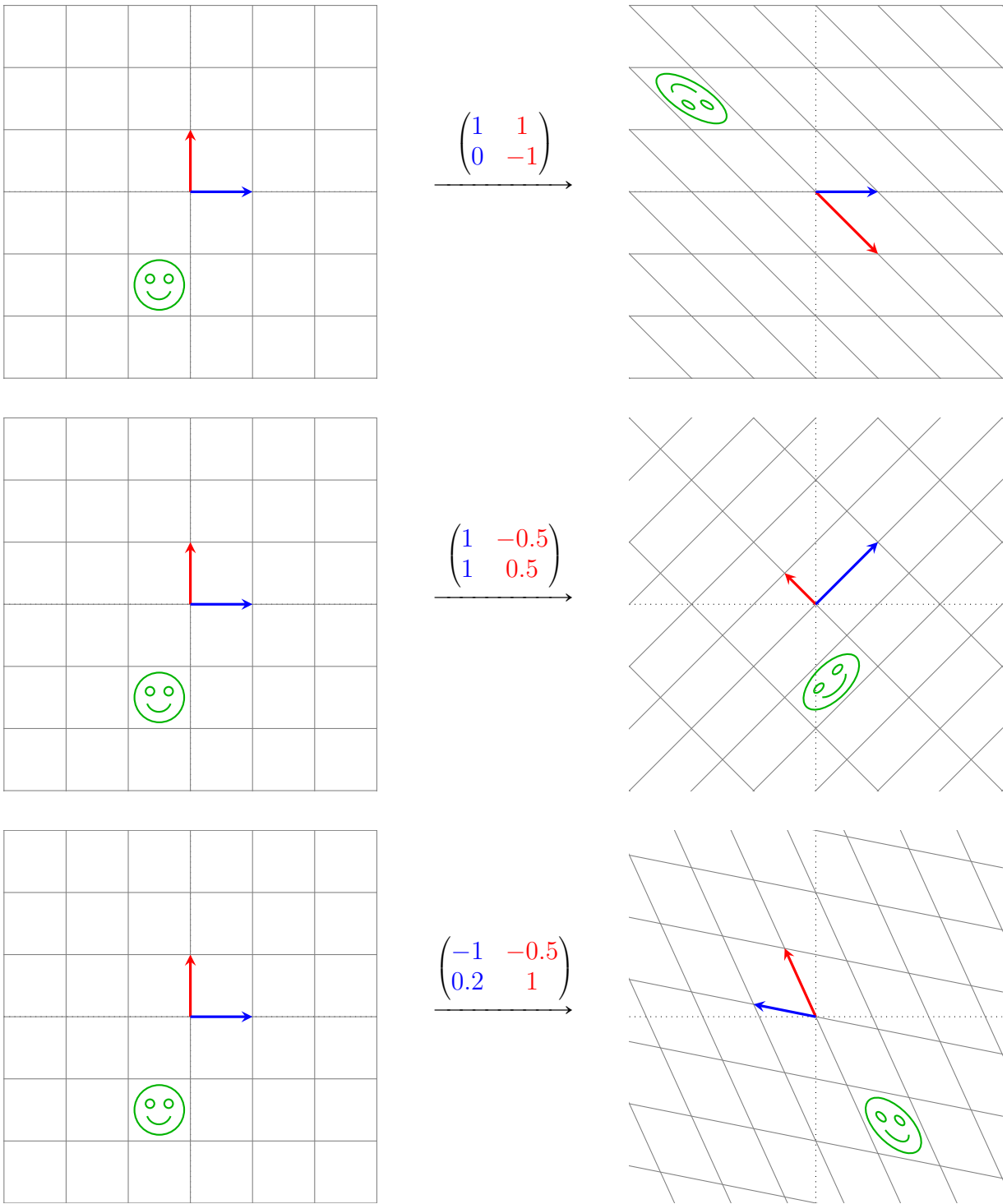


$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



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





By looking at what happens to a vector $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ (or, without loss of generality, to the standard basis vectors), it makes sense to define the addition and multiplication of two matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ p & q \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+m & b+n \\ c+p & d+q \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ p & q \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} am+bp & an+bq \\ cm+dp & cn+dq \end{pmatrix}.$$

These correspond to what happens when we add, respectively *compose*, linear transformations. Indeed, if A, B are 2×2 matrices and $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is a vector, we have

$$(A + B)\vec{v} = A\vec{v} + B\vec{v}, \quad \text{and} \quad (AB)\vec{v} = A(B\vec{v}).$$

WARNING: The multiplication of matrices is not generally commutative! For example,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Problem 1. (Homotheties)

(a) Show that the *identity matrix* $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix},$$

for any $x, y, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

(b) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Show that the matrix $\lambda I = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix},$$

for any $x, y, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$. Does this relate to any type of transformation that you've seen before?

Problem 2. (Rotational homotheties and reflections)

(a) Let a, b be a real numbers. If we associate to the complex number $z = x + yi$ the vector $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$, show that the complex map

$$z \mapsto (a + bi) \cdot z$$

corresponds to the linear transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Remark. You can thus think of 2×2 matrices as a *generalization* of complex numbers.

