



### Lecture 2: Linear Algebra

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Mathematics for Machine Learning https://yung-web.github.io/home/courses/mathml.html KAIST EE

April 2, 2021

- (1) Systems of Linear Equations
- (2) Matrices
- (3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations
- (4) Vector Spaces
- (5) Linear Independence
- (6) Basis and Rank
- (7) Linear Mappings
- (8) Affine Spaces

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## Roadmap



## **Basic Notations**



- (1) Systems of Linear Equations
- (2) Matrices
- (3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations
- (4) Vector Spaces
- (5) Linear Independence
- (6) Basis and Rank
- (7) Linear Mappings
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- Scalars:  $a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$
- Vectors: x, y, z
- Matrices: X, Y, Z
- Sets: A, B, C
- (Ordered) tuple:  $B = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$
- Matrix of column vectors:  $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3]$  or  $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \mathbf{b}_3)$
- Set of vectors:  $\mathcal{B} = \{ {\it b}_1, {\it b}_2, {\it b}_3 \}$
- $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , etc



Algebra: a set of objects and a set of rules or operations to manipulate those objects

Linear algebra

Object: vectors v

• Operations: their additions  $(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$  and scalar multiplication  $(k\mathbf{v})$ 

Examples

Geometric vectors

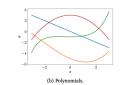
- High school physics

Polynomials

Audio signals

• Elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 





• For unknown variables  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$a_{11}x_1+\cdots+a_{1n}x_n=b_1$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

Three cases of solutions

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 3$$
  
 $x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 2$ 

$$x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 \equiv 2$$
  
 $2x_1 + 3x_3 = 1$ 

- Unique solution

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 3$$
  
 $x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 3$ 

$$x_2 + 3x_3 = 1$$

- Infinitely many solutions

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 3$$

$$x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 = 2$$

$$2x_1 + 3x_3 = 5$$

• Question: Under what conditions, one of the above three cases occur.

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## Matrix Representation



Roadmap



• A collection of linear equations

$$a_{11}x_1+\cdots+a_{1n}x_n=b_1$$

$$a_{m1}x_1+\cdots+a_{mn}x_n=b_m$$

• Matrix representations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{pmatrix} x_1 + \dots + \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} x_n = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix} \iff \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{X}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}}$$

• Understanding **A** is the key to answering various questions about this linear system Ax = b.

(1) Systems of Linear Equations

(2) Matrices

(3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations

(4) Vector Spaces

(5) Linear Independence

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• For two matrices  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,

$$m{A} + m{B} := egin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ dots & & dots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

• For two matrices  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ , the elements  $c_{ij}$  of the product  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$  is:

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{l=1}^{n} a_{il} b_{lj}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \quad j = 1, \ldots, k.$$

• Example.  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , compute  $\mathbf{AB}$  and  $\mathbf{BA}$ .

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• A square matrix  $I_n$  with  $I_{ii} = 1$  and  $I_{ij=0}$  for  $i \neq j$ , where n is the number of rows and columns. For example,

$$I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad I_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Associativity: For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$ , (AB)C = A(BC)
- Distributivity: For  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , and  $C, D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ , (i) (A + B)C = AC + BC and (ii) A(C + D) = AC + AD
- Multiplication with the identity matrix: For  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}$
- $^{1}$ # of rows = # of cols

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#### Inverse and Transpose

• For a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  is the inverse of A, denoted by  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ , if

$$AB = I_n = BA$$
.

- Called regular/invertible/nonsingular, if it exists.
- If it exists, it is unique.
- (Q). How to compute?
- For 2 × 2 matrix,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

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For a matrix **A** ∈ ℝ<sup>m×n</sup>, the **B** ∈ ℝ<sup>n×m</sup> with b<sub>ij</sub> = a<sub>ji</sub> is the transpose of **A**, which we denote by **A**<sup>T</sup>.

• Example. For 
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
,

$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is called symmetric.

