

COMP 7180
***Quantitative Methods for Data
Analytics and Artificial
Intelligence***

Lecture 1 – Introduction to Linear Algebra:
Vectors and Matrices

What is Linear Algebra

- Linear
 - Having to do with lines/planes/etc.
 - For example, $x - y = 1$, $x + y + 3z = 7$, not \sin ; \log ; x^2 , etc.
- Algebra
 - Solving equations involving numbers and symbols
 - From al-jabr (Arabic), meaning reunion of broken parts
 - Abu Ja'far Muhammad ibn Musa al-Khwarizmi, 9th century



What is Linear Algebra

- Linear algebra is the study of vectors, matrices, and linear functions/equations.
- Vectors (columns of numbers) and matrices (2D arrays of numbers) are the language of data.
- **Linear algebra is a branch of mathematics, but the truth of it is that linear algebra is the mathematics of data.**

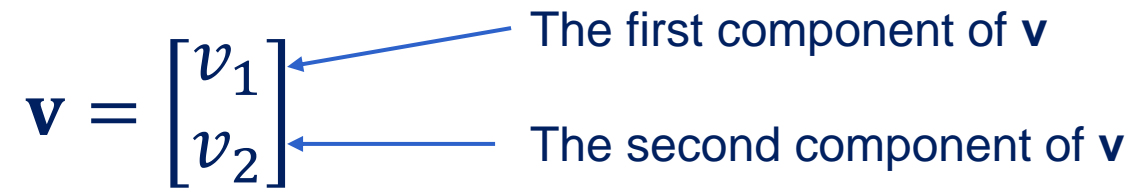
Vectors in two dimensions

- A two-dimensional vector \mathbf{v}

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The first component of \mathbf{v}

The second component of \mathbf{v}



- We write \mathbf{v} as a column. A single letter \mathbf{v} (in boldface) to denote a vector.

Two basic operations in Linear Algebra

- Vector addition: add vectors

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ v_2 + w_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Subtraction follows the same ideas

$$\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 - w_1 \\ v_2 - w_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scalar multiplication: vector can be multiplied by any number (scalar) c

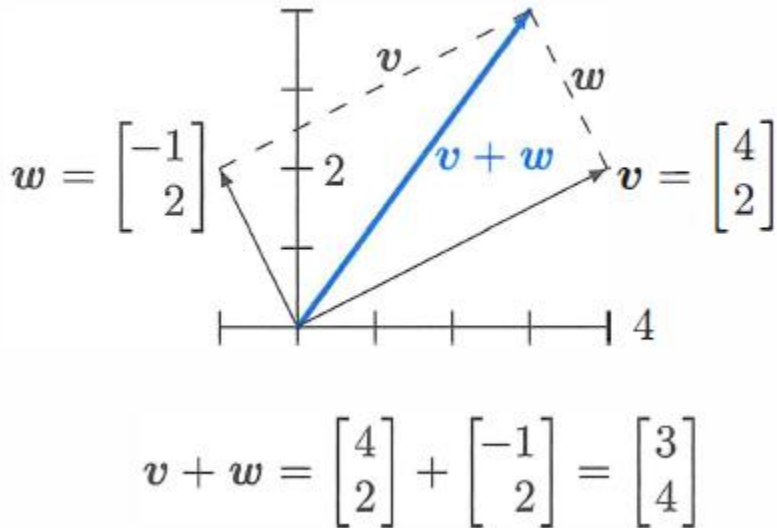
$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad c\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} cv_1 \\ cv_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Two basic operations in Linear Algebra

- Linear algebra is built on these two operations
 - Adding vectors: $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$
 - Multiplying by scalars: $c\mathbf{v}$
- Linear combination: combine addition with scalar multiplication
 - $c\mathbf{v} + d\mathbf{w}$: multiply \mathbf{v} by c and multiply \mathbf{w} by d , then add together
 - $c\mathbf{v} + d\mathbf{w}$ is a “**linear combination**” of vector \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w}