(b) What does a rotation by α radians (counterclockwise) with respect to the origin look like, as a 2×2 matrix?

(c) What does the reflection with respect to the real axis, $z \mapsto \bar{z}$, look like as a matrix?

Problem 3. (Determinants and areas) Define the *determinant* of a 2×2 matrix by

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} := ad - bc.$$

(a) Show that the image of the unit square $\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} : 0 \leq x, y \leq 1 \}$ under the linear transformation $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ is a parallelogram of area

$$\left| \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \right|.$$

Remark: This holds for more general shapes too, so you can think of the determinant as a *homothety factor for areas*.

(b) What happens when the determinant is zero?

(c*) Show that for any 2×2 matrices A, B , one has

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B).$$

Explain why this makes sense in terms of *homothety factors for areas*.

(d) What's the determinant of the linear transformation $z \mapsto (a + bi) \cdot z$ from Problem 2(a)? What's the analogue of part (c) above in terms of complex numbers?

Problem 4. (Inverses and systems of linear equations)

(a) Fix real constants a, b, c, d . Try to solve for x and y in the system

$$\begin{cases} ax + by = 2 \\ cx + dy = 5. \end{cases}$$

What needs to happen so that there is exactly one solution $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$? How does this relate to Problem 3(b)?

(b) Denote $A := \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, and assume that $\det(A) \neq 0$. Consider the matrix

$$A^{-1} := \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Show that $A^{-1} \cdot A = A \cdot A^{-1} = I$.

(c) Verify that the linear system in part (a) can be represented as the matrix-vector equation

$$A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix},$$

where we denoted $A := \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$. Left-multiply both sides by A^{-1} to solve the linear system.

(d) Suppose that $A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ is a homothety by λ , and $B = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ is a rotation by α radians. What do A^{-1} and B^{-1} look like?

Problem 5. (Fibonacci numbers)

(a) Show that the Fibonacci numbers (given by $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$, $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$), satisfy

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_{n-2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b) Conclude that for all $n \geq 1$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(c) You can assume that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \end{pmatrix} A^{-1},$$

where $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1+\sqrt{5} & 1-\sqrt{5} \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Show that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n = A \begin{pmatrix} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n & 0 \\ 0 & \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n \end{pmatrix} A^{-1}.$$

(d*) Deduce that for all $n \geq 0$,

$$F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n \right).$$

[3 × 3 matrices: linear transformations on \mathbb{R}^3 ; determinants are homothety factors for volumes]

Problem 6. (Rotations in 3D)

- (a) What does the identity 3×3 matrix look like? How about a homothety by λ ?
 (b) Show that the matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha & 0 \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & 0 & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin \alpha & 0 & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

correspond to rotations in \mathbb{R}^3 around the z -axis, the x -axis, and the y -axis respectively.

- (c) Set $\alpha = \pi/2 = 90^\circ$, and verify that no two of the corresponding 3D-rotations commute.
 (d) Define the determinant of a 3×3 matrix by

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & j \end{pmatrix} := aej + bfg + cdh - ceg - afh - bdj.$$

(\diagdown diagonals minus \diagup diagonals)

Compute the determinants of the matrices in part (b).

HOMEWORK 1

Problem 1. Let A and B be the 2×2 matrices corresponding to (counterclockwise) rotations by 90° , respectively 270° , with respect to the origin.

- (a) Compute A and B , by looking at what they do to the standard basis vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
 (b) Compute $A^3 = A \cdot A \cdot A$, and compare it with B . Compute $B^3 = B \cdot B \cdot B$, and compare it with A . Why does this happen?
 (c) Compute A^4 and B^4 .

Problem 2. Consider the following transformation, which you can assume is linear: for any vector \vec{v} , we rotate \vec{v} counterclockwise by 90° around the origin, then reflect the result across the real axis; we denote the final result by $T(\vec{v})$. Compute the matrix associated to T in two ways:

- (a) By looking at what it does to the standard basis vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
 (b) By multiplying the matrix A corresponding to the rotation by 90° , and the matrix R corresponding to the reflection across the real axis. Be careful about the order in which you multiply them (A should be applied to a vector \vec{v} first, so should we compute AR or RA ?).

HOMEWORK 2

Problem 1. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ be a 2×2 matrix. Show that $\det A = 0$ if and only if there exists a nonzero vector $v = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ satisfying $Av = 0$. Note: this is in fact true for a square matrix of arbitrary size, not just 2×2 ; however, it is not so easy to prove.

Problem 2. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ be a 2×2 matrix, and let $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$ be two nonzero vectors such that $Av_1 = 7v_1$ and $Av_2 = 13v_2$. If we let $V = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{pmatrix}$, show that

$$AV = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 13 \end{pmatrix} V.$$

If we further assume that V is invertible, find a formula for A^n . Hint: Recall what we did for the Fibonacci numbers.