

## Lecture 9: Linear transformations (class)

Reading:



2.3



4.3-4.4

Today: Linear transformations  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

Goal: Understand the geometry of linear maps.

Recall:

Definition: For an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ ,

- The nullspace of  $A$  is

$$N(A) = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A\vec{x} = \vec{0}\}$$

- The range (or column space) of  $A$  is

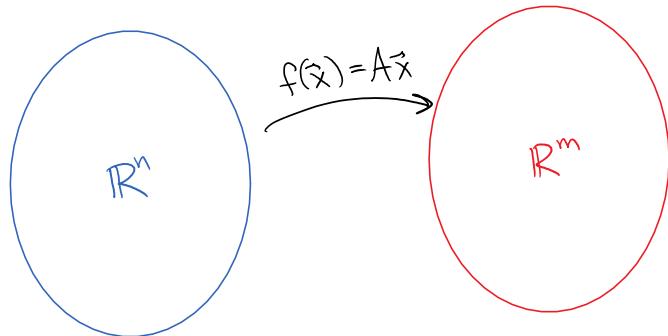
$$R(A) = \{A\vec{x} \mid \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

$$= \text{Span}(\text{columns of } A)$$

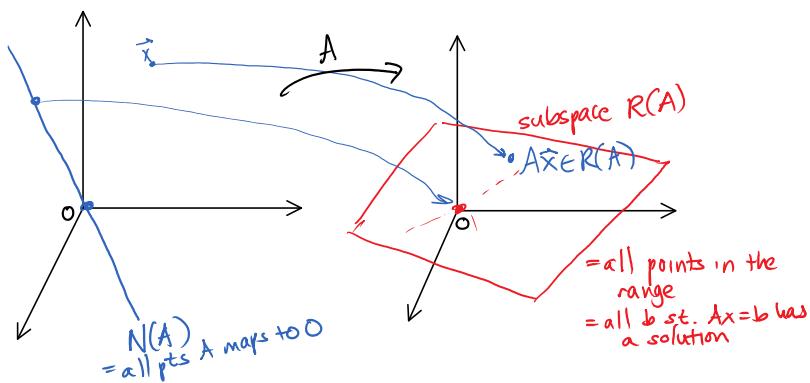
- The rowspace of  $A$  is  $R(A^T) = N(A)^\perp$

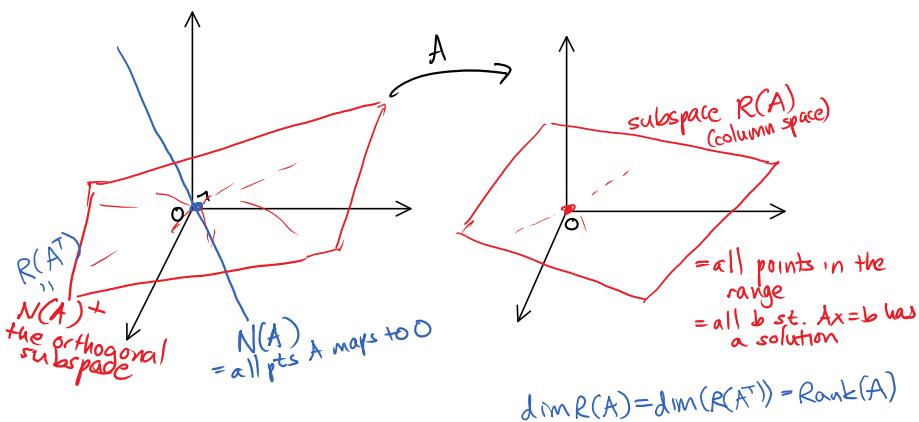
### The geometry of matrices

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  real matrix.



Let's refine this picture...