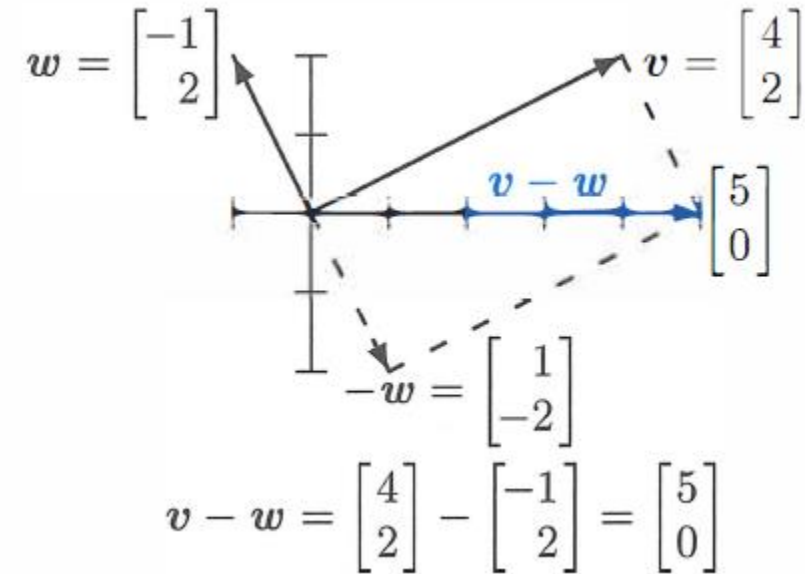
Visualize vector addition/subtraction

Vector Addition



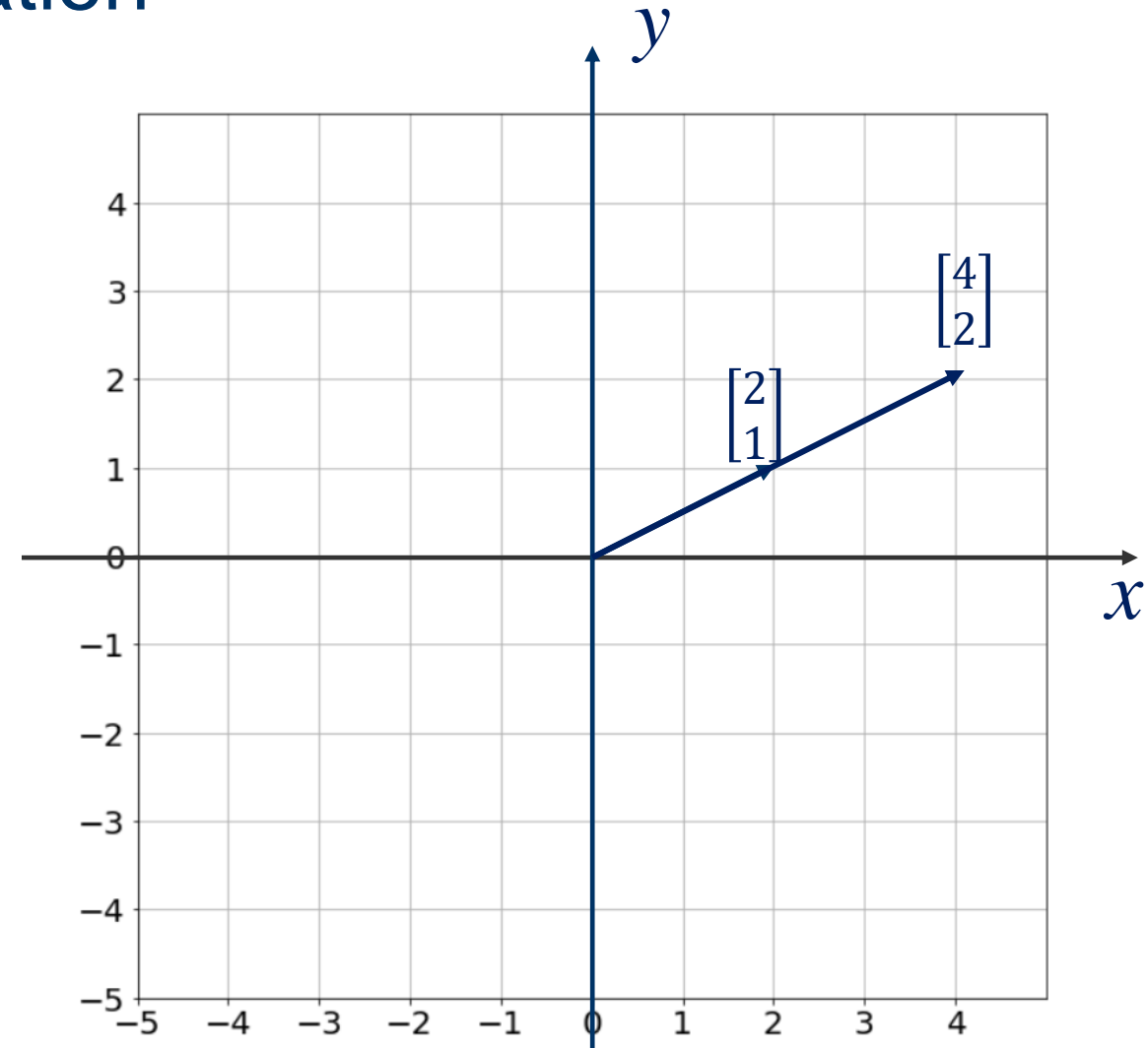
- A vector can be represented by an arrow from the “**origin**” (0, 0)
- $v + w$: at the end of v , place the start of w . Then the third side is $v + w$

Vector Subtraction



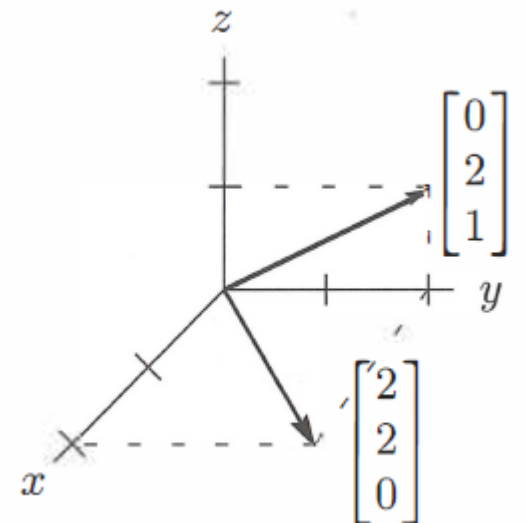
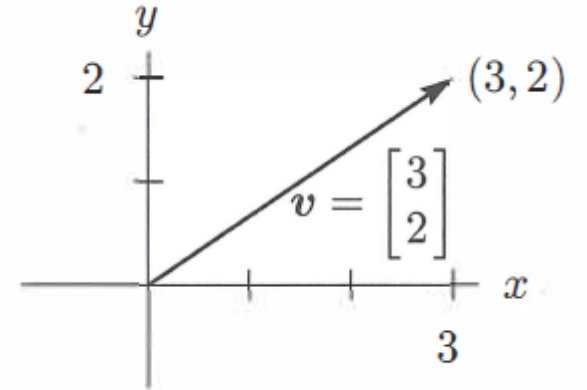
Visualize vector-scalar multiplication

- $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- $2\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$
- If the scalar is positive, vector-scalar multiplication only changes the length (magnitude) of the vector, it does not change the direction of the vector.
- If the scalar is negative, it both changes the length and reverses the direction of the vector.



Vectors in Three Dimensions

- A vector with two components corresponds to a point in the xy plane.
 - The components of \mathbf{v} are the coordinates of the point: $x = v_1$, $y = v_2$.
- Now we allow vectors to have three components, then the xy plane is replaced by three-dimensional xyz space.



Vectors in Three Dimensions

- In three dimensions, $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ is still found by element-wise addition (the same as in two dimensions).

– E.g.,

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Then we can see how to add vectors in 4 or 5 or n dimensions. When \mathbf{w} starts at the end of \mathbf{v} , the third side is $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$.

