
Linear Transformations: What Do They Do?

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| A linear representation turns the problem into a **matrix question**

We began with a representation function:

$$f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad \mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}).$$

For this first representation model, assume f is linear:

$$\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}.$$

What can this transformation do to a high-dimensional feature space?

| Matrix multiplication generalizes **scalar multiplication**

One dimension

$$y = ax$$

- x, y, a are scalars.
- a scales one number line.
- The sign can reverse direction.

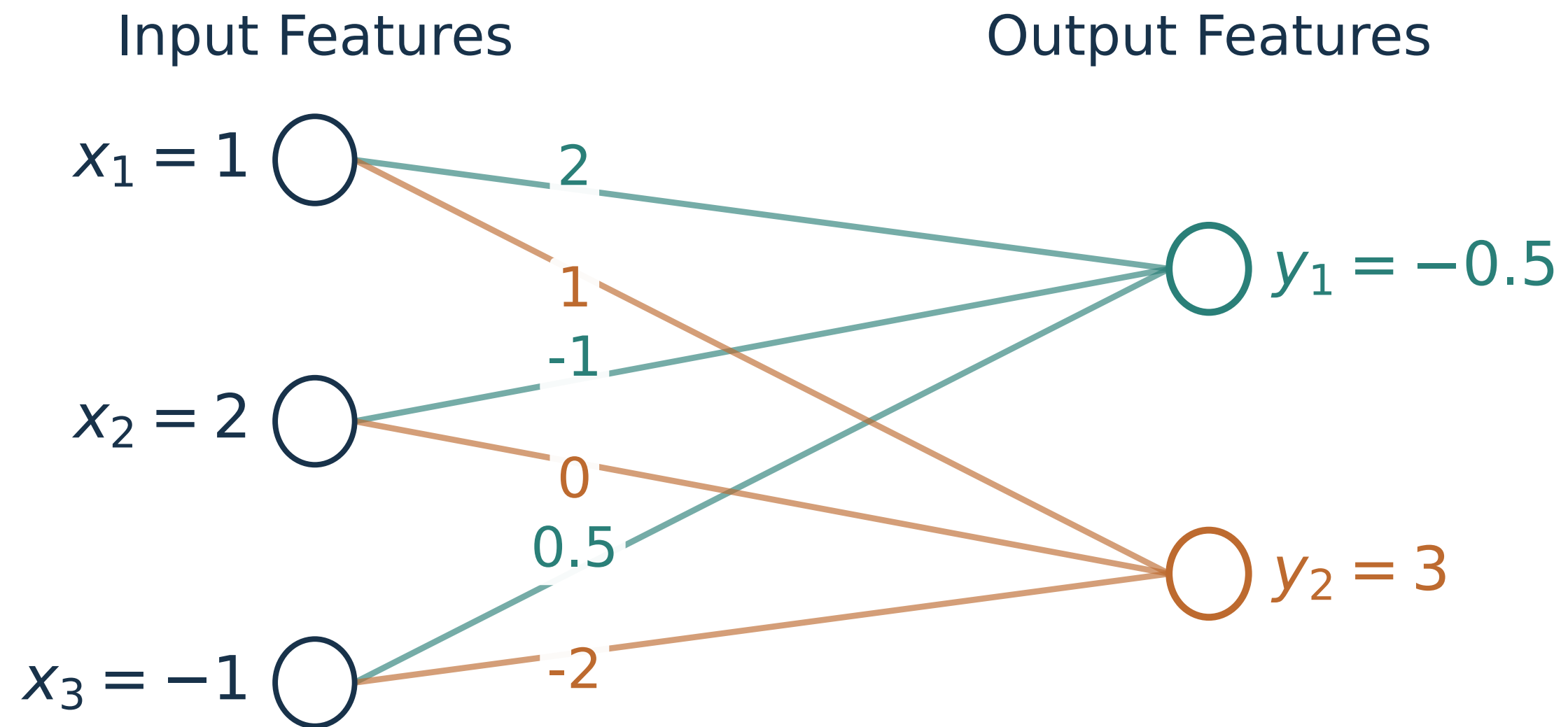
Higher dimensions

$$y = Ax$$

- x and y are vectors.
- A can scale different directions differently.
- Input and output can have different dimensions.

a becomes A : one scalar action becomes a transformation of a feature space.

| Each output feature receives a **weighted connection** from every input



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0.5 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A teal edge contributes to y_1 .
- An orange edge contributes to y_2 .
- Every edge weight is one entry a_{ji} .

| Every output is a different **linear combination** of the inputs

$$\begin{aligned}y_1 &= 2x_1 - x_2 + 0.5x_3 \\&= 2(1) - 2 + 0.5(-1) \\&= -0.5\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}y_2 &= x_1 + 0x_2 - 2x_3 \\&= 1 + 0 - 2(-1) \\&= 3\end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}}_y = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0.5 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}}_x$$

| One matrix applies the same transformation to **every observation**

For observation i :

$$\mathbf{y}_i = A\mathbf{x}_i, \quad \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \mathbf{y}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

The same entries of A define every output feature for every observation.

- **Convention:** Vectors such as $\mathbf{x}_i$ are usually written as columns.
- **Transpose:** A^T swaps rows and columns: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d} \Rightarrow A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$.

One linear operator gives a consistent representation rule for the entire dataset.

| Which batch equation has the **right shape**?

Observations are rows:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use the same transformation:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0.5 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute Y with one matrix multiplication

$$Y = ???$$

$$\underbrace{Y}_{3 \times 2} = \underbrace{X}_{3 \times 3} \underbrace{A^T}_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 & 3 \\ 0 & -4 \\ 5.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each row of Y is $(A\mathbf{x}_i)^T$.

| Matrix algebra preserves some scalar rules and **rejects others**

Valid for scalars and matrices

$$A(Bx) = (AB)x$$

$$A(x + z) = Ax + Az$$

$$AI = A$$

Order matters for matrices

$$AB \neq BA \quad \text{in general}$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Changing the order can change the value or make the product undefined.

| Dimensions expose many **invalid manipulations**

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times p}$.