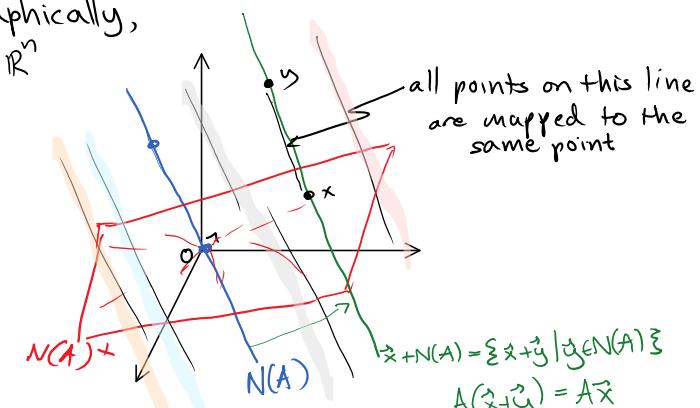




### Observations

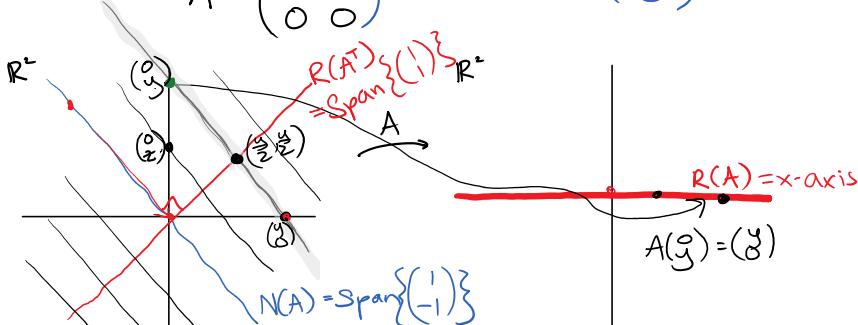
- ① If  $\vec{x} - \vec{y} \in N(A)$ , then  $A\vec{x} = A\vec{y}$ .

Graphically,



Example:  $m = n = 2$   
 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A(\vec{y}) = \begin{pmatrix} x+y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{rank}(A) = 1$$



The y-coordinate (direction parallel to  $N(A)$ ) is irrelevant.

All that matters is the x-coordinate (perpendicular to  $N(A)$ ).

That's also true in general!

In our heads, we can thus break  $A$  into two steps:

- 1) First map  $y$  to  $x$ ,  
i.e., take a point and move it parallel to  $N(A)$  to get to  $N(A)^\perp$ .

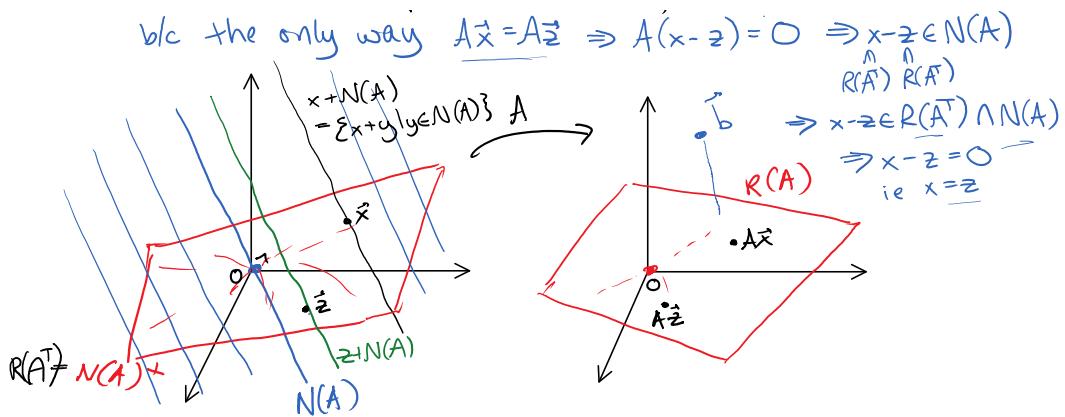
This is a projection; it flattens the space to  $N(A)^\perp$ .

- 2) Map  $\vec{x}$  to  $A\vec{x}$ .

- ② If  $\vec{x}, \vec{z}$  are distinct points in  $N(A)^\perp$ , then  $A\vec{x} \neq A\vec{z}$ .

b/c the only way  $A\vec{x} = A\vec{z} \Rightarrow A(\vec{x} - \vec{z}) = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{x} - \vec{z} \in N(A)$

$$\vec{x} \in N(A) \quad \vec{x} - \vec{z} \in N(A) \quad \vec{x} \in R(A) \quad \vec{z} \in R(A)$$



Thus  $A$  is a 1-to-1 map  $N(A)^\perp \rightarrow R(A)$ . It is invertible between these spaces.

Applications: ① What if  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has no solution?

