# 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 ( $Linear\ transformation$ )

 $\overline{A}$  function  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  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  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  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

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

**Remark 1.1.** Let  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear transformation. Then

- L(0) = L(0.0) = 0.L(0) = 0.
- $L(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i L(v_i)$ .

Let  $(e_1, \ldots, e_m)$  be the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . As a consequence of the second point above we have that for all  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ :

$$L(x) = L(\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i e_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i L(e_i).$$

This means that a linear transformation  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is uniquely characterized by the vectors  $L(e_1), \ldots, L(e_m) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

# 2 Matrix representation

#### Definition 2.1

A  $n \times m$  matrix is an array (of real numbers) with n rows and m columns. We denote by  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  the set of all  $n \times m$  matrices.

We can encode a linear transformation  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  by a  $n \times m$  matrix.

### Definition 2.2

Let  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear transformation. The canonical matrix of L is the  $n \times m$  matrix (that we will write also L) whose columns are  $L(e_1), \ldots, L(e_m)$ :

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

where we write 
$$L(e_j) = \begin{pmatrix} L_{1,j} \\ L_{2,j} \\ \vdots \\ L_{n,j} \end{pmatrix}$$
.

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

$$L: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$x \mapsto \lambda x$$

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

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

Definition 2.2 tells us that one can associate a matrix to a linear transformation. The next definition show that one can do the reverse operation: we can obtain a linear transformation from a matrix.

### Definition 2.3

The linear transformation associated to a matrix  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  is the map

$$\begin{array}{cccc} L: & \mathbb{R}^m & \to & \mathbb{R}^n \\ & x & \mapsto & Lx \end{array}$$

where the "matrix-vector" product  $Lx \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$(Lx)_i = \sum_{i=1}^m L_{i,j} x_j$$
 for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

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## Definition 2.4 (Matrix product)

Let  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ . We define the matrix product LM as the  $n \times k$  matrix of the linear transformation  $L \circ M$ . His coefficients are given by the formula:

$$(LM)_{i,j} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{m} L_{i,\ell} M_{\ell,j}$$
 for all  $1 \le i \le n$ ,  $1 \le j \le k$ .

### Proposition 2.1

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 2.2 (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

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

Then  $MM^{-1} = M^{-1}M = \operatorname{Id}_n$  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  $\operatorname{Ker}(L)$  (or nullspace) of a linear transformation  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as the set of all vectors  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$  such that L(v) = 0, i.e.

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

### Definition 3.2 (Image)

The image Im(L) (or column space) of a linear transformation  $L: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  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. Im(L) is also the Span of the columns of the matrix representation of L.

#### Proposition 3.1

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

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

and

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

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

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

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

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

