

# Optimization and Computational Linear Algebra for Data Science

## Lecture 2: Linear transformations

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**Warning:** *This material is not meant to be lecture notes. It only gathers the main concepts and results from the lecture, without any additional explanation, motivation, examples, figures...*

## 1 Linear transformations

### Definition 1.1 (*Linear transformation*)

A function  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is linear if

- (i) for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $L(\alpha v) = \alpha L(v)$  and
- (ii) for all  $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^m$  we have  $L(v + w) = L(v) + L(w)$ .

Notice that  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is linear if and only if  $L(\alpha v + w) = \alpha L(v) + L(w)$  for all  $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

### Proposition 1.1

The set  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$  of all linear transformations from  $\mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space.

### Proposition 1.2

If  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $M : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  are two linear transformations, then the composite function  $M \circ L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is also linear.

### Theorem 1.1 (*Equality on a basis implies equality everywhere*)

Let  $L$  and  $M$  be two linear transformations from  $\mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $(v_1, \dots, v_m)$  be a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and suppose that for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$  we have

$$L(v_i) = M(v_i).$$

Then  $L = M$ , i.e.  $L(v) = M(v)$  for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

## 2 Matrix representation

From Theorem 1.1 we know that a linear transformation  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is uniquely characterized by the image  $L(v_1), \dots, L(v_m)$  of any basis  $(v_1, \dots, v_m)$  of the input space.

We consider the canonical basis  $(e_1, \dots, e_m)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and encode  $L$  by a  $n \times m$  matrix (that we will write also  $L$ ) whose columns are  $L(e_1), \dots, L(e_m)$ :

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ L(e_1) & L(e_2) & \cdots & L(e_m) \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{1,1} & L_{1,2} & \cdots & L_{1,m} \\ L_{2,1} & L_{2,2} & \cdots & L_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ L_{n,1} & L_{n,2} & \cdots & L_{n,m} \end{pmatrix}$$

where we write  $L(e_j) = \begin{pmatrix} L_{1,j} \\ L_{2,j} \\ \vdots \\ L_{n,j} \end{pmatrix}$ . The matrix  $L$  is called the (canonical) matrix of the linear transformation  $L$ . We denote by  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  the set of all  $n \times m$  matrices.

*Example 2.1* (Homothety). Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . The mapping (called “homothety of ratio  $\lambda$ ”)

$$\begin{aligned} L : \mathbb{R}^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ x &\mapsto \lambda x \end{aligned}$$

is linear. The canonical matrix of  $L$  is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

In the case where  $\lambda = 1$ ,  $L$  is simply the identity, its matrix is called the identity matrix and denoted by

$$\text{Id}_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

### Definition 2.1 (*Matrix product*)

Let  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ . The product  $ML$  is the  $k \times m$  matrix defined by

$$(ML)_{i,j} = \sum_{r=1}^n M_{i,r} L_{r,j} \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i \leq k, \quad 1 \leq j \leq m.$$

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we define the matrix-vector product  $Mx \in \mathbb{R}^k$  by

$$(Lx)_i = \sum_{r=1}^n M_{i,r} x_r, \quad 1 \leq i \leq k.$$

Notice that this corresponds – if we see the vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  as a  $n \times 1$  matrix – to the matrix product between  $M$  and  $x$ .

### Proposition 2.1

Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ . Then for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $M(x) = Mx$ .

### Proposition 2.2 (*Matrix product means composition of linear transformations*)

Let  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $M : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  be two linear transformations whose matrices are also denoted by  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ . Then the  $k \times m$  matrix  $ML$  is the matrix of the linear transformation  $M \circ L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ .

### Proposition 2.3

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times r}$  and  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times s}$ . Then

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

### Proposition 2.4 (*Matrix inverse*)

Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Assume that there exists a matrix  $M^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that

$$MM^{-1} = \text{Id}_n \quad \text{or, such that} \quad M^{-1}M = \text{Id}_n.$$

Then  $MM^{-1} = M^{-1}M = \text{Id}_n$  and  $M^{-1}$  is the unique matrix that verifies this property. We say that  $M$  is invertible and the matrix  $M^{-1}$  is called the inverse of  $M$ .

**Remark 2.1.**  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is invertible if and only if the linear transformation associated to  $M$  is a bijection. In that case,  $M^{-1}$  is the matrix associated to the inverse transformation.

## 3 Kernel and image

### Definition 3.1 (*Kernel*)

The kernel  $\text{Ker}(L)$  (or nullspace) of a linear transformation  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as the set of all vectors  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $L(v) = 0$ , i.e.

$$\text{Ker}(L) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{v \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid L(v) = 0\}.$$

### Definition 3.2 (*Image*)

The image  $\text{Im}(L)$  (or column space) of a linear transformation  $L : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as the set of all vectors  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that there exists  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $L(v) = u$ .  $\text{Im}(L)$  is also the Span of the columns of the matrix representation of  $L$ .

### Proposition 3.1

$\text{Ker}(L)$  and  $\text{Im}(L)$  are subspaces of respectively  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We have

$$L \text{ injective} \iff \text{Ker}(L) = \{0\}$$

and

$$L \text{ surjective} \iff \text{Im}(L) = \mathbb{R}^n.$$

**Application: Solutions of a linear system.** We are interested into solving the system of equations in  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$\begin{cases} a_{1,1}x_1 + a_{1,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{1,m}x_m = y_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n,1}x_1 + a_{n,2}x_2 + \dots + a_{n,m}x_m = y_n \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . If we define the matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  by  $A_{i,j} = a_{i,j}$  the system (1) can be rewritten as

$$Ax = y.$$

Solving (1) precisely mean « finding the inverse image of  $y$  by  $A$  ». From the definition of  $\text{Im}(A)$  we get that **the equation  $Ax = y$  admits (at least) a solution  $x_0$  if and only if  $y \in \text{Im}(A)$ .**

We suppose now to be in that case. We would now like to know if there are other solutions. Let  $x$  be another solution to  $Ax = y$ . By subtraction we get

$$A(x - x_0) = y - y = 0.$$

This means that  $(x - x_0) \in \text{Ker}(A)$ : any solution of  $Ax = y$  can therefore be written as  $x = x_0 + v$  with  $v \in \text{Ker}(A)$ . Conversely, one can verify easily that any vector of this form is a solution. We conclude that if the equation  $Ax = y$  admits a solution  $x_0$ , then the set of **all** solutions is

$$x_0 + \text{Ker}(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x_0 + v \mid v \in \text{Ker}(A)\}.$$

In particular,  $x_0$  **is the unique solution if and only if**  $\text{Ker}(A) = \{0\}$ .