$(\vec{b} \notin R(A))$

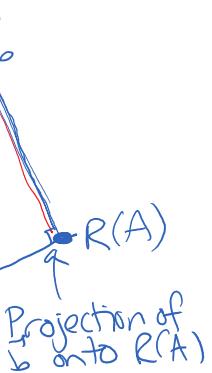
Find  $\vec{x}$  to minimize  $\|A\vec{x} - \vec{b}\|$   
How? Solve  $A\vec{x}$  (Projection of  $\vec{b}$  onto  $R(A)$ )

② What if  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has  $\infty$  (infinitely many) solutions?

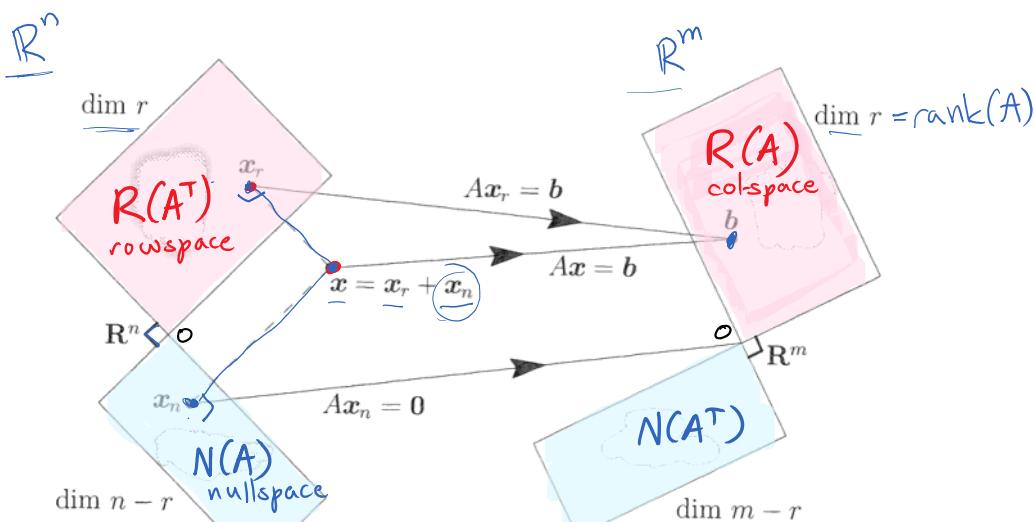
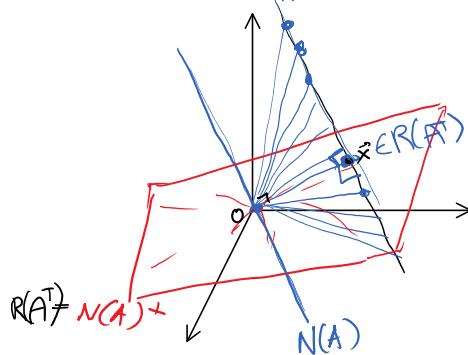
Problem: Find the shortest solution, ie..

$$\arg \min_{\vec{x}} \|\vec{x}\|^2$$

$\dim N(A) \geq 1$



$$\text{s.t. } A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$



$N(A)$  nullspace  
 $\dim n - r$

$N(A^T)$   
 $\dim m - r$

$$N(A) = R(A^T)^\perp$$

$$N(A^T) = R(A)^\perp$$

By the Rank-Nullity theorem,

$$N(A)^\perp = R(A^T) \leftarrow \text{rowspace of } A$$

and  $\dim R(A^T) = \dim R(A) \leftarrow$  called the rank of  $A$ .

## SINGULAR-VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

Informally: Any linear transformation can be split into:  
 - a rotation, followed by  
 - scaling vectors in or out

## LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

Why matrices ???

why matrix multiplication?  
 why matrix inversion?

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

$$f(\alpha \vec{u}) = \alpha \cdot f(\vec{u}) \quad \text{for all vectors } \vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and scalars } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

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

Examples: For  $n=m=2$ ,

- $f(x, y) = (0, 0)$  ✓

- $f$  a rotation by  $\theta$ :  $f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  ✓

- $f(x, y) = (x^2, \sin y)$  X not linear

- $f(x, y) = (1+x, y)$  X not linear

$$\begin{aligned} f(0 \cdot \vec{u}) &= 0 \cdot f(\vec{u}) = \vec{0} \\ f(\vec{0}) &= \vec{0} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x}) &= \vec{0} \text{ is linear} \\ f(\vec{x}) &= \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is not linear} \end{aligned}$$

One more example: For a polynomial  $p$ ,

e.g.,  $5x^2 + 3x + 2$

let

$$f(p) = (2+3x) \cdot p$$

$f$  maps polynomials in  $x$  to polynomials in  $x$   $\leftarrow$  a vector space

and it is a linear transformation!