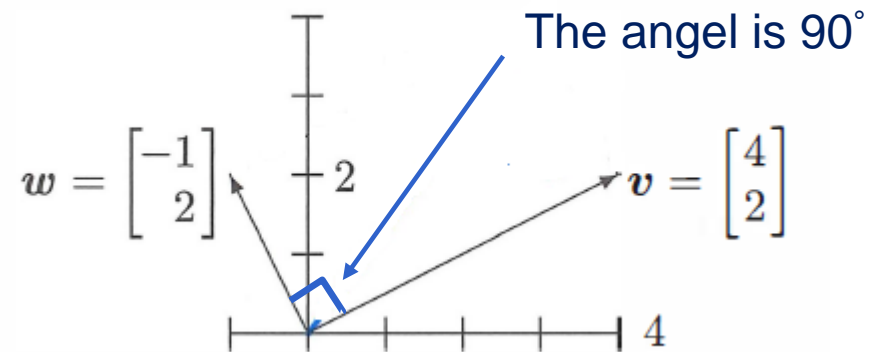
Dot product

- The dot product (or inner product) of $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is a scalar

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2$$

- If the dot product of two vectors is 0, it means that ***these two vectors are perpendicular (orthogonal)***.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 4 * (-1) + 2 * 2 = 0$$



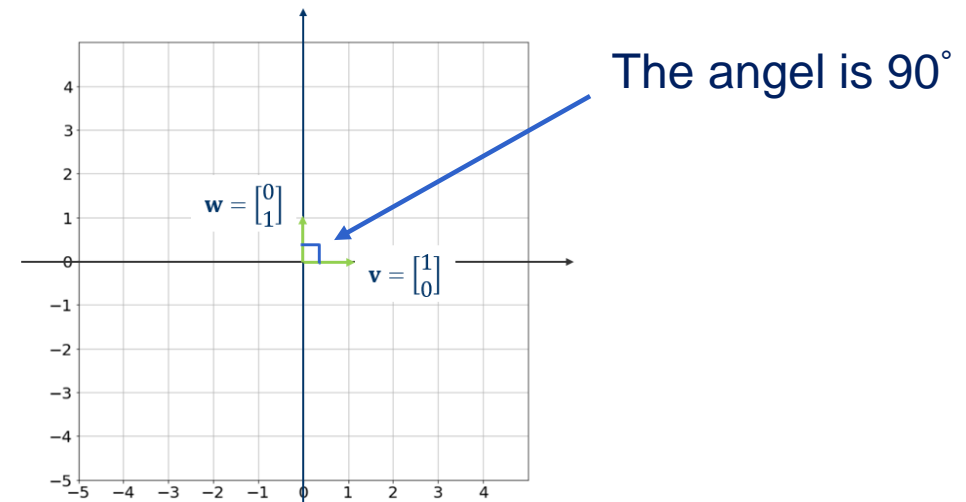
Dot product

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- If the dot product of two vectors is 0, it means that ***these two vectors are perpendicular (orthogonal)***.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 * 0 + 0 * 1 = 0$$



Dot product example

- We have three goods to buy or sell. Their prices are (p_1, p_2, p_3) for each unit – this is the “price vector” \mathbf{p} . The quantities that we buy or sell are (q_1, q_2, q_3) – positive when we sell, negative when we buy. Selling q_1 units at the price p_1 brings in $q_1 p_1$. The total income (quantities \mathbf{q} times prices \mathbf{p}) is the dot product $\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{p}$ in three dimensions:

$$\mathbf{Income} = \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ q_2 \\ q_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix} = q_1 p_1 + q_2 p_2 + q_3 p_3$$

- Total sales equal to total purchases if $\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{p} = 0$, which means that \mathbf{p} is perpendicular to \mathbf{q} in three dimensional space.
- A supermarket with thousands of goods goes quickly into high dimensions.

Length of a vector

- An important case of dot product is the dot product with itself.
 - E.g., $\mathbf{v} = (1, 2, 3)$

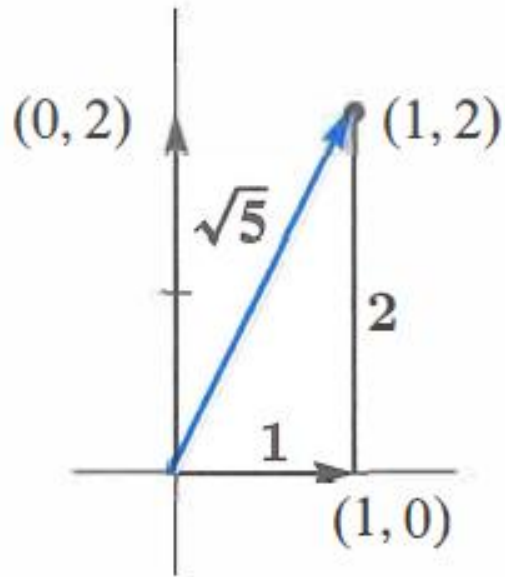
$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1 + 4 + 9 = 14$$

- The dot product $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ gives the length of \mathbf{v} squared: $\|\mathbf{v}\|^2$
- The length $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ of a vector \mathbf{v} is the square root of $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_d^2}$$

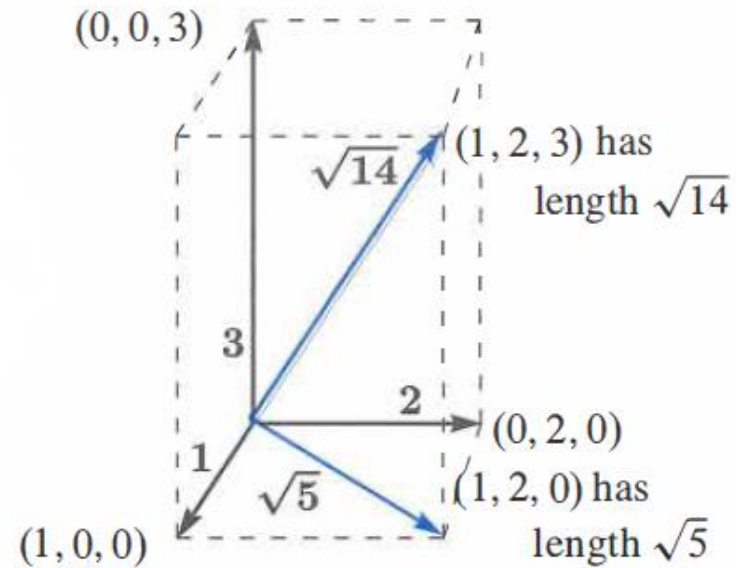
Length of a vector

- $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ is the length of the arrow that represents the vector.



