Data 345

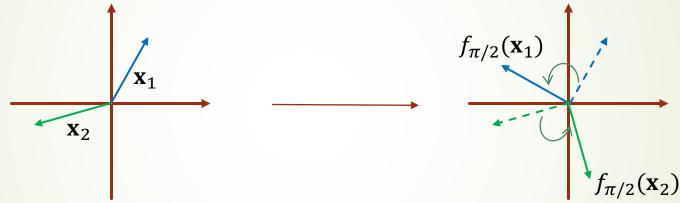
Applied Linear Algebra for Statistical Learning Class 9 (Sep. 25, 2025)

 Given sets X and Y, a function or mapping f from X to Y is a rule that assigns each element of X to precisely one element in Y.

Set of inputs (domain) $f: X \to Y$ Name of function Set of possible outputs (codomain)

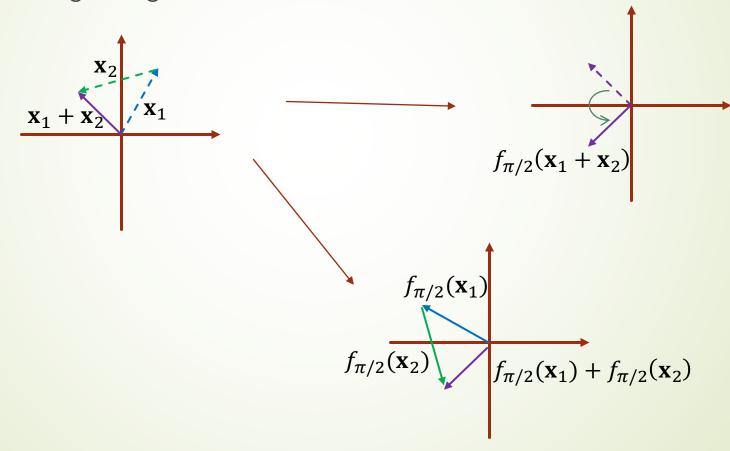
- Formally, a function requires no structure other than two sets. However, we are often interested in special kinds of functions which preserve a particular structure or have nice properties.
- Example: A continuous function from calculus preserves local distortion of distance (i.e., a small perturbation of an input results in a "small" perturbation of the output)

Let's consider an example that is common in linear algebra. Let $f_{\pi/2}: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be a function that rotates every vector by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians (counterclockwise) about the origin.



This is a relatively simple but important transformation. How does this function "interact" with the vector space structure on \mathbb{R}^2 ?

If we have two vectors x_1 and x_2 then we can either add before or after rotating and get the same result.



- Similarly, since scalar multiplication just lengthens/shortens a vector in the same direction, we may perform scalar multiplication either before or after rotating and still get the same result.
- This brings out two very important properties of $f_{\pi/2}$:
 - ► $f_{\pi/2}$ preserves the operation of vector addition: for any $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have that $f_{\pi/2}(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = f_{\pi/2}(\mathbf{x}_1) + f_{\pi/2}(\mathbf{x}_2)$.
 - ► $f_{\pi/2}$ preserves the operation of scalar multiplication: for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, we have that $f_{\pi/2}(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda \cdot f_{\pi/2}(\mathbf{x})$.
- In other words, the function $f_{\pi/2}$ does not break any of the vector space structure to which we have grown accustomed.
- It is hopefully easy to see that the angle $\pi/2$ is not important here a function rotating by any angle θ would satisfy the same properties.

Linear Transformations

- Let V and W be any two real vector spaces. A mapping $f: V \to W$ is said to be a **linear transformation** or **linear mapping** if:
 - For any two $x, y \in V$, f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y).
 - For any real λ and any $\mathbf{x} \in V$, $f(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda f(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: Define $i = \sqrt{-1}$. Then a **complex number** is any expression of the form a + bi, where a and b are real numbers. The set of all complex numbers is denoted by \mathbb{C} .
- C has a (real) vector space structure: (a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i (adding and collecting like terms), and $\lambda(a + bi) = \lambda a + \lambda bi$.
- ▶ Define a mapping $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{C}$ where $f([x_1, x_2]) = x_1 + x_2i$. Then, f is a linear transformation.