## Inverse and Transpose: More Properties



• 
$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

• 
$$(A + B)^{-1} \neq A^{-1} + B^{-1}$$

$$\bullet (\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{A}$$

$$\bullet \ (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

• 
$$(AB)^{\mathsf{T}} = B^{\mathsf{T}}A^{\mathsf{T}}$$

• If **A** is invertible, so is **A**<sup>T</sup>.



- Multiplication by a scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- Example. For  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $3 \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 6 \\ 3 & -3 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$
- Associativity
  - $(\lambda \psi) \mathbf{C} = \lambda(\psi \mathbf{C})$
  - $\lambda(BC) = (\lambda B)C = B(\lambda C) = (BC)\lambda$
  - $(\lambda C)^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}} \lambda^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}} \lambda = \lambda \mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}}$
- Distributivity
  - $\circ (\lambda + \psi) \mathbf{C} = \lambda \mathbf{C} + \psi \mathbf{C}$
  - $\lambda(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \lambda \mathbf{B} + \lambda \mathbf{C}$

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#### Example

#### -3x + 2z = -1 x - 2y + 2z = -5/3-x - 4y + 6z = -13/3

ρ<sub>i</sub>: i-th equation

• Express the equation as its augmented matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix}
-3 & 0 & 2 & | & -1 \\
1 & -2 & 2 & | & -5/3 \\
-1 & -4 & 6 & | & -13/3
\end{pmatrix}
\xrightarrow[-(1/3)\rho_1+\rho_3]{(1/3)\rho_1+\rho_2}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
-3 & 0 & 2 & | & -1 \\
0 & -2 & 8/3 & | & -2 \\
0 & -4 & 16/3 & | & -4
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{-2\rho_2+\rho_3}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
-3 & 0 & 2 & | & -1 \\
0 & -2 & 8/3 & | & -2 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

The two nonzero rows give -3x + 2z = -1 and -2y + (8/3)z = -2.

- Parametrizing -3x + 2z = -1 and -2y + (8/3)z = -2 gives:

$$x = (1/3) + (2/3)z$$

$$y = 1 + (4/3)z$$

$$z = z$$

$$\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ 4/3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} z \mid z \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

This helps us understand the set of solutions, e.g., each value of z gives a different solution.

solution 
$$\begin{pmatrix} z \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & -1/2 \\ \hline \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 7/3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 5/3 \\ 11/3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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• The system  $\begin{cases} x + 2y - z = 2 \\ 2x - y - 2z + w = 5 \end{cases}$  reduces in this way.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -2 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2\rho_1 + \rho_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

It has solutions of this form.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 12/5 \\ -1/5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} z + \begin{pmatrix} -2/5 \\ 1/5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} w \quad \text{for } z, w \in \Re$$

• Note that taking z = w = 0 shows that the first vector is a particular solution of the system.

General approach

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- 1. Find a particular solution to Ax = b
- 2. Find all solutions to the homogeneous equation Ax = 0
  - 0 is a trivial solution
- 3. Combine the solutions from steps 1. and 2. to the general solution
- Questions: A formal algorithm that performs the above?
  - Gauss-Jordan method: convert into a "beautiful" form. (formally reduced row-echelon form)
  - Elementary transformations: (i) row swapping (ii) multiply by a constant (iii) row addition
- Such a form allows an algorithmic way of solving linear equations

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**Example: Unique Solution** 

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#### **Example: Infinite Number of Solutions**



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• Start as usual by getting echelon form.

Make all the leading entries one.

$$(-1/3)\rho_2 \xrightarrow{(x+y-z=2)} y-(2/3)z=5/3$$

$$z=2$$

Finish by using the leading entries to eliminate upwards, until we can read off the solution.

$$x - y - 2w = 2$$
  
 $x + y + 3z + w = 1$   
 $- y + z - w = 0$ 

• Start by getting echelon form and turn the leading entries to 1's.

Eliminate upwards.