Valid

$$AB \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

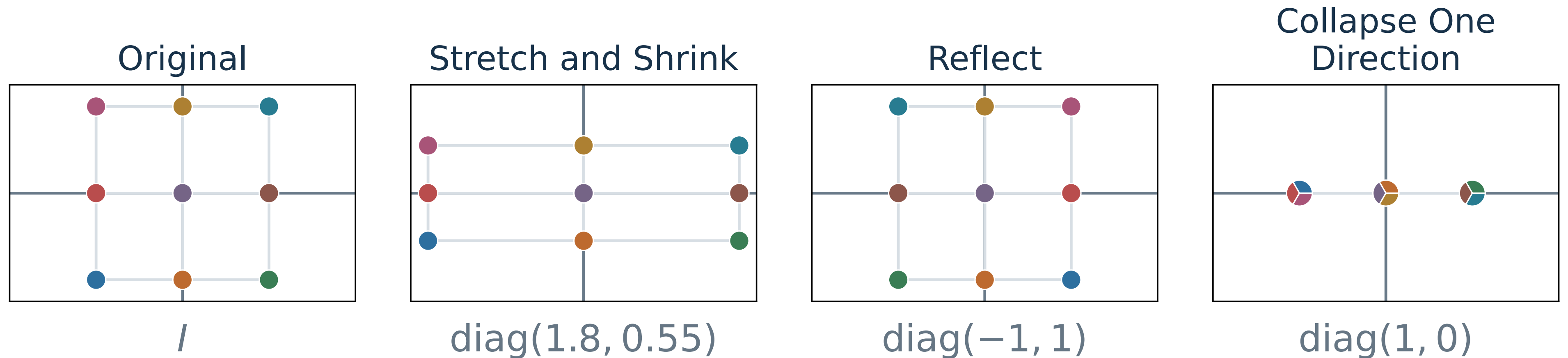
Not guaranteed to exist

$$BA$$

The inner dimensions would require $p = m$.

Shape is part of the mathematical claim, not an implementation detail.

| A diagonal matrix applies a separate **1D scaling** to each feature



Colors track the same inputs. Three colored sectors at one output location show that **three inputs have collapsed together.**

| The Euclidean norm measures **size and distance**

For $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_d^2}$$

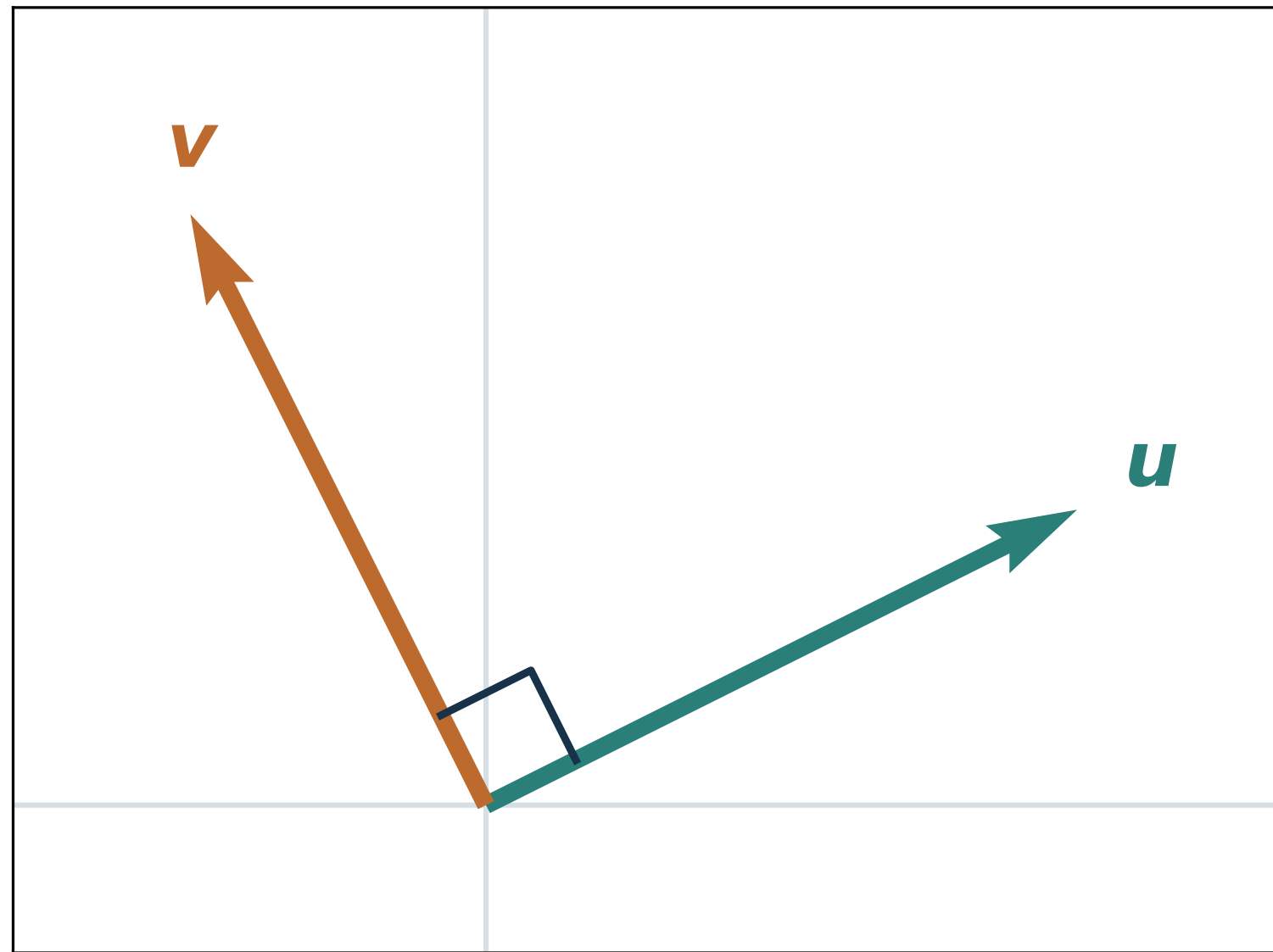
For two points $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_j$:

$$\text{dist}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j) = \|\boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{x}_j\|_2$$