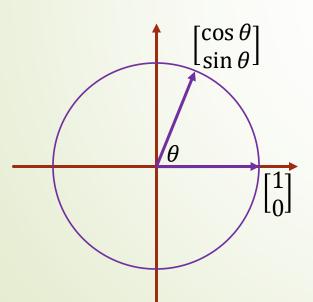
- Let's return to the transformation $f_{\theta} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ (this time, we will rotate by an arbitrary angle θ).
- We know the effect of this transformation, but it's not super clear how we could write down a "formula" for it.
- In other words, if we have $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T$, we would like to be able to write down $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = [y_1, y_2]^T$ where y_1 and y_2 are both expressions involving x_1 and x_2 .
- Remember that in \mathbb{R}^2 we have a standard basis $\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\}$ which allows us to write any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 as a linear combination of these basis vectors.
- If $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ then $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

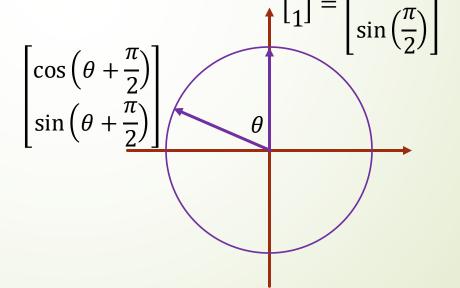
Nowing (or being willing to believe) that f_{θ} is linear allows us to say:

$$f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = f_{\theta}\left(x_{1}\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix} + x_{2}\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) = f_{\theta}\left(x_{1}\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) + f_{\theta}\left(x_{2}\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) = x_{1}f_{\theta}\left(\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) + x_{2}f_{\theta}\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right).$$

lacktriangle So, to determine a "formula" for $f_{ heta}$ we really only need to establish what $f_{ heta}$







- The quantities $\cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ and $\sin\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ are very ugly, so let's simplify...
- $\cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos\theta\cos\pi/2 \sin\theta\sin\pi/2, \, \cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin\theta.$
- Thus, $f_{\theta}\left(\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}\cos\theta\\\sin\theta\end{bmatrix}$ and $f_{\theta}\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}-\sin\theta\\\cos\theta\end{bmatrix}$.
- This means we may more generally compute:

$$f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 f_{\theta} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + x_2 f_{\theta} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= x_1 \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \cos \theta - x_2 \sin \theta \\ x_1 \sin \theta + x_2 \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Wait! If you've been half paying attention, you might notice:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \cos \theta - x_2 \sin \theta \\ x_1 \sin \theta + x_2 \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

- This means we encoded the function f_{θ} as a **matrix**!
- Now comes the punchline: every linear transformation may be encoded as a matrix in a similar way.
- Specifically, let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation from V to W, where $\dim(V) = n$ and $\dim(W) = m$. Let $B = (\mathbf{b}_1, ..., \mathbf{b}_n)$ and $C = (\mathbf{c}_1, ..., \mathbf{c}_m)$ be ordered bases for V and W, respectively.

$$T(\mathbf{b}_{j}) = \alpha_{1j}\mathbf{c}_{1} + \dots + \alpha_{mj}\mathbf{c}_{m}$$

$$A_{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} & \dots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} & \dots & \alpha_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \alpha_{m2} & \dots & \alpha_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The matrix A_T is called the **transformation matrix** of T with respect to B and C.
- Since linear transformations are entirely determined by their effect on basis elements, a transformation essentially just summarizes the effect of T on each individual basis element from B in terms of the basis C.
- Example: Define a linear mapping $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^4$ as:

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 3x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \\ x_1 - 3x_2 \\ 2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}3\\1\\1\\2\end{bmatrix}$$

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}2\\1\\-3\\3\end{bmatrix}$$

$$T\left(\begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\0\\1\end{bmatrix}$$

$$T\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad T\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A_T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Image & Kernel

- Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. The **image** or **range** of T is simply T(V). The **kernel** or **null space** of T is the set of all vectors v in V such that $T(v) = \mathbf{0}_W$ in other words, the kernel of T is the set of vectors in V that get annihilated (sent to the zero vector) by the transformation T.
- Because T is linear, the image of T is always a subspace of W, while the kernel of T is always a subspace of V.