• The parameterized solution set is:

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 9/5 \\ -1/5 \\ -1/5 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 4/5 \\ -6/5 \\ -1/5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} w \mid w \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

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## Algorithms for Solving System of Linear Equations



number of solutions of the homogeneous system

yes unique infinitely many solution solutions

no no no solutions solutions

1. Pseudo-inverse

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Longleftrightarrow \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b} \Longleftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b}$$

- $\circ (A^TA)^{-1}A^T$ : Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse
- o many computations: matrix product, inverse, etc
- 2. Gaussian elimination
  - intuitive and constructive way
  - cubic complexity (in terms of # of simultaneous equations)
- 3. Iterative methods
  - practical ways to solve indirectly
  - (a) stationary iterative methods: Richardson method, Jacobi method, Gaus-Seidel method, successive over-relaxation method
  - (b) Krylov subspace methods: conjugate gradients, generalized minimal residual, biconjugate gradients

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Roadmap



Group



- (1) Systems of Linear Equations
- (2) Matrices
- (3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations

particular

solution

exists?

- (4) Vector Spaces
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- A set  $\mathcal{G}$  and an operation  $\otimes : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \mapsto \mathcal{G}$ .  $\mathcal{G} := (\mathcal{G}, \otimes)$  is called a group, if:
  - 1. Closure.  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{G}, x \otimes y \in \mathcal{G}$
  - 2. Associativity.  $\forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{G}$ ,  $(x \otimes y) \otimes z = x \otimes (y \otimes z)$
  - 3. Neutral element.  $\exists e \in \mathcal{G}, \, \forall x \in \mathcal{G}, \, x \otimes e = x \text{ and } e \otimes x = x$
  - 4. Inverse element.  $\forall x \in \mathcal{G}, \ \exists y \in \mathcal{G}, \ x \otimes y = e \ \text{and} \ y \otimes x = e.$  We often use  $x^{-1} = y$ .
- $G = (\mathcal{G}, \otimes)$  is an Abelian group, if the following is additionally met:
  - ∘ Communicativity.  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{G}, x \otimes y = y \otimes x$

- $(\mathbb{Z},+)$  is an Abelian group
- $(\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, +)$  is not a group (because inverses are missing)
- $(\mathbb{Z},\cdot)$  is not a group
- $(\mathbb{R},\cdot)$  is not a group (because of no inverse for 0)
- $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}^n, +)$  are Abelian, if + is defined componentwise
- $(\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, +)$  is Abelian (with componentwise +)
- $(\mathbb{R}^{n\times n},\cdot)$ 
  - Closure and associativity follow directly
  - Neutral element: In
  - The inverse  $A^{-1}$  may exist or not. So, generally, it is not a group. However, the set of invertible matrices in  $\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$  with matrix multiplication is a group, called general linear group.

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Definition. A real-valued vector space  $V = (\mathcal{V}, +, \cdot)$  is a set  $\mathcal{V}$  with two operations

- $+: \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \mapsto \mathcal{V}$  (vector addition)
- $\cdot: \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{V} \mapsto \mathcal{V}$  (scalar multiplication),

#### where

- 1.  $(\mathcal{V}, +)$  is an Abelian group
- 2. Distributivity.
  - $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{V}, \lambda \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{x} + \lambda \mathbf{y}$
  - $\forall \lambda, \psi \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}, (\lambda + \psi) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{x} + \psi \cdot \mathbf{x}$
- 3. Associativity.  $\forall \lambda, \psi \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}, \lambda \cdot (\psi \cdot \mathbf{x}) = (\lambda \psi) \cdot \mathbf{x}$
- 4. Neutral element.  $\forall x \in \mathcal{V}, 1 \cdot x = x$

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## Example



**Vector Subspaces** 



- $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{R}^n$  with
  - Vector addition:  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$
  - Scalar multiplication:  $\lambda \mathbf{x} = (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n)$
- $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with

   Vector addition:  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$ 
  - Scalar multiplication:  $\lambda \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda a_{11} & \cdots & \lambda a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \lambda a_{m1} & \cdots & \lambda a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$

Definition. Consider a vector space  $V = (\mathcal{V}, +, \cdot)$  and  $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{V}$ . Then,  $U = (\mathcal{U}, +, \cdot)$  is called vector subspace (simply linear subspace or subspace) of V if U is a vector space with two operations '+' and '.' restricted to  $\mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U}$  and  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{U}$ .

