## Lecture 13 - Linear Functions, Matrices, and the Derivative Matrix

October 26, 2022

Goals: Distinguish linear functions from more general functions, multiply matrices by vectors, compute the derivative matrix, and compute a local approximation from a derivative matrix.

We will now dive deeper into specific kinds of functions and their properties. We start with:

**Definition:** A scalar-valued function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is called

• affine if it has the form  $f(x_1, ..., x_n) = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n + b$  for scalars  $a_1, ..., a_n, b$  (in particular,  $b = f(\mathbf{0})$ ).
• linear if it has the form  $f(x_1, ..., x_n) = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$  for scalars  $a_1, ..., a_n$ , i.e. it is affine with b = 0.

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A vector-valued function  $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , that is,  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x}))$ , is called

• affine if each of its component functions  $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is affine.

• linear if each of its component functions  $f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is linear.

**Example 1:** Are the following functions affine, linear, or neither?

(a) 
$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x - y \\ \pi x + 6y \\ 3y \end{bmatrix}$$
 (b)  $f(x) = 2x + 1$  (c)  $f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x + 1 \\ 3x - 2 \\ x^2 + x \end{bmatrix}$ 

(b)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(c)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(d)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(e)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(f)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(g)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

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(f)  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(h)  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

(h)  $f:$ 

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Note that a general linear function  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$  looks like

$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by + cz \\ dx + ey + gz \\ hx + iy + jz \end{bmatrix},$$

which have a lot of constants to keep track of  $(9 = 3 \cdot 3 \text{ in fact})$ , and there could be a lot more for a general  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  (mn to be exact). We introduce a shorthand notation.

**Definition:** An  $m \times n$  matrix is a rectangular array A of numbers presented like

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \cdots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m,1} & a_{m,2} & \cdots & a_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The collection of entries  $\begin{bmatrix} a_{i,1} & a_{i,2} & \cdots & a_{i,n} \end{bmatrix}$  along the *i*th horizontal row (with i=1 along the top side) is called the *i*th row, and the collection of entries  $\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,j} \\ a_{2,j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m,j} \end{bmatrix}$  along the *j*th vertical layer (with j=1 along the left side) is called the *j*th column.
- The entry in row i and column j,  $a_{i,j}$ , is called the ij-entry or (i,j)-entry.

We have a notion of multiplication between a matrix and a vector:

**<u>Definition:</u>** If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the **matrix-vector product**  $A\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is defined by

In other words, if  $\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_m$  represent the rows of A (which are *n*-vectors), then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_m \cdot \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Note:** You need to pay attention to all of the dimensions going on; this product is only defined for an  $m \times n$  matrix multiplied by an n-vector. It produces an m-vector.

$$(m \times n) (n \times 1) = (m \times 1)$$

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**Example 2:** Compute the following matrix-vector products.

(a) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2(1) + (-1)(2) + (3)(3) \\ 4(1) + (1)(2) + (3)(2) \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b)  $\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (-4)(1) + (-1)(2) + (1)(3) \\ (1)(1) + (2(0)) \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

(b)  $\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (-4)(1) + (2(0)) \\ (1)(1) + (2(0)) \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Anale: multiplying by  $\vec{C}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  gives us the  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  gives us the  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Proposition 13.3.8: A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is linear precisely when  $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$  for an  $m \times n$  matrix A.

A consequence of this proposition is that an affine function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  can be written as  $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ , where A is an  $m \times n$  matrix,  $\mathbf{x}$  and n-vector, and  $\mathbf{b}$  an m-vector.

**Example 3:** Write the following linear/affine functions in the form Ax + b.

(a) 
$$f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x - y \\ \pi x + 6y \\ 3y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ \pi & b \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x - y \\ \pi x + by \end{bmatrix}$$

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 $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + z + 4 \\ x + y + z \\ -x - 2y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + z + 4 \\ x + y + z \\ -x - 2y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x \\ b \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

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 $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + z + 4 \\ x + y + z \\ -x - 2y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

If  $\mathbf{c}_1, \dots \mathbf{c}_n$  are the columns of A, i.e.  $A = [\mathbf{c}_1 \ \mathbf{c}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{c}_n]$  then

$$A\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \mathbf{c}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{c}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{c}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

In other words, the matrix-vector product is just a linear combination of the columns of A, where the coefficients are the entries of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 13.4.5:** For a linear function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ , the matrix A has its respective columns  $f(\mathbf{e}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{e}_n)$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is the *i*th standard basis vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This gives us a way to reconstruct the matrix A given we know f. → f(x)= Ax = [4(c') ··· f(c')]x

**Example 4:** Recall the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  which rotated vectors 90° clockwise.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
t & \begin{pmatrix} \zeta^{s} \\ \zeta^{s} \end{pmatrix} : t & \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
t & \begin{pmatrix} \delta^{s} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : t & \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
\end{array}$$

Using these 13.4.5, 
$$f(x) = f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
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Definition: Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a vector-valued function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$  with scalar-valued components  $f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . The derivative matrix of f at a point f.

$$(Df)(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{a}) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{a}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{a}) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{a}) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{a}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{a}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{a}) & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2}(\mathbf{a}) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{a}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

We also refer to  $Df(\mathbf{a})$  as the **Jacobian matrix** of f at the point **a**. In general, the *i*th row of  $Df(\mathbf{a})$  is  $\nabla f_i(\mathbf{a})$  written horizontally.

If f is not a linear, can we approximate it via  $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{a}) + L(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})$ , where L is linear? If so, what is the "best" one? Here is the answer:

<u>Theorem 13.5.8</u>: The best linear approximation to  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  at the point **a** is given by the derivative matrix  $Df(\mathbf{a})$ . We have

for *n*-vectors 
$$\mathbf{x}$$
 near  $\mathbf{a}$ . Equivalently, 
$$f(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{h}) \approx f(\mathbf{a}) + Df(\mathbf{a})\mathbf{h}$$

for n-vectors  $\mathbf{h}$  near  $\mathbf{0}$ .

**Example 5:** Work out the linear approximations  $f(\mathbf{a})$  and  $f(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{h})$ , where  $\mathbf{a} = (1, 1, 1)$ , for the function f below. Then, estimate f(.9, 1.1, 1.2).

the function 
$$f$$
 below. Then, estimate  $f(.9, 1.1, 1.2)$ .

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} x^2 + yz \\ xyz \\ xyz \\ \sqrt{xz} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_{2}} \begin{array}{c} \mathcal{F}_{2} \\ \mathcal{F}_{3} \\ \mathcal{F}_{4} \\ \mathcal{F}_{4} \\ \mathcal{F}_{5} \\ \mathcal{F}_{7} \\ \mathcal{F}_{7}$$

$$\rho\left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{h}\right) \stackrel{?}{\sim} \rho\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) + \rho\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) \stackrel{?}{\sim} \rho\left$$