Claim: This is linear.

$$\therefore f(c \cdot p) = (2+3x) \cdot (c \cdot p) = c \cdot (2+3x) \cdot p = c \cdot f(p) \quad \checkmark$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f(p+q) = (2+3x)p + (2+3x)q = f(p) + f(q) \checkmark \checkmark$$

Example: Recall that  $\{ \text{all } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices} \}$  is a 4D vector space  
 $f(A) = A^T$       Claim: This is linear  
 $\textcircled{1} \quad f(cA) = (cA)^T = cA^T$   
 $\textcircled{2} \quad f(A+B) = A^T + B^T \checkmark$

We'll see lots more examples later (eg., differentiation,...).

**LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS**  
 ↕  
**MATRICES**

We'll see the correspondence today for maps  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  
 and generalize it to arbitrary vector spaces next week lecture

Theorem 1: Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix.

Define  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  by

$$f(\vec{v}) = A\vec{v}.$$

Then  $f$  is a linear transformation.

$$\text{Proof: } \textcircled{1} \quad f(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$$

$$1. \quad f(c\vec{v}) = A(c\vec{v}) = cA\vec{v} = c \cdot f(\vec{v}) \checkmark$$

$$2. \quad f(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = A\vec{v} + A\vec{w} = f(\vec{v}) + f(\vec{w}) \checkmark$$

Theorem 2: Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be any linear transformation.

Then there exists an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  such that

$$f(\vec{v}) = A\vec{v}.$$

Proof:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{e}_1 & \vec{e}_2 & \cdots & \vec{e}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v} = v_1\vec{e}_1 + v_2\vec{e}_2 + \cdots + v_n\vec{e}_n$$

$$A\vec{v} = \sum_j v_j f(\vec{e}_j)$$

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \vec{e}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Claim: For any  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$f(\vec{v}) = A\vec{v}.$$

Proof: Write  $\vec{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{v}) &= f(v_1\vec{e}_1 + v_2\vec{e}_2 + \cdots + v_n\vec{e}_n) \\ &= \sum_j f(v_j\vec{e}_j) \\ &= \sum_j v_j f(\vec{e}_j) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Digression: Pictures are bad!

$$\text{Observe: } \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}_{n \times 1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}_{1 \times n} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

$$A_i = \left( \begin{array}{c} a_{ij} \\ \vdots \\ a_{ij} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j^T$$

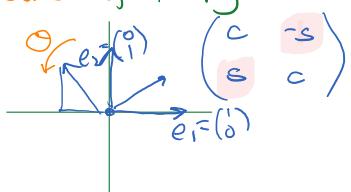
$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\vec{e}_i) \cdot \vec{e}_i^T \quad ! \quad 0$$

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^n f(\mathbf{e}_j) (\mathbf{e}_j)^T$$

Note: This proof is important! It constructs the matrix A.

Examples: Give the matrices for these linear transformations:

a) Rotation of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by  $\theta$ :



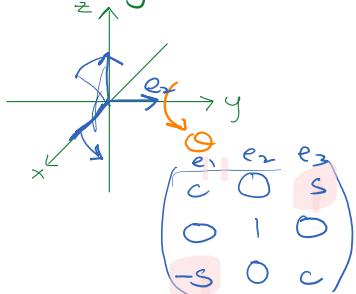
b) Reflection of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the

line at angle  $\theta$ : What is a reflection about a subspace V?  
 1.  $x \in V$  should be fixed  
 2.  $y \in V^\perp$  should be negated

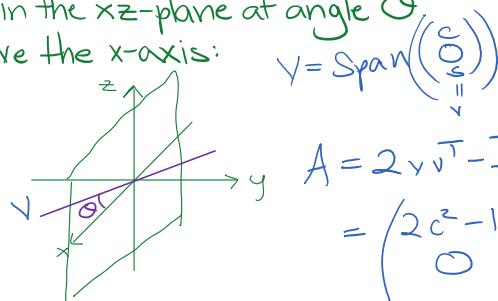
$$(A + I)\vec{x} = 2(\text{Projection of } \vec{x} \text{ onto } V)$$

$$\Rightarrow A = 2\frac{v v^T}{\|v\|^2} - I = 2\begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} - I = \begin{pmatrix} 2c^2 - 1 & 2cs \\ 2cs & 2s^2 - 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

c) Rotation in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by  $\theta$  about the y-axis:



d) Reflection of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  about the line in the xz-plane at angle  $\theta$  above the x-axis:

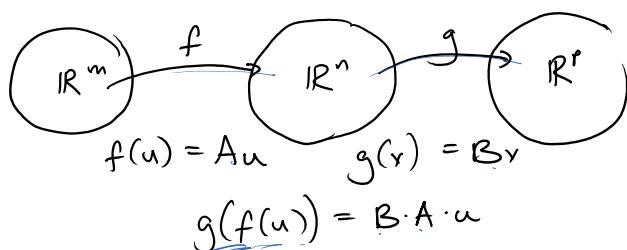


$$A = 2\frac{v v^T}{\|v\|^2} - I = \begin{pmatrix} 2c^2 - 1 & 0 & 2cs \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2cs & 0 & 2s^2 - 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

These theorems are why matrix-vector multiplication is defined the way it is.

What about matrix-matrix multiplication?

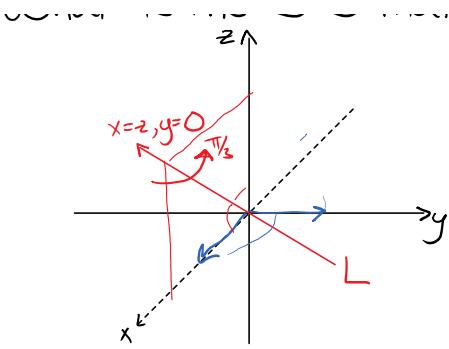
MATRIX MULTIPLICATION  $\leftrightarrow$  LINEAR FUNCTION COMPOSITION



Exercise: Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be the linear transformation that rotates by  $\pi/3$  radians about the line  $\{x=z, y=0\}$ . What is the  $3 \times 3$  matrix representing f?



Answer: In three steps:  
 1.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  via  $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x, z)$



Answer: In three steps:

1. Rotate  $L$  to the  $x$ -axis
2. Rotate by  $\pi/3$  about  $x$ -axis
3. Go back.

$$c = \cos \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

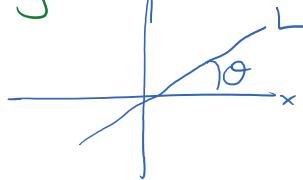
$$s = \sin \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ f(\vec{e}_1) & f(\vec{e}_2) & f(\vec{e}_3) \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_{x\pi/3} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & -s \\ 0 & s & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

answer!

Reflection of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the line at angle  $\theta$ :



Answer: In three steps:

1. Rotate  $L$  to the  $x$ -axis
2. Reflect about  $x$ -axis
3. Go back.

$$\begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ s & -c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c^2 - s^2 & 2cs \\ 2cs & s^2 - c^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2c^2 - 1 & 2cs \\ 2cs & 2s^2 - 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

Exercise: Constructing linear transformations.

a) Give a matrix mapping  $(1, 2, 3) \mapsto (4, 5, 6)$ .

Answer:

There are many possible answers, e.g.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We can find all solutions:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$a_{11} + 2a_{12} + 3a_{13} = 4$$

$$a_{21} + 2a_{22} + 3a_{23} = 5$$

$$a_{31} + 2a_{32} + 3a_{33} = 6$$

these are all free variables.

b) Give a matrix mapping

$$\vec{a} = (1, 2, 3) \mapsto (4, 5, 6) = f(a)$$

$$\vec{b} = (1, 1, 1) \mapsto (1, 0, 0) = f(b)$$

$$\vec{c} = (2, 3, 4) \mapsto (0, 1, 0) = f(c)$$

$$\vec{c} = \vec{a} + \vec{b} \Rightarrow f(c) = f(a) + f(b)$$

NOT true  $\Rightarrow$  no linear function (no matrix) works

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{a} &= (1, 2, 3) \mapsto (4, 5, 6) \\ \vec{b} &= (1, 1, 1) \mapsto (1, 0, 0) \\ \vec{c} &= (1, 2, 3) \mapsto (0, 1, 0)\end{aligned}$$

$$c = 10\vec{a} + \vec{b}$$

$$f(c) = 10f(a) + f(b)$$

$\Rightarrow$  no linear transformation works.