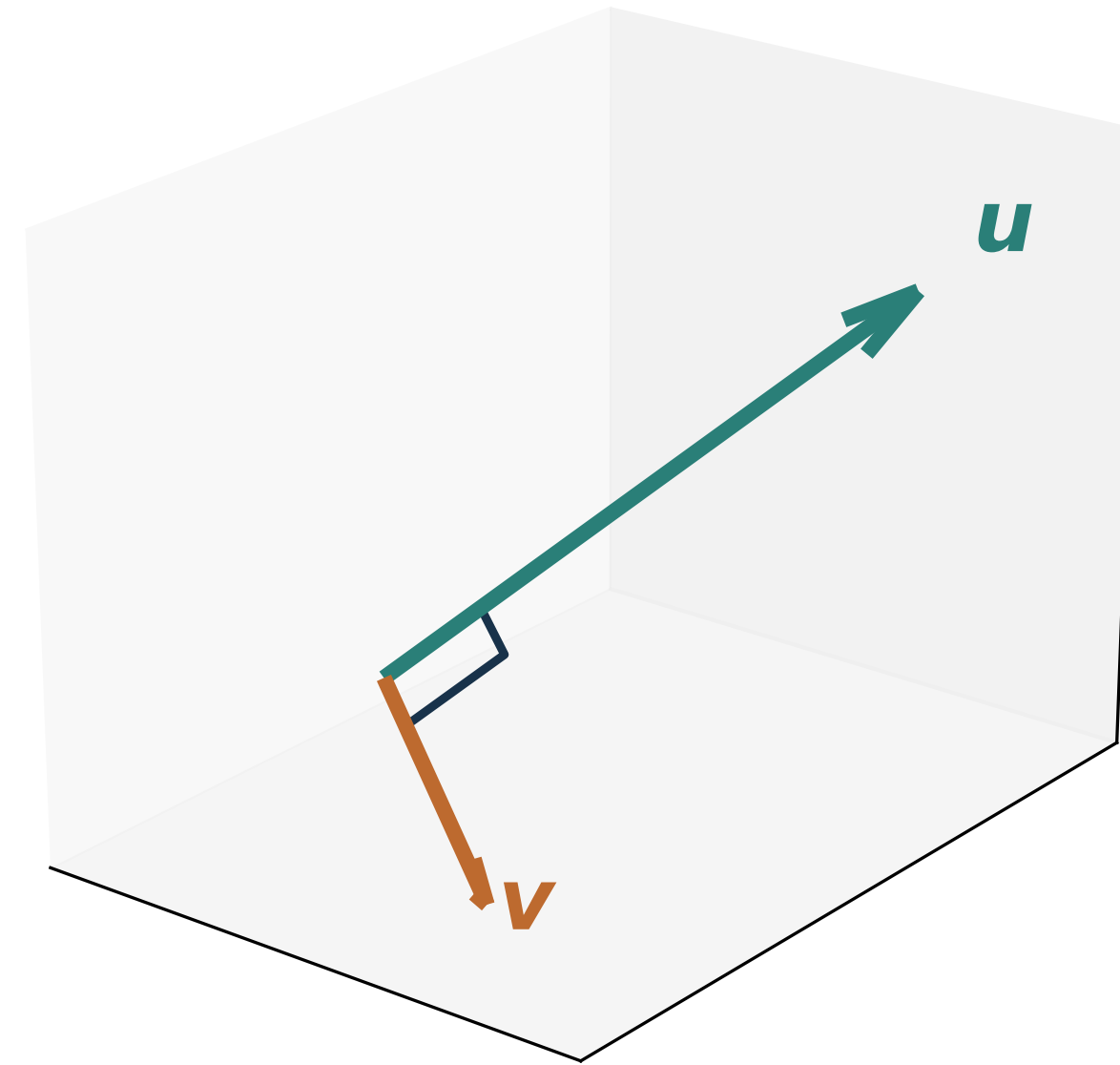
The subscript 2 identifies the Euclidean norm. Other norms measure size differently.

| Orthogonal vectors meet at a **right angle**

$$2\text{D: } \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = 0$$



$$3\text{D: } \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = 0$$



$$\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v} \iff \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = 0$$

| In higher dimensions, we **compute orthogonality**

Are these dense five-dimensional vectors orthogonal?

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ -\frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u^T v = 2 - 2 - 3 + 6 - 3 = 0 \quad \implies \quad u \perp v$$

Orthogonality is defined in any dimension, even when geometry cannot be visualized.

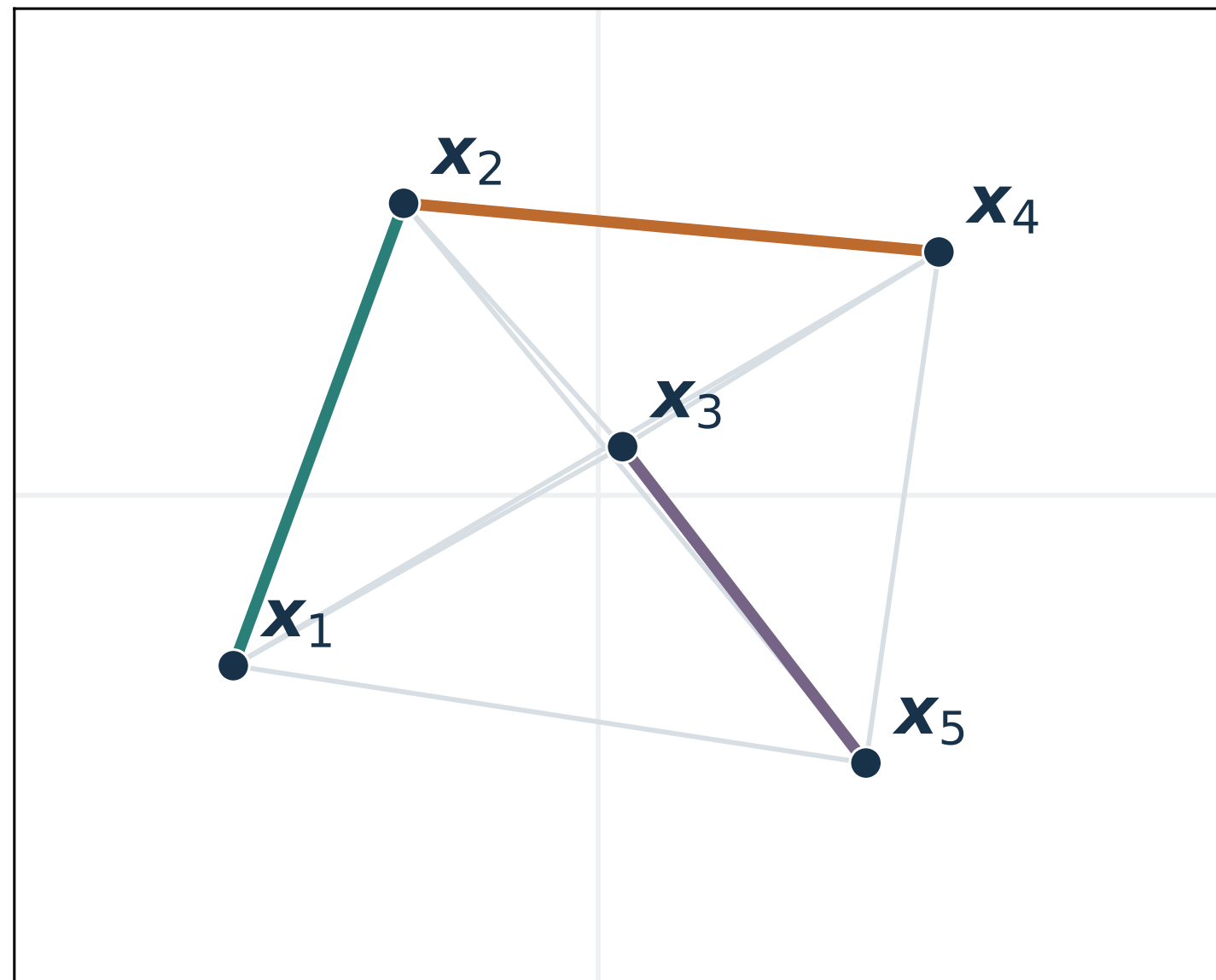
| An orthogonal matrix has **orthonormal columns**