#### Examples

- For every vector space V, V and  $\{0\}$  are the trivial subspaces.
- The solution set of Ax = 0 is the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- The solution of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \ (\mathbf{b} \neq 0)$  is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- The intersection of arbitrarily many subspaces is a subspace itself.



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• Definition. For a vector space V and vectors  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$ , every  $v \in V$  of the form  $\mathbf{v} = \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \cdots + \lambda_k \mathbf{x}_k$  with  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}$  is a linear combination of the vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in V$ .

- Definition. If there is a non-trivial linear combination such that  $0 = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i$  with at least one  $\lambda_i \neq 0$ , the vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  are linearly dependent. If only the trivial solution exists, i.e.,  $\lambda_1 = \ldots = \lambda_k = 0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are linearly independent.
- Meaning. A set of linearly independent vectors consists of vectors that have no redundancy.
- Useful fact. The vectors  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  are linearly dependent, iff (at least) one of them is a linear combination of the others.
  - x 2y = 2 and 2x 4y = 4 are linearly dependent.

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#### Checking Linear Independence



Linear Combinations of Linearly Independent Vectors



- Gauss elimination to get the row echelon form
- All column vectors are linearly independent iff all columns are pivot columns (why?).
- Example.

$$\mathbf{x}_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad 
\xrightarrow{\sim} \quad \cdots \quad 
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Every column is a pivot column. Thus,  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ ,  $x_3$  are linearly independent.

- Vector space V with k linearly independent vectors  $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_k$
- m linear combinations  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$ . (Q) Are they linearly independent?

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \lambda_{11}\mathbf{b}_1 + \lambda_{21}\mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + \lambda_{k1}\mathbf{b}_k$$
  

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{x}_m = \lambda_{1m}\mathbf{b}_1 + \lambda_{2m}\mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + \lambda_{km}\mathbf{b}_k$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{x}_{1} = \lambda_{11}\mathbf{b}_{1} + \lambda_{21}\mathbf{b}_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{k1}\mathbf{b}_{k} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{x}_{m} = \lambda_{1m}\mathbf{b}_{1} + \lambda_{2m}\mathbf{b}_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{km}\mathbf{b}_{k}
\end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{j} = (\mathbf{b}_{1}, \dots, \mathbf{b}_{k}) \overbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_{kj} \end{pmatrix}}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{j} = \mathbf{B}\lambda_{j}$$

- $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi_i \mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi_i \mathbf{B} \lambda_i = \mathbf{B} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi_i \lambda_i$
- $\{x\}$  linearly independent  $\iff \{\lambda\}$  linearly independent

$$egin{array}{lll} m{x}_1 = & m{b}_1 - 2m{b}_2 + m{b}_3 - m{b}_4 \ m{x}_2 = -4m{b}_1 - 2m{b}_2 & + 4m{b}_4 \ m{x}_3 = & 2m{b}_1 + 3m{b}_2 - m{b}_3 - 3m{b}_4 \ m{x}_4 = & 17m{b}_1 - 10m{b}_2 + 11m{b}_3 + m{b}_4 \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \lambda_3 & \lambda_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 & 17 \\ -2 & -2 & 3 & -10 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 11 \\ -1 & -4 & -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \cdots \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -15 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -18 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• The last column is not a pivot column. Thus,  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_3$  are linearly dependent.