c) Give a matrix mapping

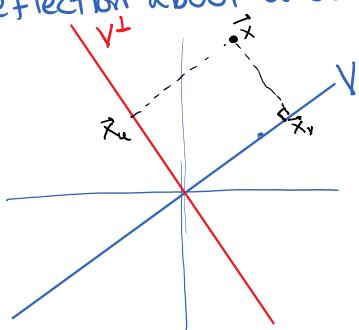
$$\begin{aligned}(1, 2, 3) &\mapsto (4, 5, 6) \\ (1, 1, 1) &\mapsto (1, 0, 0) \\ (1, 3, 2) &\mapsto (1, 2, 3)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(1 & 2 & 3) \rightarrow e_1 \rightarrow (4 & 5 & 6) \\ (1 & 1 & 1) \rightarrow e_2 \rightarrow (1 & 0 & 0) \\ (1 & 3 & 2) \rightarrow e_3 \rightarrow (1 & 2 & 3)\end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}}_{A^{-1}} \quad \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 2 \\ 6 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}}_{B}$$

$$\text{Answer: } \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 6 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right) \cdot \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right)^{-1}$$

Reflection about a subspace  $V$ :



We'll construct  $R_V$  for arbitrary  $V$  next week

- $\vec{v} \in V \Rightarrow R_V \vec{v} = \vec{v}$
- $\vec{v} \in V^\perp \Rightarrow R_V \vec{v} = -\vec{v}$
- $\vec{v} \in V \Rightarrow R_V \vec{v} = \vec{v}$
- $\vec{v} \in V^\perp \Rightarrow R_V \vec{v} = -\vec{v}$

$$R_V$$

$$R_V + I$$

$$\vec{v} \in V \Rightarrow (R_V + I)\vec{v} = 2\vec{v}$$

$$\vec{v} \in V^\perp \Rightarrow (R_V + I)\vec{v} = 0$$

↓

$$\forall \vec{x}, (R_V + I)\vec{x} = 2\vec{x}_v = 2 \text{ Proj}_{V^\perp}(\vec{x})$$

$$R_V = 2P_V - I$$

if  $\dim V = 1, V = \text{span}\{\vec{v}\}$

$$R_V = \frac{\vec{v} \vec{v}^\top}{\|\vec{v}\|^2}$$

Answer 1:  
This can be solved like in Q, but now with

9 equations for the 9 unknowns.

Answer 2:

Let

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 2 \\ 6 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then  $B$  maps

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$C$  maps

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

So  $C \cdot B^{-1}$  does what we want:

```
>> B = [1 1 1; 2 1 3; 3 1 2]; C = [4 1 1; 5 0 2; 6 0 3];
>> A = C * inv(B)
```

>> A \* [1 2 3]'

A =

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.0000 & -1.0000 & 2.0000 \\ -2.3333 & -0.3333 & 2.6667 \\ -3.0000 & -0.0000 & 3.0000 \end{pmatrix}$$

>> A \* [1 1 1]'

ans =

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1.0000 \\ 0.0000 \\ 0.0000 \end{pmatrix}$$

>> A \* [1 3 2]'

ans =

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example:

- $f(p) = (2+3x)p$

degree  $\leq 1$  poly  $\rightarrow$  degree  $\leq 2$  poly

$$\begin{matrix} 1, x \\ \frac{1}{2}, x^2 \end{matrix}$$

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(1) = 2+3x$$

$$= 2 + 3x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p(x) = 2 + 3x^2$$

- $f(p(x)) = p(2+3x)$

BAD example not linear

- $f(A) = A^T$

$f: \{2 \times 2 \text{ matrices}\} \hookrightarrow \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

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

"matrix for  $f$ "

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + 0 \cdot \text{(the other basis vectors)}$$

$$f\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + 0 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be the linear transformation that

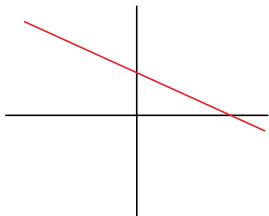
- First rotates the  $xz$ -plane by  $\pi/3$  radians counterclockwise about the  $y$ -axis,
- Then reflects everything about the  $yz$ -plane (i.e., switching the sign of the  $x$  coordinate),
- Then rotates the  $xy$ -plane by  $\pi/6$  radians counterclockwise about the  $z$ -axis.

What is the  $3 \times 3$  matrix representing  $f$ ?  
 What is the determinant of this matrix?

Trivia:

## HOW TO WORK WITH AFFINE SPACES & AFFINE TRANSFORMATIONS

Q: Is this a subspace?