Two-dimensional vector

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$$



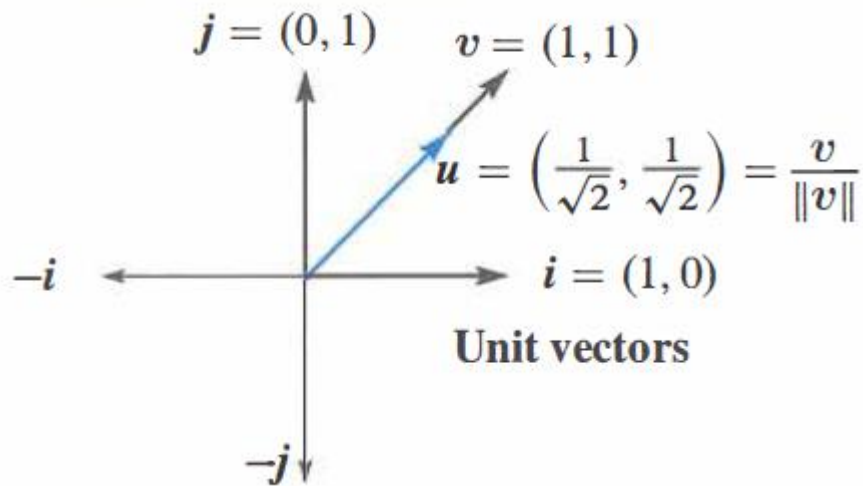
Three-dimensional vector

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2}$$

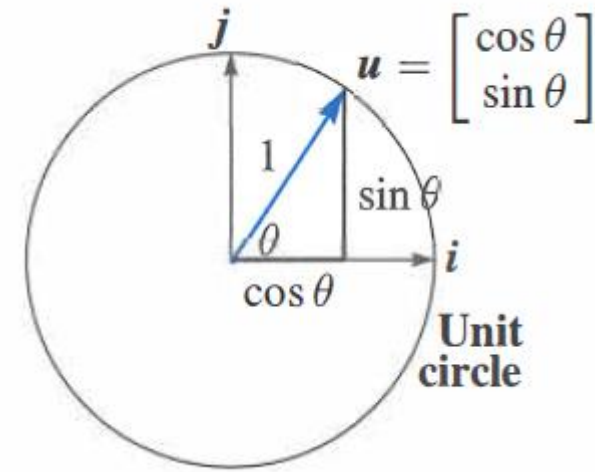
Unit Vector

- The word “unit” is always indicating that some measurement equals “one”
- A unit vector \mathbf{u} is a vector whose length equal one: $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 1$.
- How to get a unit vector?
 - For any nonzero vector \mathbf{v} , we can obtain its unit vector by dividing it by its length $\|\mathbf{v}\|$
- $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$ is a unit vector in the same direction as \mathbf{v} .

Unit Vector



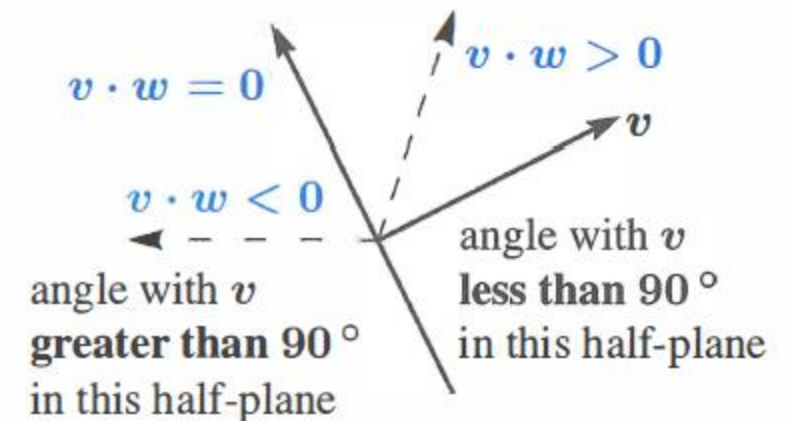
The unit vector \mathbf{u} at angle 45° is obtained by dividing $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1)$ by its length $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{2}$.



The $\mathbf{u} = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ is a unit vector at angle θ .
 $(\cos \theta)^2 + (\sin \theta)^2 = 1$

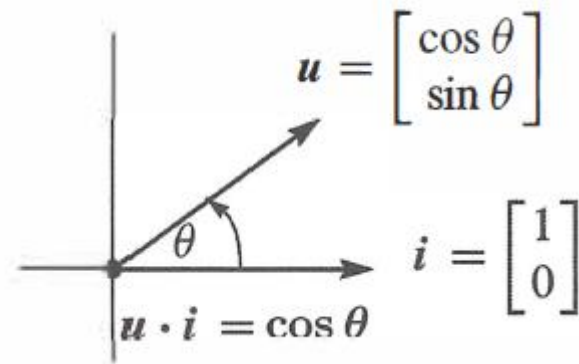
The Angle Between Two Vectors

- The dot product $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ is zero when the angle between these two vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} is $\theta = 90^\circ$. \mathbf{v} is perpendicular to \mathbf{w} .
- Zero vector $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ is perpendicular to every vector \mathbf{w} because $\mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ is always zero.
- How about $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ is not zero?
 - The sign of $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ tells whether they are below or above a right angle.
 - The angle is less than 90° when $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ is positive
 - The angle is above 90° when $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ is negative
 - The borderline is where vectors are perpendicular to \mathbf{v} .