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## Generating Set and Basis



#### Examples



- Definition. A vector space  $V = (\mathcal{V}, +, \cdot)$  and a set of vectors  $\mathcal{A} = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \subset \mathcal{V}$ .
  - If every  $v \in \mathcal{V}$  can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k, \mathcal{A}$  is called a generating set of V.
  - $\circ$  The set of all linear combinations of  $\mathcal{A}$  is called the span of  $\mathcal{A}$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{A}$  spans the vector space V, we use  $V = \text{span}[\mathcal{A}]$  or  $V = \text{span}[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k]$
- Definition. The minimal generating set  $\mathcal{B}$  of V is called basis of V. We call each element of  $\mathcal{B}$  basis vector. The number of basis vectors is called dimension of V.
- Properties
  - $\circ$   ${\cal B}$  is a maximally 2linearly independent set of vectors in  ${\it V}$ .
  - Every vector  $x \in V$  is a linear combination of  $\mathcal{B}$ , which is unique.

$$\mathcal{B}_1 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \}, \mathcal{B}_2 = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \},$$

$$\mathcal{B}_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.8 \\ 0.4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1.8 \\ 0.3 \\ 0.3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2.2 \\ -1.3 \\ 3.5 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\3\\4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2\\-1\\0\\2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\0\\-4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

<sup>•</sup> Different bases  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Adding any other vector to this set will make it linearly dependent.



- Want to find a basis of a subspace  $U = \text{span}[\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m]$ 
  - 1. Construct a matrix  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{x}_m)$
  - 2. Find the row-echelon form of **A**.
  - 3. Collect the pivot columns.
- Logic: Collect  $x_i$  so that we have only trivial solution. Pivot columns tell us which set of vectors is linearly independent.
- See example 2.17 (pp. 35)

• Definition. The rank of  $\pmb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  denoted by  $\operatorname{rk}(\pmb{A})$  is # of linearly independent columns

Same as the number of linearly independent rows

• 
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \cdots \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus,  $rk(\mathbf{A}) = 2$ .

• 
$$rk(\mathbf{A}) = rk(\mathbf{A}^T)$$

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## Rank (2)

## KAIST EE

Roadmap



- The columns (resp. rows) of  $\mathbf{A}$  span a subspace U (resp. W) with  $\dim(U) = \operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A})$  (resp.  $\dim(W) = \operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A})$ ), and a basis of U (resp. W) can be found by Gauss elimination of  $\mathbf{A}$  (resp.  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$ ).
- For all  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $\mathsf{rk}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ , iff  $\mathbf{A}$  is regular (invertible).
- The linear system  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is solvable, iff  $\text{rk}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{rk}(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{b})$ .
- For  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the subspace of solutions for  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0$  possesses dimension  $n \text{rk}(\mathbf{A})$ .
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has full rank if its rank equals the largest possible rank for a matrix of the same dimensions. The rank of the full-rank matrix A is min(# of cols, # of rows).

- (1) Systems of Linear Equations
- (2) Matrices
- (3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations
- (4) Vector Spaces
- (5) Linear Independence
- (6) Basis and Rank
- (7) Linear Mappings
- (8) Affine Spaces

- Interest: A mapping that preserves the structure of the vector space
- Definition. For vector spaces V,W, a mapping  $\Phi:V\mapsto W$  is called a linear mapping (or homomorphism/linear transformation), if, for all  $x,y\in V$  and all  $\lambda\in\mathbb{R}$ ,
  - $\Phi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}) + \Phi(\mathbf{y})$
- Definition. A mapping  $\Phi: \mathcal{V} \mapsto \mathcal{W}$  is called
  - $\circ$  Injective (단사), if  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{V}$ ,  $\Phi(x) = \Phi(y) \implies x = y$
  - $\circ$  Surjective (전사), if  $\Phi(\mathcal{V}) = \mathcal{W}$
  - 。 Bijective (전단사), if it is injenctive and surjective.

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- For bjective mapping, there exists an inverse mapping  $\Phi^{-1}$ .
- Isomorphism if  $\Psi$  is linear and bijective.
- Theorem. Vector spaces V and W are isomorphic, iff  $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ .
  - Vector spaces of the same dimension are kind of the same thing.
- Other properties
  - $\circ$  For two linear mappings  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$ ,  $\Phi \circ \Psi$  is also a linear mapping.
  - If  $\Phi$  is an isomorphism, so is  $\Phi^{-1}$ .
  - For two linear mappings  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$ ,  $\Phi + \Psi$  and  $\lambda \Psi$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  are linear.