No. Subspaces have to go through  $\vec{0}$ , to be closed under multiplication (by 0).

Q: Is this a linear transformation?

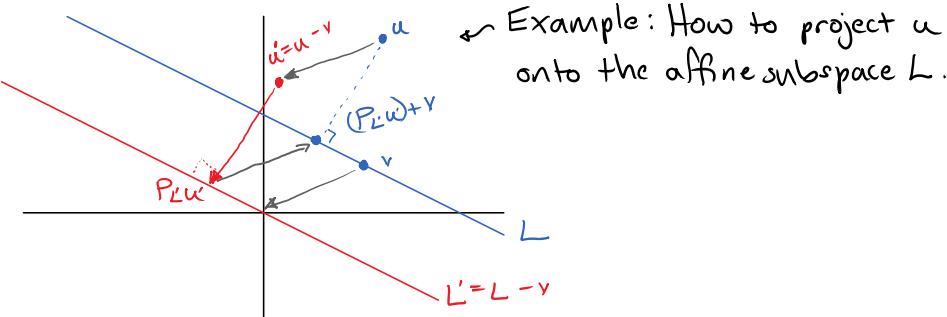
$$(x, y, z) \mapsto (x+1, y, z)$$

No. A linear transformation has to take  $\vec{0}$  to  $\vec{0}$ , in order to satisfy linearity under multiplication:  
 $f(\alpha \vec{v}) = \alpha \cdot f(\vec{v})$   
 $\Rightarrow f(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$ , setting  $\alpha = 0$ .

Thus translations are not linear.

Of course, affine subspaces and affine transformations, that shift the origin. How can we manipulate them?

① Shift coordinates so the space goes through  $\vec{0}$ , work there, then shift/translate back.



Example: How to project  $u$  onto the affine subspace  $L$ .

② Use "homogeneous coordinates"

Add a new coordinate,  $w=1$ . Then,

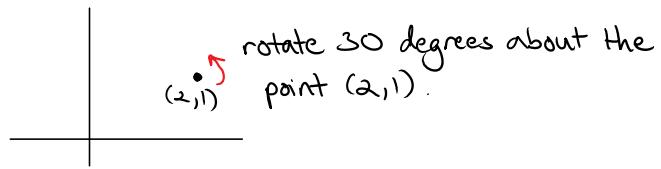
$$T: (x, y, z) \mapsto (x+1, y, z)$$

corresponds to

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}: (x, y, z, w) \mapsto (x+w, y, z, w)$$

Example: Using homogeneous coordinates, give a  $3 \times 3$

matrix for the 2D affine transformation



Answer: Shift to the origin  $(0,0)$ , rotate there, and shift back.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & y & w \\ c & -s & 0 \\ s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & y & w \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

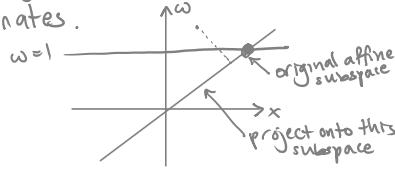
$c = \cos 30^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$   
 $s = \sin 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} x & y & w \\ c & -s & 2 - 2c + s \\ s & c & 1 - c - 2s \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad M$$

Sanity check:  $M \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark \quad M \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

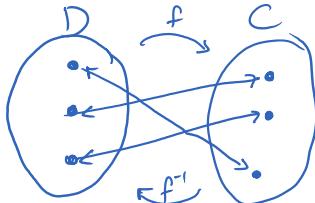
$$M \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + M \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2+c \\ 1+s \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

Note: You can also project to affine subspaces using homogeneous coordinates.



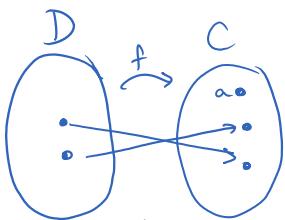
## Matrix and function inverses

Definition: A function  $f: D \xrightarrow{\text{domain}} C \xrightarrow{\text{codomain}}$  is invertible if every point in  $C$  is the image of exactly one point in  $D$ .

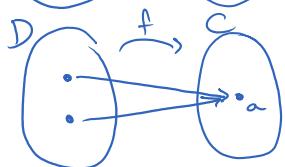


The inverse function  $f^{-1}: C \rightarrow D$  takes each point in  $C$  to its unique preimage.