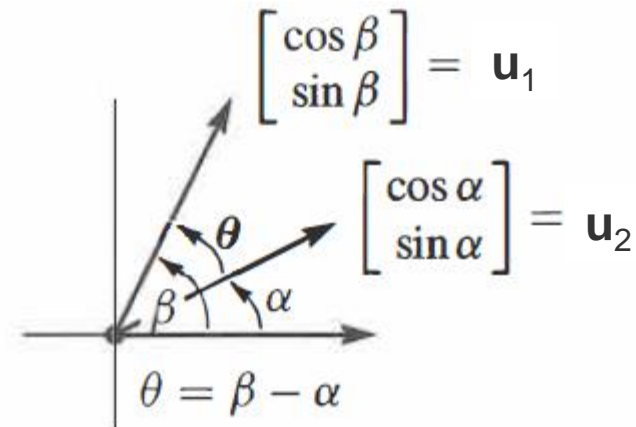


The Angle Between Two Vectors

- The dot product reveals the exact angle θ .
- For two unit vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$, the dot product $\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2$ is the cosine of θ . This remains true in d dimensions.



$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \cos \theta$$



$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta \\ \sin \beta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \cos \beta \cos \alpha + \sin \beta \sin \alpha \\ &= \cos(\beta - \alpha) = \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

The Angle Between Two Vectors

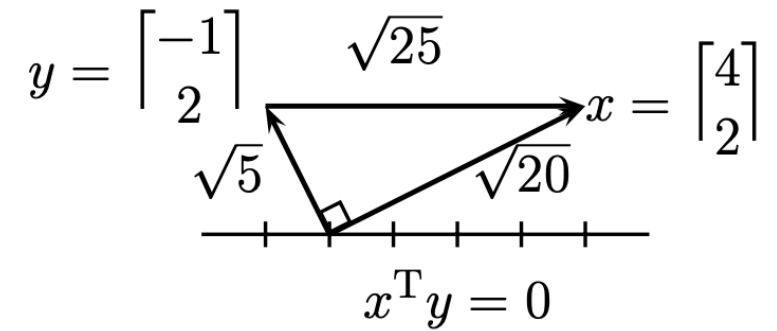
- How about the exact angle between two non-unit vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} ?
 - Divide the non-unit vectors by their length to get unit vectors $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$ and $\frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$
 - Then the dot product of unit vectors $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$ and $\frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$ gives $\cos \theta$
- **Cosine Formula**

If \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} are nonzero vectors then $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \cos \theta$

The Angle Between Two Vectors – Another Point of View

- What is perpendicularity (orthogonality)?
 - Two vectors are perpendicular/orthogonal provided they form a **right triangle**.

Sides of a right triangle $\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 = \|x - y\|^2$.



- Applying the length formula, this test for orthogonality in \mathbf{R}^n becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2) + (y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2) &= (x_1 - y_1)^2 + \cdots + (x_n - y_n)^2. \\ &= (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2) - 2(x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n) + (y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2).\end{aligned}$$

Orthogonal vectors $x^T y = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n = 0$.

Matrix

Definition: An $m \times n$ matrix, A , is a rectangular array of elements

$$A = (a_{ij}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

m = # of rows

n = # of columns

dimensions = $m \times n$

Matrix Operations

- Matrix addition

- Matrix can be added if their shapes are the same
- Matrix addition is like vector addition: element-wise addition

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 \\ 9 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix multiplied by a scalar c

- Matrix can be multiplied by a scalar
- Each entry in the matrix will be multiplied by the scalar

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Operations: Matrix Multiplication

- When can we multiply matrix **A** by matrix **B**?
 - To multiply matrix **A** by matrix **B**, number of columns in **A** must equal to the number of rows in **B**.

$$\mathbf{A}_{m \times n} \mathbf{B}_{n \times p} = \mathbf{C}_{m \times p}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



What is matrix product **AB**?

- The first way: the dot product way (the usual way to multiply matrices by hand) .
- The product **AB** is filled with dot products: take the dot product of each row of **A** with each column of **B**
- The ij -th (i.e., the i -th row and the j -th column) entry in matrix product **AB** is the dot product between i -th row of **A** and j -th column of **B**.

$$\begin{bmatrix} * & & & & \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{i5} & \\ * & & & & \\ * & & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} * & * & b_{1j} & * & * & * \\ & & b_{2j} & & & \\ & & \vdots & & & \\ & & b_{5j} & & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & * & & & \\ * & * & (AB)_{ij} & * & * & * \\ & & * & & & \\ & & * & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

A is 4 by 5 B is 5 by 6 AB is $(4 \times 5)(5 \times 6) = 4$ by 6

What is matrix product **AB**?

- E.g.1,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1*2 + 1*3 + 0*0 & 1*2 + 1*4 + 0*0 & 1*0 + 1*1 + 0*0 \\ 2*2 + (-1)*3 + 0*0 & 2*2 + (-1)*4 + 0*0 & 2*0 + (-1)*1 + 0*0 \\ 0*2 + 0*3 + 1*0 & 0*2 + 0*4 + 1*0 & 0*0 + 0*1 + 1*0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- E.g. 2, a column times row $\mathbf{A}_{m \times 1} \mathbf{B}_{1 \times p} = \mathbf{C}_{m \times p}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0*1 & 0*2 & 0*3 \\ 1*1 & 1*2 & 1*3 \\ 2*1 & 2*2 & 2*3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A column times a row is an “outer” product. The result is a matrix.
- A row times a column is an “inner” product, that is another name for dot product. The result is a scalar.

What is matrix product \mathbf{AB} ?

- The second way (column picture): Each column of \mathbf{AB} is a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A} .
 - Matrix \mathbf{A} times every column of \mathbf{B} .

$$\mathbf{A}_{m \times n} \mathbf{B}_{n \times p} = \mathbf{A}[\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \mathbf{b}_3 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_p] = [\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_2 \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_3 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_p]$$

– E.g.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

What is matrix product **AB**?

- The third way (row picture): each row of **AB** is a linear combination of rows of **B**.
 - Every row of **A** times matrix **B**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \\ 1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \\ 0 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \\ -1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \\ 0 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \\ 0 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \\ 1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is matrix product **AB**?

