

Notes on Chapter 5, Section 1

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1 Introduction

These notes cover pages 252 to 261 of NFCM [1].

2 Linear Functions and Matrices: Adjoints and Inverses

We begin with the projection operator.

$$P_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^{-1} \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} . \quad (1)$$

But since

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}) , \quad (2)$$

then

$$P_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}^{-1}(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}^{-1}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}) . \quad (3)$$

Page 254.

The text says that for every linear function f that takes values in the range space and an arbitrary vector \mathbf{y} in the range space, there exists a linear function from the range space back to the domain space such that the following relation holds true:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) , \quad (4)$$

where \bar{f} is called the *adjoint* of f . Just looking at the LHS side of this last equation, it seems obvious that \bar{f} takes its values in the domain space because it's dotting \mathbf{x} which is a domain vector. However, the implicit definition of a function does not guarantee its existence. But we can do that by solving for \bar{f} , from which we get that

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) . \quad (5)$$

To prove this, we just multiply through both sides of (4) by $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}$ to get

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y} \cdot f(\mathbf{x})) . \quad (6)$$

We'll manipulate the left-hand side and right-hand side separately. In both cases we use the fact that \mathbf{y} is not a function of \mathbf{x} . An identity we'll need is

$$\partial_i x_j = \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_i} = \delta_{ij} . \quad (7)$$

Starting with the LHS:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{x} &= \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} [\bar{f}(\mathbf{y})]_j x_j \\
&= \sigma_i \partial_i [\bar{f}(\mathbf{y})]_j x_j \\
&= \sigma_i \delta_{ij} [\bar{f}(\mathbf{y})]_j \\
&= \sigma_j [\bar{f}(\mathbf{y})]_j \\
&= \bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) .
\end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Now for the right-hand side:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} (\mathbf{y} \cdot f(\mathbf{x})) &= \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} (\sigma_k y_k \cdot x_j f(\sigma_j)) \\
&= \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} y_k x_j (\sigma_k \cdot f(\sigma_j)) \\
&= \sigma_i \partial_i y_k x_j f_{jk} \\
&= \sigma_i \delta_{ij} y_k f_{jk} \\
&= \sigma_j y_k f_{jk} .
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

And we're halfway there.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{y} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) &= y_i \partial_i (x_j f(\sigma_j)) \\
&= y_i \delta_{ij} f(\sigma_j) \\
&= y_i f(\sigma_i) \\
&= y_i f_{ji} \sigma_i \\
&= \sigma_j y_k f_{jk} .
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Hence,

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \bar{f}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} (\mathbf{y} \cdot f(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{y} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) . \tag{11}$$

Page 255.

Let f be a linear function from the domain of 3-vectors to the range of 3-vectors. We let \underline{f} be the extension of f to act linearly on all n -graded objects, from scalars to vector to bivectors to pseudoscalars. In particular, for any three domain vectors, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$,

$$\underline{f}(\mathbf{x} \wedge \mathbf{y} \wedge \mathbf{z}) \equiv f(\mathbf{x}) \wedge f(\mathbf{y}) \wedge f(\mathbf{z}) . \tag{12}$$

Generally,

$$\underline{f}(\mathbf{x}_1 \wedge \mathbf{x}_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge \mathbf{x}_k) \equiv f(\mathbf{x}_1) \wedge f(\mathbf{x}_2) \wedge \cdots \wedge f(\mathbf{x}_k) . \tag{13}$$

This preservation of the number of wedges of the domain being preserved in the range is called an *outermorphism*. Since $f(\mathbf{x}) \wedge f(\mathbf{y}) \wedge f(\mathbf{z})$ must be proportional to the original pseudoscalar $\mathbf{x} \wedge \mathbf{y} \wedge \mathbf{z}$ then we can write

$$\underline{f}(\mathbf{x} \wedge \mathbf{y} \wedge \mathbf{z}) = (\det f) \mathbf{x} \wedge \mathbf{y} \wedge \mathbf{z} , \tag{14}$$

where $\det f$ is the scalar function of proportionality. A canonical way to solve for \underline{f} is this

$$\underline{f}(i) = (\det f) i , \tag{15}$$

from which we get

$$\det f = i^{-1} \underline{f}(i) = i^{-1} \bar{f}(i) . \tag{16}$$

The proof that $\underline{f}(i) = \bar{f}(i)$ is given below.

We now have arrived at what I consider the main result of this section: The inverse of a linear transformation.

Definiiton: If f is a linear transformation, then f is said to be *singular* if $\det f = 0$, and *nonsingular*, otherwise.