For a square matrix $Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{q}_d] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, **orthonormal** means mutually orthogonal columns, each of unit length.

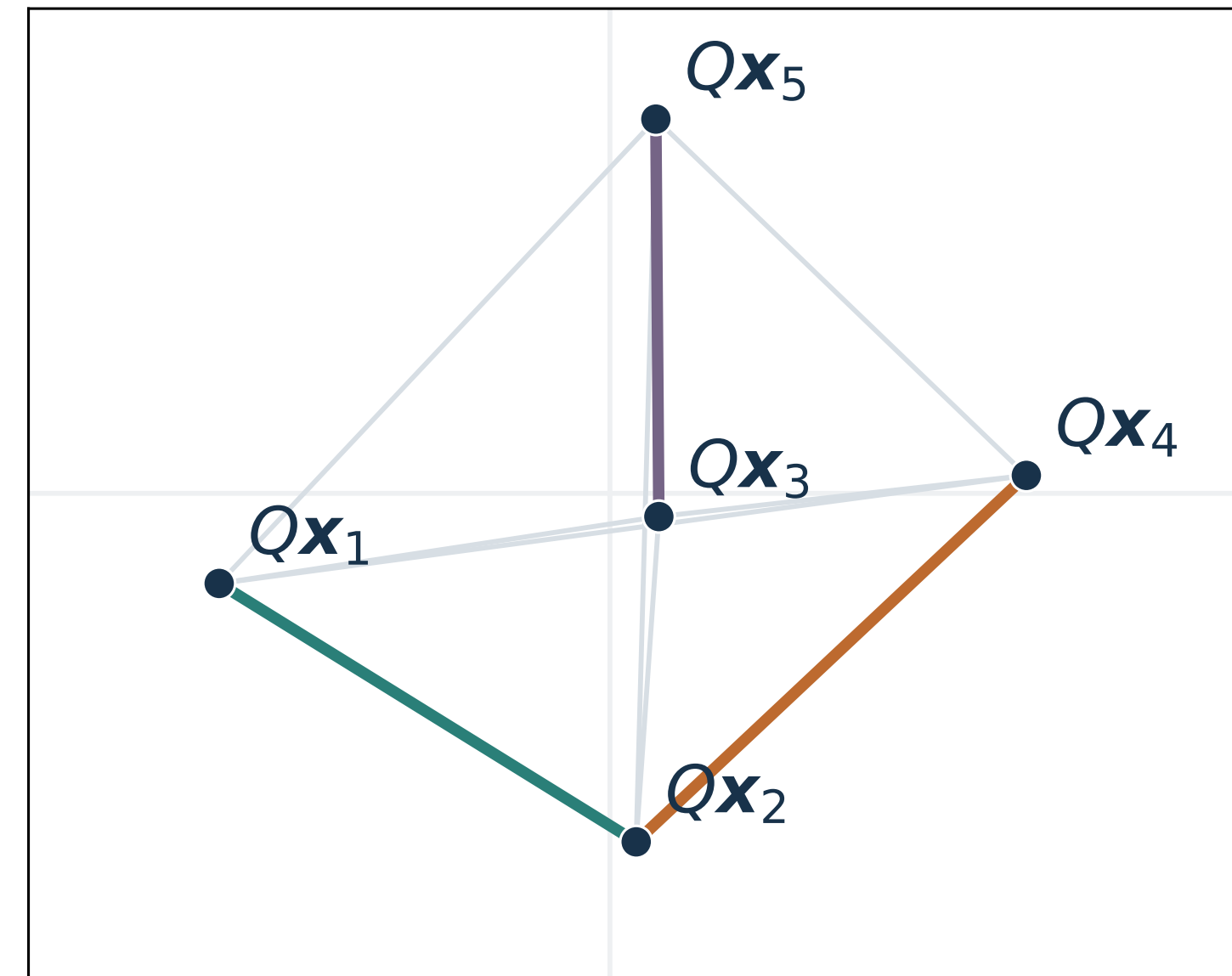
Higher dimensions	Interpretation	1D special case	Interpretation
$Ix = x$	The identity matrix leaves a vector unchanged.	$1x = x$	The scalar 1 leaves a number unchanged.
$(Q^T Q)_{ij} = \mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{q}_j$	Multiplication collects all column inner products.	$q q = q^2$	There is only one entry to multiply by itself.
$Q^T Q = I$	Inner products are 1 for the same column, 0 for distinct columns.	$q^2 = 1$	Hence $q \in \{-1, 1\}$.
$y = Qx$	Rotates or reflects about the origin, preserving length.	$y = qx$	Keeps or reverses direction while preserving length.

| Do orthogonal transformations preserve **every pairwise distance**?

Original Points



After Q



Is $\|Qx_i - Qx_j\|_2$ equal to $\|x_i - x_j\|_2$ for every pair?

| Orthogonality preserves **all pairwise Euclidean distances**

For any $\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and orthogonal Q :

$$\begin{aligned}\|Q\mathbf{x}_i - Q\mathbf{x}_j\|_2 &= \|Q(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)\|_2 && \text{(Distributivity)} \\ &= \sqrt{(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^T Q^T Q (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)} && \text{(Euclidean norm)} \\ &= \sqrt{(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)} && (Q^T Q = I) \\ &= \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 && \text{(Euclidean norm)}\end{aligned}$$

| Diagonal and orthogonal matrices have **simple interpretations**

Diagonal: Scale Each Coordinate

$$D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_d), \quad y_j = d_j x_j$$

- Each coordinate undergoes ordinary scalar multiplication.
- The sign keeps or reverses its direction.
- The magnitude stretches or shrinks it; zero collapses it.