- The fourth way (columns multiply rows): multiply columns 1 to n of **A** by rows 1 to n of **B**, then add those matrices together.

$$\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ a_1 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & b_1 & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & b_n & - \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 + \cdots + a_n b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} [2 \quad 2 \quad 0] + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} [3 \quad 4 \quad 1] + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} [0 \quad 0 \quad 0] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 4 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The laws for matrix operations

- Addition laws

- $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ (commutative law)
- $c(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = c\mathbf{A} + c\mathbf{B}$ (distributive law)
- $\mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C}$ (associative law)

- Multiplication laws

- $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$ (the commutative “law” is usually broken)
- $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC}$ (distributive law from the left)
- $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AC} + \mathbf{BC}$ (distributive law from the right)
- $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C}$ (associative law for \mathbf{ABC})

Small Exercise

- Find an examples of 2 by 2 matrices E and F such that $EF = 0$, although no entries of E or F are zero.

- Solution:

$$E = F = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear combination revisit

- Linear combination of vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The linear combinations of these three vectors are $x_1\mathbf{u} + x_2\mathbf{v} + x_3\mathbf{w}$

$$x_1\mathbf{u} + x_2\mathbf{v} + x_3\mathbf{w} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear combination revisit

- Linear combination of vectors

$$x_1 \mathbf{u} + x_2 \mathbf{v} + x_3 \mathbf{w} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Represent linear combination of vectors using a matrix
 - Form a matrix \mathbf{A} where vectors \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} are the columns of \mathbf{A}
 - The linear combination of $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$ is that matrix \mathbf{A} multiplies the vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{1} & \boxed{0} & \boxed{0} \\ \boxed{-1} & \boxed{1} & \boxed{0} \\ \boxed{0} & \boxed{-1} & \boxed{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{u} \quad \mathbf{v} \quad \mathbf{w}$

Linear combination revisit

- Linear combination of vectors

$$x_1 \mathbf{u} + x_2 \mathbf{v} + x_3 \mathbf{w} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Represent linear combination of vectors using a matrix
 - Form a matrix \mathbf{A} where vectors \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} are the columns of \mathbf{A}
 - The linear combination of $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$ is that matrix \mathbf{A} multiplies the vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Two different viewpoints of matrix-vector multiplication

- The usual way to view matrix-vector multiplication (the way you may be familiar with)
 - Multiplication a row at a time (**row picture**)

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 * x_1 + 0 * x_2 + 0 * x_3 \\ -1 * x_1 + 1 * x_2 + 0 * x_3 \\ 0 * x_1 - 1 * x_2 + 1 * x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The new way is to view \mathbf{Ax} as a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A} (**column picture**). Linear combinations are the key to linear algebra.

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} x_2 + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} x_3 = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 + x_2 \\ -x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear Equations

- Matrix-vector Multiplication

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}$$

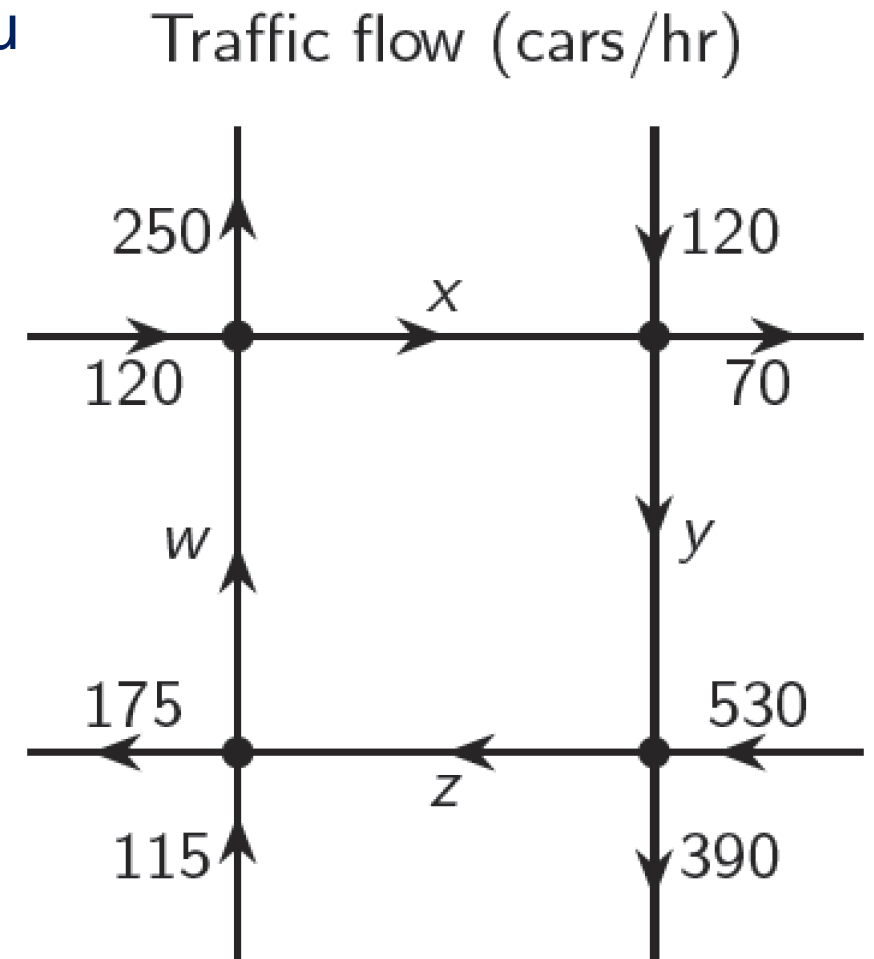
- Given any input $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$, we can compute the output \mathbf{b}
- E.g.,

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- New question: Given \mathbf{A} , and \mathbf{b} , find \mathbf{x} that satisfy $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$.
 - A system with linear equations.