Main Result:

Assuming that f is a linear, nonsingular transformation, then

$$f^{-1}(\mathbf{y}) = \bar{f}(\mathbf{y}i)/\bar{f}(i) = \frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}i)i^{-1}}{\det f}, \quad (17)$$

Proof:

Given: f is a linear, nonsingular transformation, such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}. \quad (18)$$

Now, consider

$$\mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) = \mathbf{x}\bar{f}(\sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_2) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3), \quad (19)$$

where we have used two simple facts. First, that $\mathbf{x} \wedge \bar{f}(i) \equiv 0$ and, second, that \bar{f} is itself an outermorphism. Continuing, we have that

$$\mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \bar{f}(\sigma_2) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3) - \mathbf{x} \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_2) \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3) + \mathbf{x} \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_3) \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_2). \quad (20)$$

But we know that¹

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_k) = \underline{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_k = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_k. \quad (21)$$

Hence, (20) becomes

$$\mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 \bar{f}(\sigma_2) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3) - f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3) + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_2). \quad (22)$$

Now we combine the wedge products:

$$\mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 \bar{f}(\sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3) - f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 \bar{f}(\sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_3) + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 \bar{f}(\sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2). \quad (23)$$

Next, we replace the bivector arguments by their dual equivalents:

$$\mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 \bar{f}(i\sigma_1) + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 \bar{f}(i\sigma_2) + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 \bar{f}(i\sigma_3). \quad (24)$$

Now we remember that $f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_k$ is a scalar and that \bar{f} is linear:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}\bar{f}(i) &= \bar{f}(f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 i\sigma_1) + \bar{f}(f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 i\sigma_2) + \bar{f}(f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 i\sigma_3) \\ &= \bar{f}(f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 i\sigma_1 + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 i\sigma_2 + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 i\sigma_3) \\ &= \bar{f}([f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_1 \sigma_1 + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_2 \sigma_2 + f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \sigma_3 \sigma_3]i) \\ &= \bar{f}(f(\mathbf{x})i). \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}i)}{\bar{f}(i)} = \frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}i)}{i \det f}. \quad (26)$$

¹We proved that a linear function \bar{f} from the range to the domain exists that satisfies the relation (4).

From this we get

$$f^{-1}(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\bar{f}(\mathbf{y}i)i^{-1}}{\det f}. \quad (27)$$

Lemma 1:

Assuming that f is a linear transformation, then

$$\bar{f}(i) = \underline{f}(i). \quad (28)$$

Proof:

Given: f is a linear transformation, then

$$\begin{aligned} i\bar{f}(i) &= \sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3 \cdot \bar{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_2) \wedge \bar{f}(\sigma_3) \\ &= \dot{} \\ &= \underline{f}(\sigma_1) \wedge \underline{f}(\sigma_2) \wedge \underline{f}(\sigma_3) \cdot \sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3 \\ &= \underline{f}(\sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3) \cdot \sigma_1 \wedge \sigma_2 \wedge \sigma_3 \\ &= \underline{f}(i) \cdot i \\ &= \underline{f}(i)i. \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

Hence

$$\bar{f}(i) = \underline{f}(i). \quad (30)$$

Page 257–9. (Einstein summation convention in effect where reasonable.)

$$\mathbf{f}_k = f(\sigma_k) = \sigma_j f_{jk} = \mathbf{f}_k \cdot \sigma_j \sigma_j. \quad (31)$$

Or,

$$\sigma_j f_{jk} = \langle \sigma_j f(\sigma_k) \rangle = \langle \sigma_j \mathbf{f}_k \rangle. \quad (32)$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_i \cdot (gf\sigma_k) &= \sigma_i \cdot (g f_{jk} \sigma_j) \\ &= f_{jk} \sigma_i \cdot (g \sigma_j) \\ &= f_{jk} \sigma_i \cdot (g_{\ell j} \sigma_\ell) \\ &= g_{\ell j} f_{jk} (\sigma_i \cdot \sigma_\ell) \\ &= g_{\ell j} f_{jk} \delta_{i\ell} \\ &= g_{ij} f_{jk}. \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

Problem.

If f is a symmetric linear transformation, what constraint does that place on \bar{f} ?

Solution.

Given that f is a symmetric linear transformation, then its matrix representation is

$$f_{k\ell} = f_{\ell k}. \quad (34)$$

This requires that

$$\sigma_k \cdot \mathbf{f}_\ell = \sigma_\ell \cdot \mathbf{f}_k, \quad (35)$$

or

$$\sigma_k \cdot f(\sigma_\ell) = \sigma_\ell \cdot f(\sigma_k). \quad (36)$$

On converting the LHS to the adjoint equivalent,

$$\bar{f}(\sigma_k) \cdot \sigma_\ell = \sigma_\ell \cdot f(\sigma_k). \quad (37)$$

Now we multiply through by σ_ℓ and sum

$$\sum \bar{f}(\sigma_k) \cdot \sigma_\ell \sigma_\ell = \sum \sigma_\ell \cdot f(\sigma_k) \sigma_\ell. \quad (38)$$

Simplifying, we get

$$\bar{f}(\sigma_k) = f(\sigma_k). \quad (39)$$

♣

References

- [1] D. Hestenes, *New Foundations for Classical Mechanics*, 2nd Ed., Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1999.