Orthogonal: Rotate or Reflect

$$y = Qx, \quad Q^T Q = I$$

- Rotate, reflect, or combine both about the origin.
- Keep lengths, angles, and pairwise distances unchanged.
- Change orientation without stretching or shrinking.

| In 1D, **sign and magnitude** explain what multiplication does

One Dimension

For $a \neq 0$:

$$y = ax = \underbrace{\text{sign}(a)}_{\text{keep or reverse}} \underbrace{|a|}_{\text{scale}} x$$

For example, $-3x = (-1)(3)x$:

- 3: stretch by a factor of three.
- -1 : reverse direction.

Higher Dimensions

$$y = Ax$$

We know how to **calculate** the output. But for an arbitrary matrix:

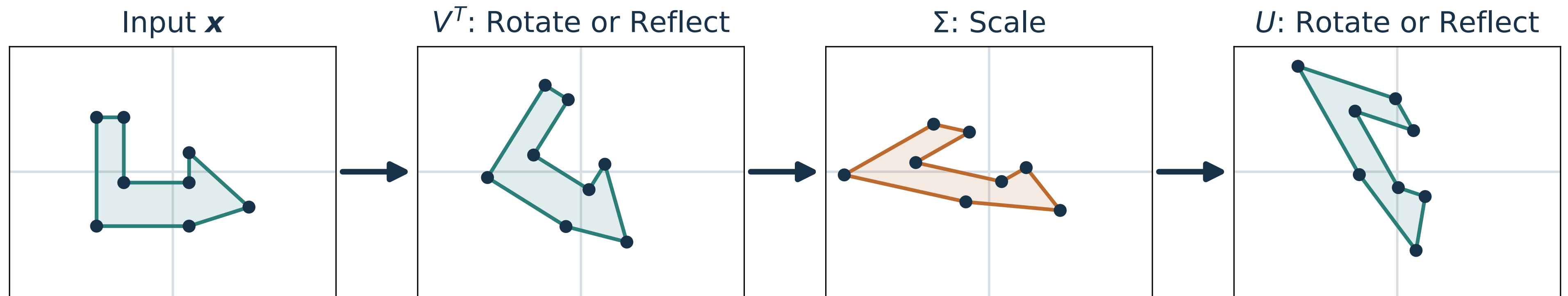
- Which directions change, and how?
- How much does each direction stretch or shrink?
- Can any direction collapse entirely?

Can we decompose any A into rotations or reflections and independent scalings so that we can **understand and analyze** what it does?

| SVD separates every linear transformation into **three understandable steps**

Let $U\Sigma V^T$ be the **singular value decomposition (SVD)** of A , i.e., $A = U\Sigma V^T$.

U and V are orthogonal; Σ is diagonal (possibly rectangular).



$$\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} = U\Sigma V^T \mathbf{x} = U(\Sigma(V^T \mathbf{x}))$$

| Each SVD factor has a precise shape and role

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$, the **full SVD** is:

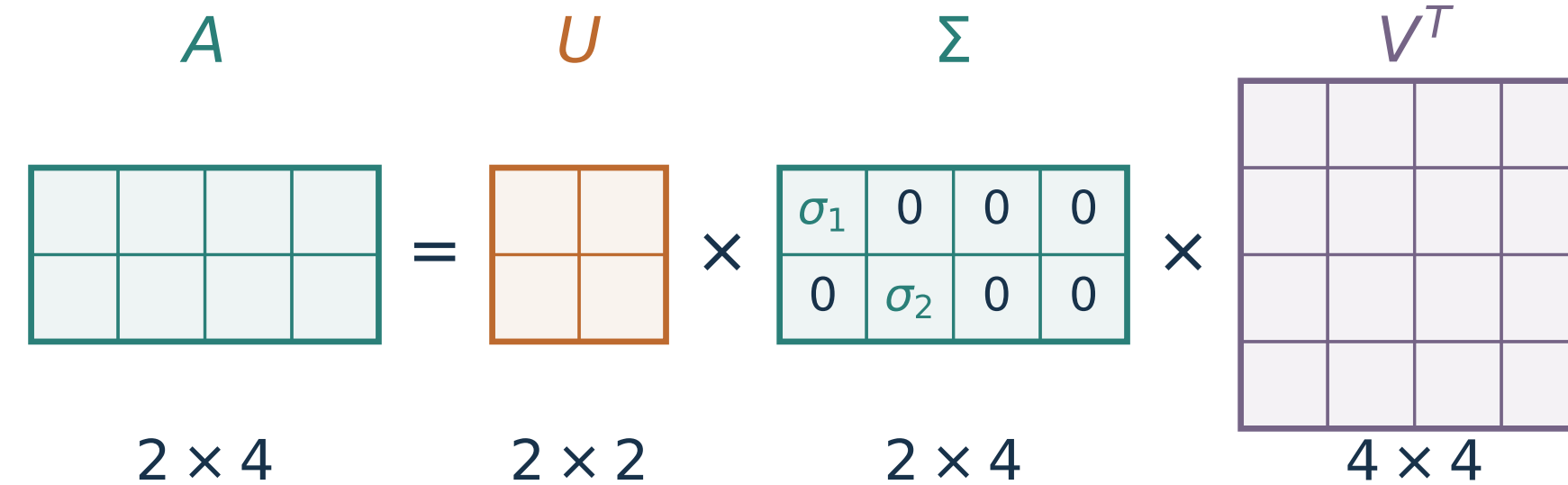
$$\underbrace{A}_{m \times d} = \underbrace{U}_{m \times m} \underbrace{\Sigma}_{m \times d} \underbrace{V^T}_{d \times d}$$

Factor	Mathematical Property	What It Does
U	Square and orthogonal: $U^T U = I_m$	Rotates or reflects in the output space.
Σ	Same shape as A ; $\Sigma_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$	Scales directions; zero scalings can collapse them.
V^T	Square and orthogonal: $V^T V = V V^T = I_d$	Rotates or reflects in the input space.