Application of Linear Equations

- Civil Engineering: How much traffic flows through the four labeled segments w, x, y, and z?
- System of linear equations:
$$w + 120 = x + 250$$
$$x + 120 = y + 70$$
$$y + 530 = z + 390$$
$$z + 115 = w + 175$$



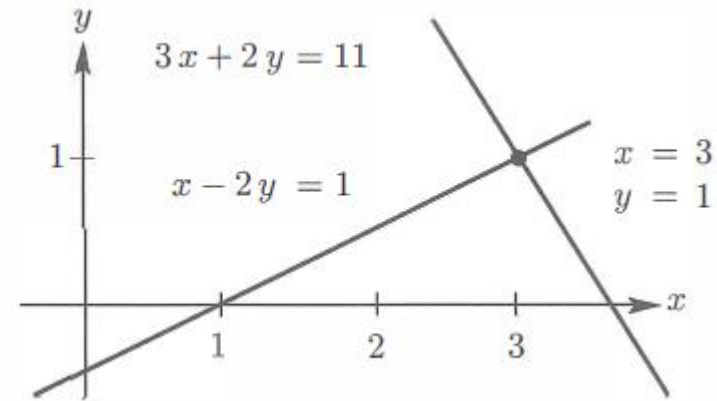
Solving Linear Equations

- Solving a system of linear equations is a central problem in linear algebra.
- A small linear system with two equations and two unknown variables.

$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y &= 1 \\ 3x + 2y &= 11\end{aligned}$$

Row picture of the linear system

$$\begin{aligned}x - 2y &= 1 \\ 3x + 2y &= 11\end{aligned}$$



- Row picture of this linear system

- The first equation $x - 2y = 1$ corresponds to a line in the xy plane.
- The second equation $3x + 2y = 11$ corresponds to another line in the xy plane.
- The point $(3, 1)$ where these two lines meet solves both equations.

Column Picture of the linear system

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x - 2y & = & 1 \\ 3x + 2y & = & 11 \end{array} \quad \longrightarrow \quad x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

- This problem is to find the combination of two vector (1,3) and (-2, 2) on the left side that equals to vector (1, 11) on the right side.
- We know $x=3$ and $y = 1$ (the same numbers as before) is the solution.

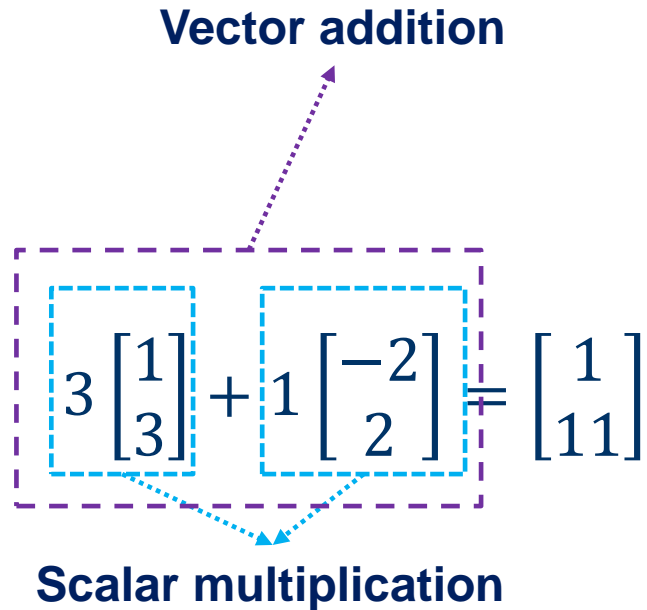
$$3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