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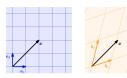
#### Coordinates

# KAIST EE

**Basis Change** 



 A basis defines a coordinate system.



• Consider an ordered basis  $B = (\boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_n)$  of vector space V. Then, for any  $\boldsymbol{x} \in V$ , there exists a unique linear combination

$$\mathbf{x} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n \mathbf{b}_n.$$

• We call  $\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix}$  the coordinate of  ${\pmb x}$  with respect to  $B = ({\pmb b}_1, {\pmb b}_2, \dots, {\pmb b}_n).$ 

- Consider a vector space V and two coordinate systems defined by  $B = (\boldsymbol{b}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_n)$  and  $B' = (\boldsymbol{b}_1', \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_n')$ .
- Question. For  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)_B \to (y_1, \ldots, y_n)_{B'}$ , what is  $(y_1, \ldots, y_n)_{B'}$ ?
- Theorem.  $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{b}_1' & \dots & \boldsymbol{b}_n' \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{b}_1 & \dots & \boldsymbol{b}_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$
- Regard  $m{A}_{\Phi} = \left(m{b}_1' \ \dots \ m{b}_n'\right)^{-1} \left(m{b}_1 \ \dots \ m{b}_n\right)$  as a linear map

- B = ((1,0),(0,1) and B' = ((2,1),(1,2))
- $(4,2)_B \to (x,y)_{B'}$ ?
- Using  $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = (\boldsymbol{b}'_1 \dots \boldsymbol{b}'_n)^{-1} (\boldsymbol{b}_1 \dots \boldsymbol{b}_n) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix},$   $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Two vector spaces

- V with basis  $B = (\boldsymbol{b}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_n)$  and W with basis  $C = (\boldsymbol{c}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{c}_m)$
- What is the coordinate in *C*-system for each basis  $b_j$ ? For j = 1, ..., n,

$$\mathbf{b}_{j} = \alpha_{1j}\mathbf{c}_{1} + \dots + \alpha_{mj}\mathbf{c}_{m} \iff \mathbf{b}_{j} = (\mathbf{c}_{1} \cdots \mathbf{c}_{m}) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{mj} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\implies (\mathbf{b}_{1} \cdots \mathbf{b}_{n}) = (\mathbf{c}_{1} \cdots \mathbf{c}_{m}) \overbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \cdots & \alpha_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}^{\mathbf{A}_{\Phi}}$$

•  $\hat{x} = \mathbf{A}_{\Phi}\hat{y}$ , where  $\hat{x}$  is the vector w.r.t B and  $\hat{y}$  is the vector w.r.t. C

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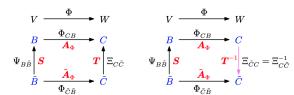
## Basis Change: General Case

# **KAIST EE**

Image and Kernel



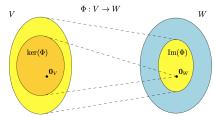
- For linear mapping  $\Phi: V \mapsto W$ , consider bases B, B' of V and C, C' of W  $B = (\mathbf{b}_1 \cdots \mathbf{b}_n), B' = (\mathbf{b}_1' \cdots \mathbf{b}_n') \quad C = (\mathbf{c}_1 \cdots \mathbf{c}_m), C' = (\mathbf{c}_1' \cdots \mathbf{c}_m').$
- (inter) transformation matrices  ${\bf A}_{\Phi}$  from B to C and  ${\bf A}'_{\Phi}$  from B' to C'
- (intra) transformation matrices S from B' to B and T from C' to C
- Theorem.  ${m A}_{\Phi}' = T^{-1}{m A}_{\Phi}S$



• Consider a linear mapping  $\Phi: V \mapsto W$ . The kernel (or null space) is the set of vectors in V that maps to  $0 \in W$  (i.e., neutral element).