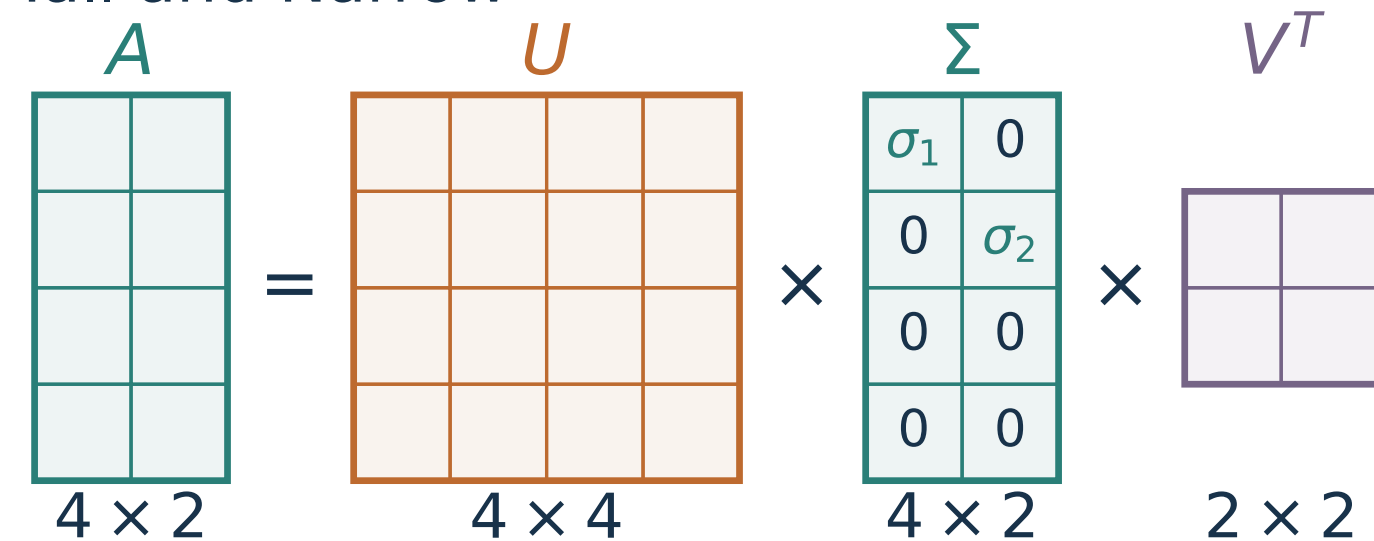
Σ is **rectangular diagonal**: only $\Sigma_{ii} = \sigma_i \geq 0$ may be nonzero, for $i = 1, \dots, \min(m, d)$.

| A and Σ share a shape; **the orthogonal factors are square**

Short and Wide

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ 2 \times 4 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} U \\ 2 \times 2 \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} \Sigma \\ 2 \times 4 \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} V^T \\ 4 \times 4 \end{array}$$


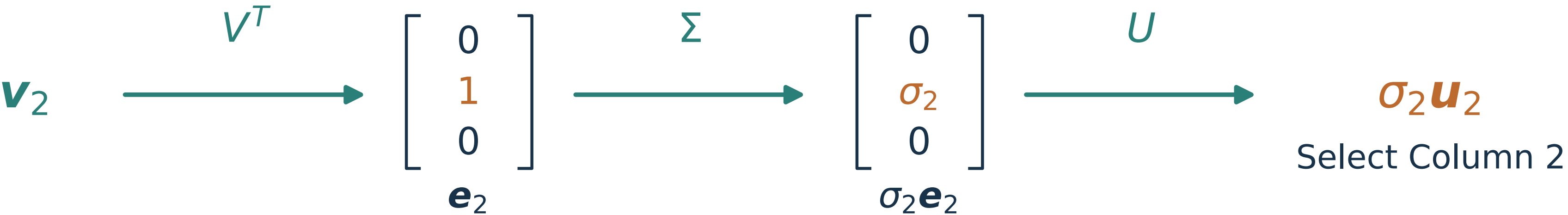
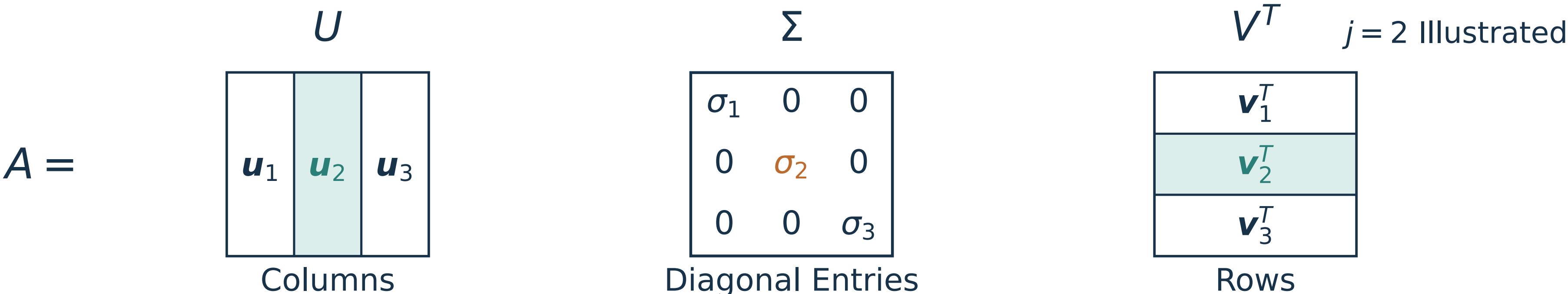
Tall and Narrow

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ 4 \times 2 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} U \\ 4 \times 4 \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} \Sigma \\ 4 \times 2 \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} V^T \\ 2 \times 2 \end{array}$$


U : square, sized by the **rows** of A .

V^T : square, sized by the **columns** of A .

| Singular values tell us **how much each direction scales**



$V^T v_j = e_j \implies Av_j = U(\Sigma e_j) = \sigma_j u_j, \quad j \leq \min(m, d).$

| The largest singular value gives the **maximum stretching**

Order the singular values: $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$.

$$\|A\mathbf{x}\|_2 \leq \sigma_1 \|\mathbf{x}\|_2, \quad \|A\|_2 := \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2=1} \|A\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sigma_1.$$

- V^T and U preserve lengths.
- Each coordinate scaling in Σ is at most σ_1 .
- The input $\mathbf{v}_1$ attains the largest scaling.

| Rank counts the **independent directions that survive**

$$\text{rank}(A) = \#\{j : \sigma_j > 0\} \leq \min(m, d)$$

For example:

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \text{rank}(A) = 2$$

- Two independent input directions produce nonzero output directions.
- The third input direction disappears: $A\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$.
- Rotations and reflections change which directions these are, but not the rank.

| A null direction makes **different inputs indistinguishable**

The null space contains all directions that map to zero:

$$\text{null}(A) = \{\boldsymbol{h} : A\boldsymbol{h} = \mathbf{0}\}.$$

For any nonzero $\boldsymbol{h} \in \text{null}(A)$:

$$A(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{h}) = A\boldsymbol{x} + A\boldsymbol{h}$$

(Distributivity)

$$= A\boldsymbol{x}$$

(Null direction)

| A square operator is invertible when **no direction collapses**

In 1D, $y = ax$ can be undone by $x = y/a$ exactly when $a \neq 0$.