Equivalently,  $f^{-1}$  satisfies  
 $f^{-1} \circ f = \text{identity on } D$   
 $f \circ f^{-1} = \text{identity on } C$



a isn't the image of anything  
 $\Rightarrow f$  not invertible



a has two preimages  
 $\Rightarrow f$  not invertible

Exercise: Prove that the inverse of a linear function, if it exists, is also linear.

Definition: The inverse of a matrix  $A$  is a matrix  $B$  that satisfies

$BA = \text{the identity matrix}$  and  $AB = \text{the identity matrix}$ .

Observe: • Not every matrix is invertible, e.g.,  
 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is not invertible.  
A matrix that is not invertible is called singular.  
• If an inverse exists, then it is unique.

Proof: Assume  $B$  and  $C$  are both inverses of  $A$ .  
Consider  $BAC$ .

$$BAC = \\ C = (BA)C \quad B(AC) = B \quad \Rightarrow B = C \quad \square$$

Example: The  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  is invertible/nonsingular if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ . The inverse is given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

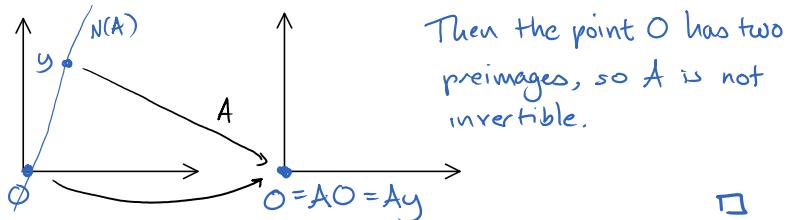
(Check this!)

How to compute the inverse of a matrix?  
Gaussian elimination, of course ...

## When is a matrix invertible?

Lemma 1: If  $N(A) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ , then  $A$  is not invertible.

Proof: Take  $y \in N(A)$ ,  $y \neq \vec{0}$ .



## Lemma 2:

$$\begin{matrix} n \\ m \\ \text{---} \\ A \\ m < n \end{matrix} \Rightarrow N(A) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$$

ie., it is more!

Intuition:

$A$  "squashes"  $n$  dimensions down to  $m < n$  dimensions.  
 $\therefore$  Some directions must be collapsed to  $\vec{0}$ .

Proof: To find  $N(A)$ , apply Gaussian elimination:

The point is that there are at most  $m$  pivots. Since  $m < n$ , there are necessarily at least  $n-m \geq 1$  free variables so the nullspace is infinite.  $\square$

Corollary: No non-square matrix can be inverted.

Proof: Either

$$\begin{matrix} n \\ m \\ \text{---} \\ A \\ m < n \end{matrix}$$

or

$$\begin{matrix} n \\ m \\ \text{---} \\ A \\ m > n \end{matrix}$$

$\Rightarrow N(A) \neq \{\vec{0}\}$  (Lemma 2)

$\Rightarrow A$  not invertible (Lemma 1)  $\checkmark$

$\Rightarrow A^{-1}$  would be  $n \times m$

$$\begin{matrix} m \\ n \\ \text{---} \\ A^{-1} \end{matrix}$$

and this can't be inverted  $\checkmark \quad \square$

## Theorem:

$$\begin{matrix} n \\ m \\ \text{---} \\ A \\ \text{is invertible} \end{matrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{matrix} m=n \\ N(A) = \{\vec{0}\} \end{matrix}$$

Remark: This doesn't work in infinite dimensions, e.g.,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \\ \vdots & 0 & 1 & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

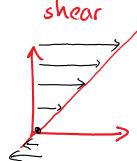
$N(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$ , but  $A$  is not invertible.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

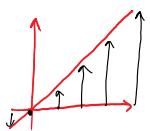
$N(A) = \text{Span}(\vec{e}_1)$ , but  $R(A) = \text{everything}$ .

## I. $2 \times 2$ matrices as linear transformations

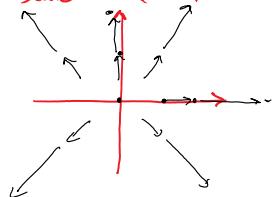
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{pmatrix}$$



Claim: Any  $2 \times 2$  matrix can be expressed as a product of shearing and scaling matrices, e.g.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} bc & 0 \\ 0 & ad-bc \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{bc} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{ad-bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

(if  $abc \neq 0$ )

Proof: Starting with any  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ , G.E. row operations change it to a matrix of the form either

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$