Definition. 
$$\ker(\Phi) := \Phi^{-1}(0_W) = \{ \mathbf{v} \in V : \Phi(\mathbf{v}) = 0_W \}$$

- Image/range: set of vectors  $w \in W$  that can be reached by  $\Phi$  from any vector in V
- V: domain, W: codomain





•  $0_V \in \ker(\Phi)$  (because  $\Phi(0_V) = 0_W$ )

• Both  $Im(\Phi)$  and  $ker(\Phi)$  are subspaces of W and V, respectively.

•  $\Phi$  is one-to-one (injective)  $\iff \ker(\Phi) = \{0\}$  (i.e., only 0 is mapped to 0)

• Since  $\Phi$  is a linear mapping, there exists  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  such that  $\Phi : \mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ . Then,  $\operatorname{Im}(\Phi) = \operatorname{column}$  space of  $\mathbf{A}$  which is the span of column vectors of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

•  $\operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A}) = \dim(\operatorname{Im}(\Phi))$ 

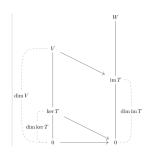
•  $\ker(\Phi)$  is the solution set of the homogeneous system of linear equations  $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}=0$ 

Theorem.

$$\dim(\ker(\Phi)) + \dim(\operatorname{Im}(\Phi)) = \dim(V)$$

- If  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(\Phi)) < \dim(V)$ , the kernel contains more than just 0.
- If dim(Im(Φ)) < dim(V), A<sub>Φ</sub>x = 0 has infinitely many solutions.
- If  $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$  (e.g.,  $V = W = \mathbb{R}^n$ ), the followings are equivalent:  $\Phi$  is
  - (1) injective, (2) surjective, (3) bijective,
  - In this case,  $\Phi$  defines y = Ax, where A is regular.
- Simplified version. For  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,

$$rk(\mathbf{A}) + nullity(\mathbf{A}) = n$$



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<sup>2</sup>Nullity: the dimension of null space (kernel)

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Roadmap

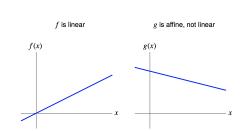


Linear vs. Affine Function



- (1) Systems of Linear Equations
- (2) Matrices
- (3) Solving Systems of Linear Equations
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- (6) Basis and Rank
- (7) Linear Mappings
- (8) Affine Spaces

- linear function: f(x) = ax
- affine function: f(x) = ax + b
- sometimes (ignorant) people refer to affine functions as linear





Example

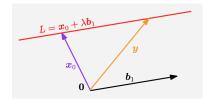


- Spaces that are offset from the origin. Not a vector space.
- Definition. Consider a vector space V,  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in V$  and a subspace  $U \subset V$ . Then, the subset  $L = \mathbf{x}_0 + U := \{\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{u} : \mathbf{u} \in U\}$  is called affine subspace or linear manifold of V.
- U is called direction or direction space, and  $x_0$  is support. point.
- An affine subspace is not a vector subspace of V for  $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin U$ .
- Parametric equation. A k-dimensional affine space  $L = \mathbf{x}_0 + U$ . If  $(\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k)$  is an ordered basis of U, any element  $\mathbf{x} \in L$  can be uniquely described as

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \lambda_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k \mathbf{b}_k, \quad \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}$$

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- In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , one-dimensional affine subspace: line.  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \lambda \mathbf{b}_1$ .  $U = \operatorname{span}[\mathbf{b}_1]$
- In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , two-dimensional affine subspace: plane.  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \lambda_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \lambda_2 \mathbf{b}_2$ .  $U = \text{span}[\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2]$
- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , (n-1)-dimensional affine subspace: hyperplane.  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i \mathbf{b}_i$ .  $U = \operatorname{span}[\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n]$



 $\phi(x) = a + \Phi(x)$  is an affine mapping from V to W. The vector a is called the translation vector.

• For a linear mapping  $\Phi: V \mapsto W$  and a vector  $\mathbf{a} \in W$ , the mapping  $\phi: V \mapsto W$  with

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**Review Questions** 



Questions?

1)