For square $A = U\Sigma V^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$:

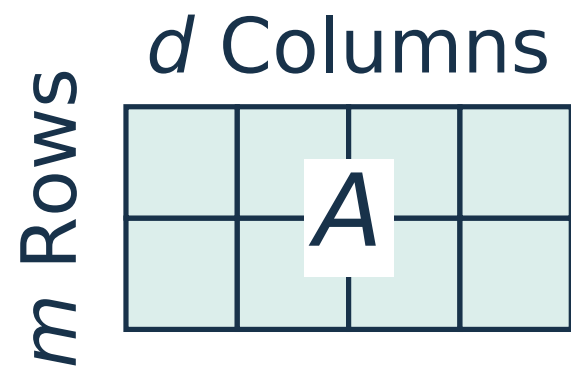
$$\text{all } \sigma_j > 0 \quad \implies \quad A^{-1} = V\Sigma^{-1}U^T, \quad \Sigma^{-1} = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_1, \dots, 1/\sigma_d).$$

$A^{-1}A = (V\Sigma^{-1}U^T)(U\Sigma V^T)$	(Substitute)
$= V\Sigma^{-1}\Sigma V^T$	$(U^T U = I_d)$
$= VV^T$	$(\Sigma^{-1}\Sigma = I_d)$
$= I_d$	$(VV^T = I_d)$

| Recovery depends on **preserving every input direction**

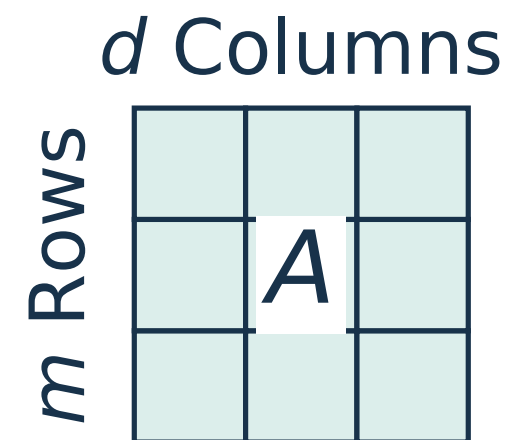
$y = Ax$ maps d input coordinates to m output coordinates.

$$m < d$$



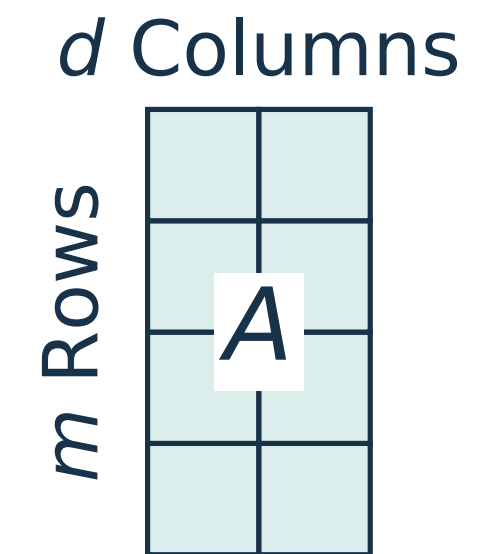
Recovery Impossible
Some Input Direction Is Lost

$$m = d$$



Recovery If $\text{rank}(A) = d$
Every Input Direction Must Survive

$$m > d$$



Recovery If $\text{rank}(A) = d$
Extra Outputs Can Be Redundant

Recovering **every** $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ requires $\text{rank}(A) = d$.

| The pseudoinverse **undoes every nonzero scaling**

For **any** $A = U\Sigma V^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$, define:

$$\underbrace{A^\dagger}_{d \times m} = \underbrace{V}_{d \times d} \underbrace{\Sigma^\dagger}_{d \times m} \underbrace{U^T}_{m \times m}.$$

$\Sigma^\dagger$ has the **transposed shape** of Σ , with zero off-diagonal entries:

$$(\Sigma^\dagger)_{jj} = \begin{cases} 1/\sigma_j, & \sigma_j > 0, \\ 0, & \sigma_j = 0. \end{cases}$$

- Reverse the output reorientation, undo nonzero scalings, then reorient back.
- A zero scaling destroyed information; leaving it zero cannot restore it.
- The **Moore–Penrose pseudoinverse** exists even when A has no inverse.

| The pseudoinverse recovers inputs **exactly** when no input direction is lost

For $y = Ax$, recovery of **every** input means:

$$\hat{x} = A^\dagger y = x \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^d \iff A^\dagger A = I_d.$$

Let $r = \text{rank}(A)$ and $V_r = [\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{v}_r]$ contain its surviving input directions.

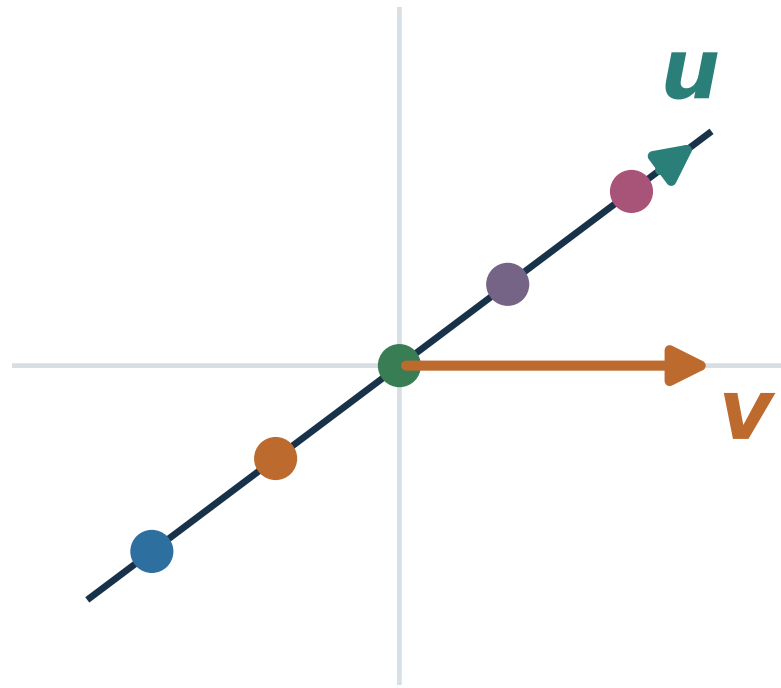
$A^\dagger A = V \Sigma^\dagger U^T U \Sigma V^T$	(Substitute)
$= V(\Sigma^\dagger \Sigma) V^T$	$(U^T U = I_m)$
$= V_r V_r^T$	(Keep nonzero directions)

$\Sigma^\dagger \Sigma$ has r diagonal ones and $d - r$ zeros. Thus $A^\dagger A = I_d$ **exactly when** $r = d$: full column rank, requiring $m \geq d$.