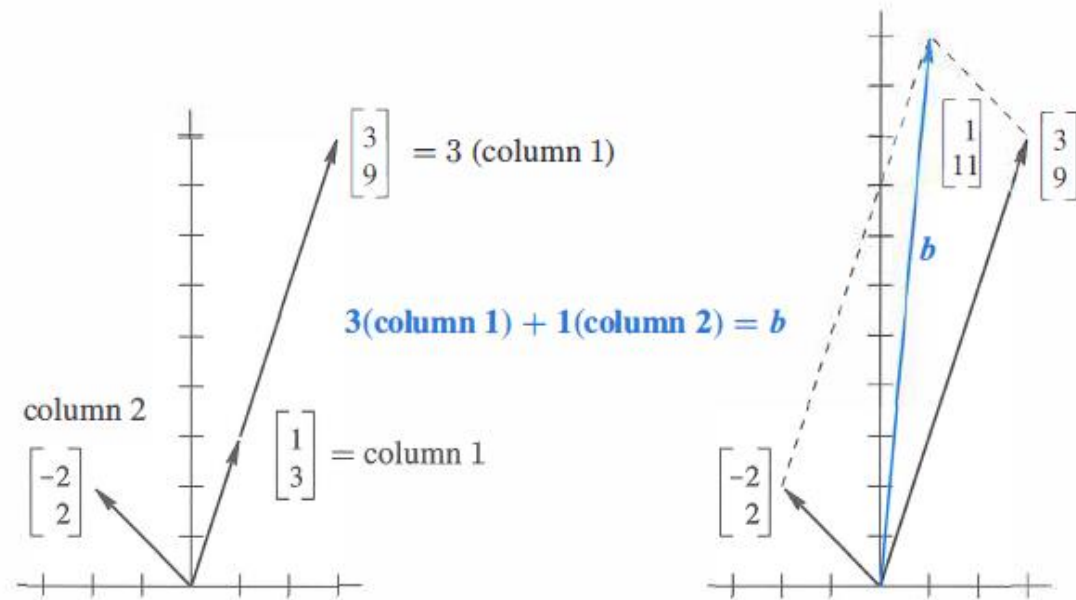
Column Picture of the linear system

Vector addition

$$3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

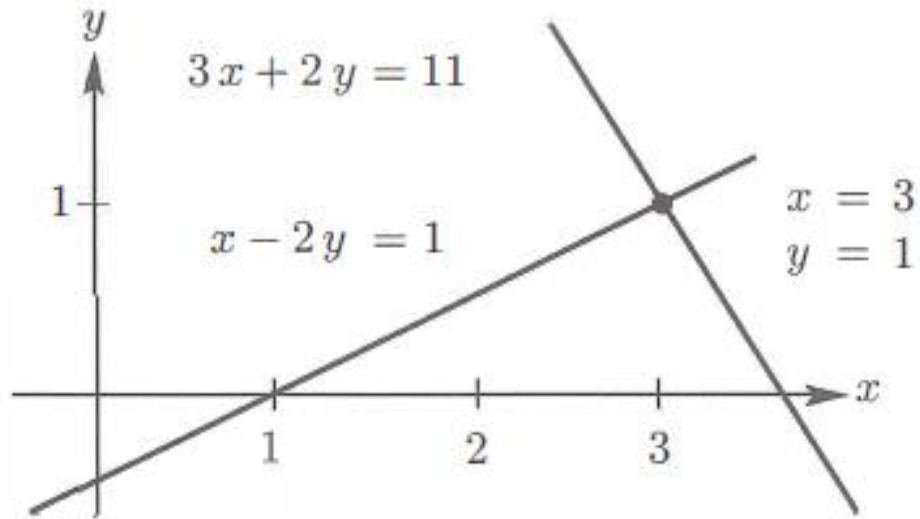
Scalar multiplication



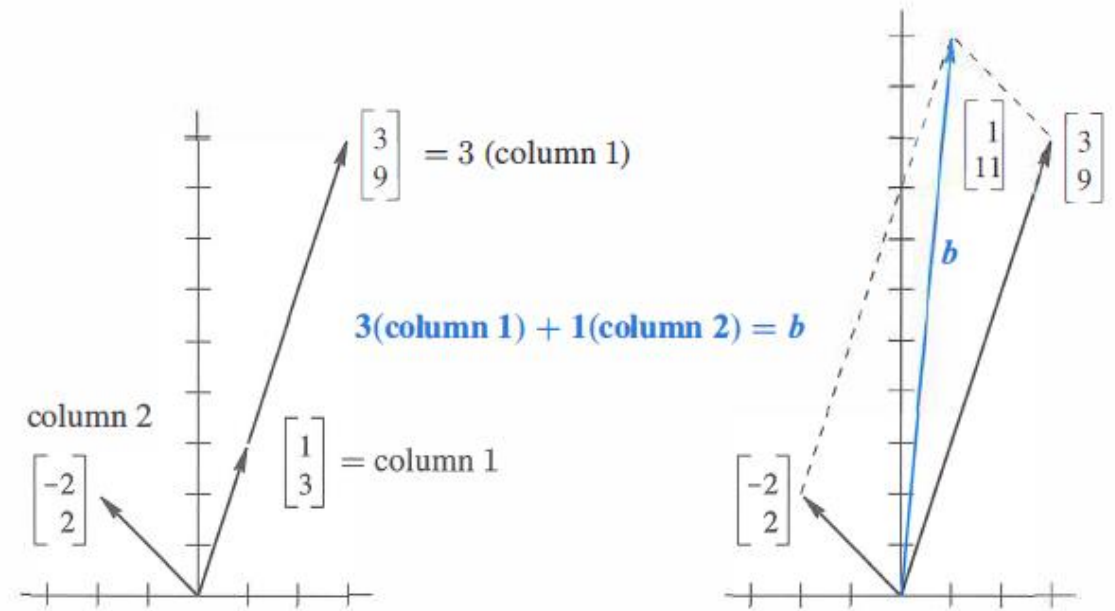


- Linear combination consists of two basic operations: **scalar multiplication** and **vector addition**

Row picture vs. column picture



Row picture



Column picture

The Matrix Form of Linear Equations

- We can represent the linear equations as a matrix problem **$Ax = b$** .

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x - 2y = 1 \\ 3x + 2y = 11 \end{array} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The bold capital letter **A** stands for the 2*2 coefficient matrix.
- The letter bold letter **b** denotes the column vector with two values 1, 11.
- The unknown variable **x** is also a column vector with two unknown values x and y .

How to systematically solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$?

- Suppose \mathbf{A} is a square matrix (n unknown variables with n equations) and \mathbf{A} is invertible. Then, the solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ where \mathbf{A}^{-1} is the inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} .
- Why?
 - Let discuss the following concepts before we talk about this solution.
 - Identity matrix
 - Inverse matrix

Identity matrix

- Let's see the following 2*2 matrix and 3*3 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- These two matrices $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are a special type of matrix. They are **identity matrices**. Identity matrix is a square matrix that has 1s on the “main diagonal” and 0s everywhere else. Whatever vector this identity matrix multiplies, that vector is not changed.
- This is like multiply by 1, but for matrices and vectors.

Small Exercise

- If $AB = I$ and $BC = I$, prove that $A = C$.

- Solution:

Using the associative law, we have:

$$A = AI = A(BC) = ABC = (AB)C = IC = C$$

Inverse Matrix

- Suppose **A** is a square matrix. The inverse of A is a matrix B such that $BA = I$ and $AB = I$. There is at most one such B, and it is denoted by A^{-1} (pronounced “A inverse”):

$$A^{-1}A = I \quad \text{and} \quad AA^{-1} = I$$

- Fundamental property is simple: If you multiply by A and then multiply by A^{-1} , you are back where you started.

Uniqueness of Inverse

- The matrix A cannot have two different inverses.
- Proof: Assume that A has two inverse matrices B and C . According to the property of inverse matrix, we have $BA = I$ and $AC = I$. Then using associative law, we have

$$B = BI = B(AC) = BAC = (BA)C = IC = C$$

Property of Inverse

- The product AB of invertible matrices is inverted by $B^{-1}A^{-1}$.
- Proof: using associative law to remove parentheses, we have

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = ABB^{-1}A^{-1} = AIA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

$$(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}A^{-1}AB = B^{-1}IB = B^{-1}B = I.$$

- A similar rule holds with three or more matrices:

$$\text{Inverse of } ABC \quad (ABC)^{-1} = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}.$$

Small Exercise

- If A is invertible and $AB = AC$, prove that $B = C$.
- Proof: From $AB = AC$, we have $AB - AC = A(B-C) = 0$. Since A is invertible, we have
- $(B-C) = A^{-1}A(B-C) = A^{-1}0 = 0 \Rightarrow B = C$.

Systematically solve a system of linear equations

- Solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$
- Suppose \mathbf{A} is a square matrix and \mathbf{A} is invertible.

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \quad (\text{multiply both sides by } \mathbf{A}^{-1})$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} \quad (\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I})$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b}$$

Questions (We will answer them in the following lectures):

1. Which square matrices are invertible?
2. What if \mathbf{A} is square matrix but not invertible?
3. What if \mathbf{A} is not a square matrix?

The End