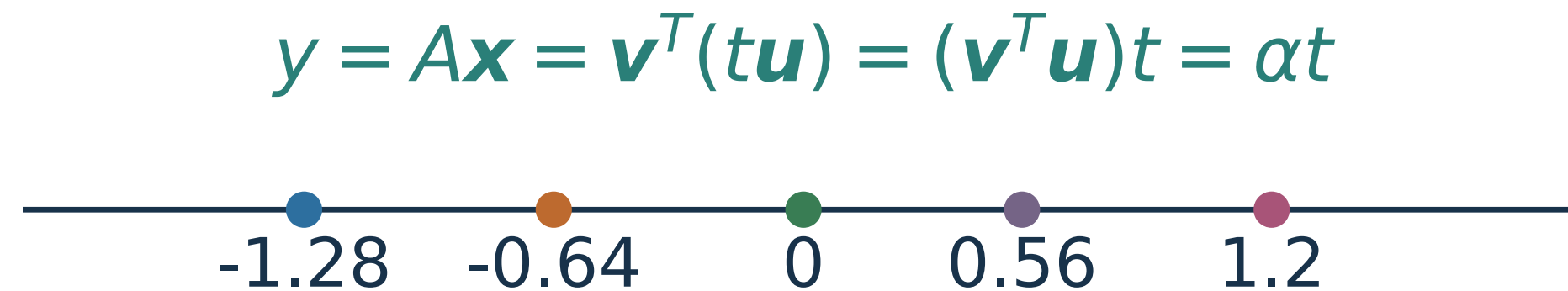
| A restricted input subspace can be **recovered exactly**

Inputs: $x = t\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = 1$. Encoder: $A = \mathbf{v}^T$, with $\alpha = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u} \neq 0$.

Inputs on a Line in 2D



One Coordinate Identifies Each Input



Decode with $B = \mathbf{u}/\alpha$: knowing the line lets us undo its nonzero scaling.

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = B\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\alpha}(\alpha t) = t\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x}.$$

If $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}$, then $\alpha = 1$, $y = t$, and $B = A^\dagger = \mathbf{u}$. **In general, $B \neq A^\dagger$.**

| Read what an operator does from its singular values

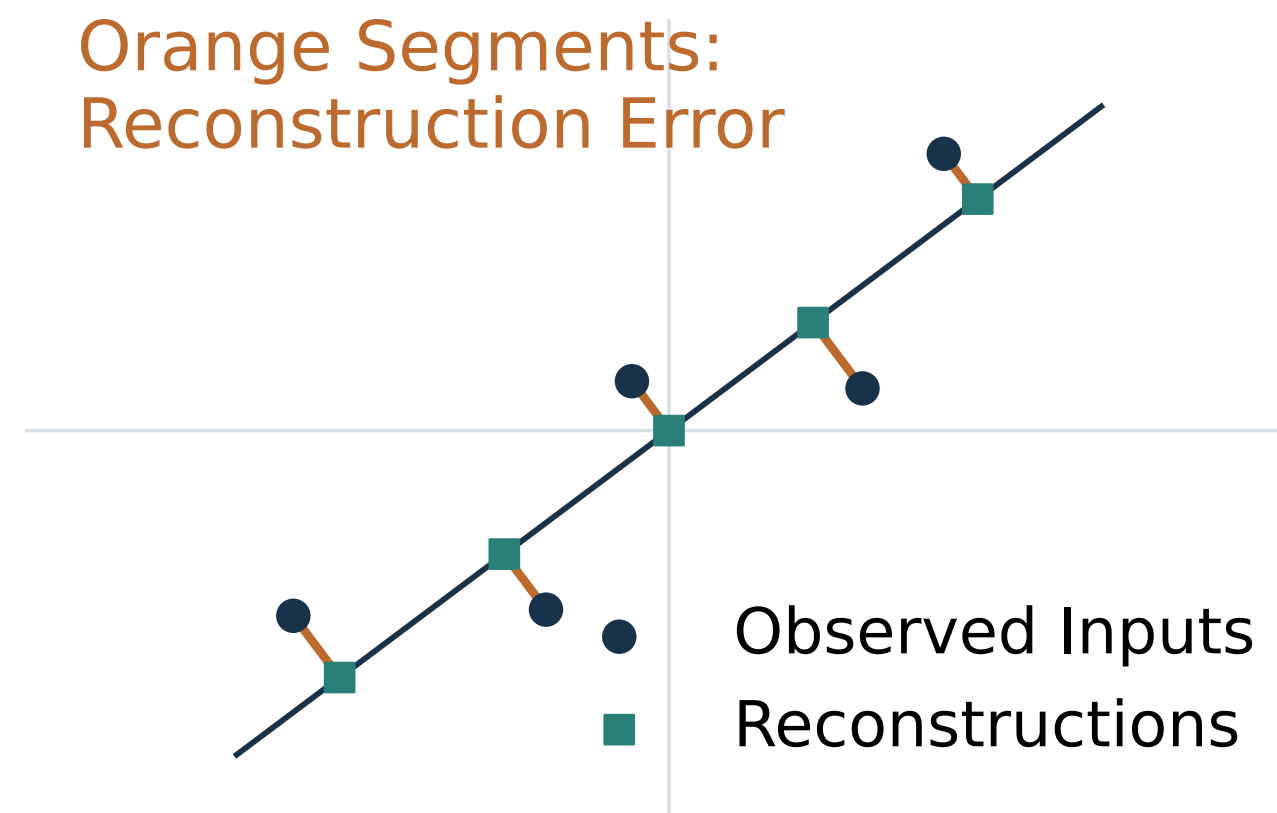
A sensor-processing system uses $A = U \operatorname{diag}(4, 1, 0) V^T$.

Can you recover every sensor input? What is the largest possible stretching factor? Could this operator preserve every pairwise distance? Explain which input direction is invisible to the system.

Rank 2; recovery is impossible in general; maximum scaling is 4. The direction v_3 disappears. All distances cannot be preserved.

| Data near a subspace can have **small reconstruction error**

What if the inputs are **close to** a line, but do not lie exactly on it?



$$y = u^T x, \quad \hat{x} = u y, \quad \text{error} = \|x - \hat{x}\|_2^2.$$

Which direction minimizes total reconstruction error?