

Angles, Vector Spaces, Matrices

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

Angle between vectors

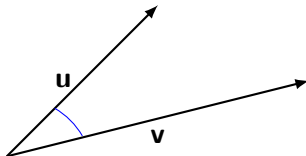
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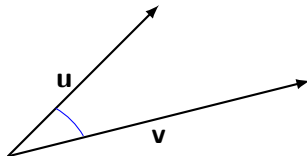
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Remember the formula from high school geometry:

$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos \alpha$, where α is the angle between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

Angle between vectors

Definition

The angle θ between two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is the angle $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ for which:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|}$$

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Example

Let $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the angle θ between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{(3 \cdot 7) + (4 \cdot 1)}{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} \cdot \sqrt{7^2 + 1^2}} = \frac{25}{\sqrt{25} \cdot \sqrt{50}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \cos \frac{\pi}{4} \Rightarrow \theta = \arccos \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\pi}{4} = 45^\circ$$

Angle between vectors

Corollary

For any vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \|\mathbf{v}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \cos \theta,$$

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i.e. for any numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n we have

$$|a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \dots + a_n b_n| \leq \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2} \cdot \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + \dots + b_n^2}$$

a fact known as the **Cauchy-Schwarz inequality**.

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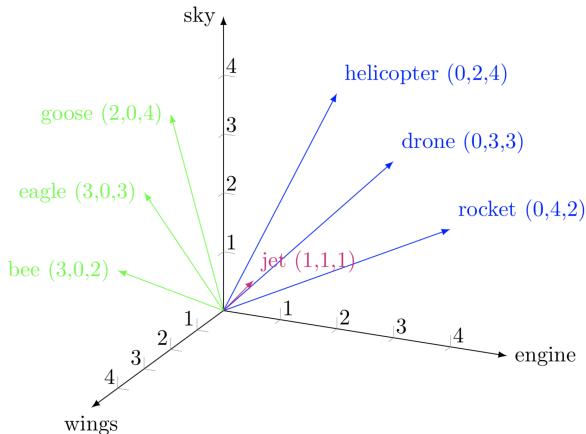
This is important because being orthogonal is the mathematical way of saying "pointing in completely different directions".

Cosine similarity (optional)

Suppose that we somehow represent a couple of words as vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 .

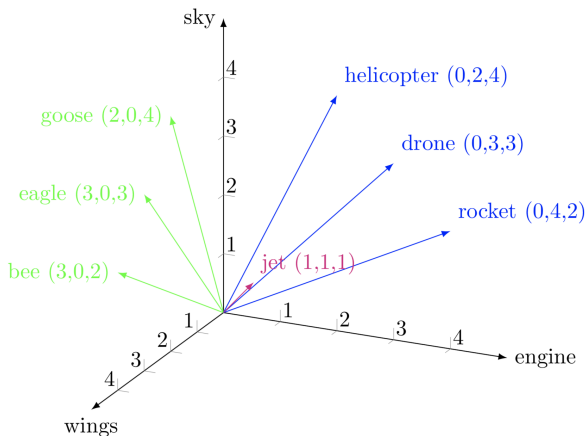
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Which vectors are more similar, **drone** and **jet**, or **drone** and **rocket**?

Cosine similarity (optional)

A useful way to measure how similar two vectors are, is to measure the *cosine* of the angle between them:

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While the L1 or L2 distances between two vectors measure how far or how *close* their endpoints are, the cosine similarity measures how *aligned* they are – independently of their lengths.

In the example of **drone**, **jet**, and **rocket**, the cosine between **drone** and **jet** is ≈ 0.95 , while the cosine between **drone** and **rocket** is ≈ 0.7 .

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(check some actual word embeddings [here](#))

Finally, we are left to notice two things. Take, for example,

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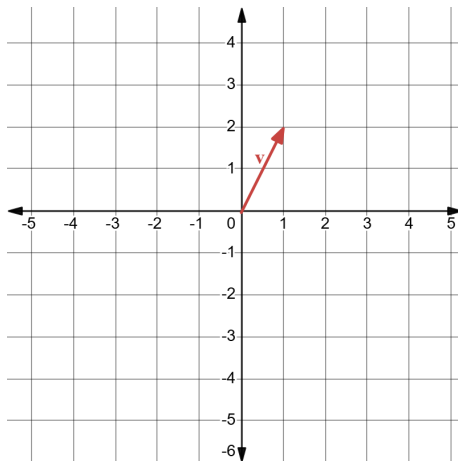
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In this case we say that the set of vectors is **closed under addition and scalar multiplication**, while D or P are not (P is closed under addition only).

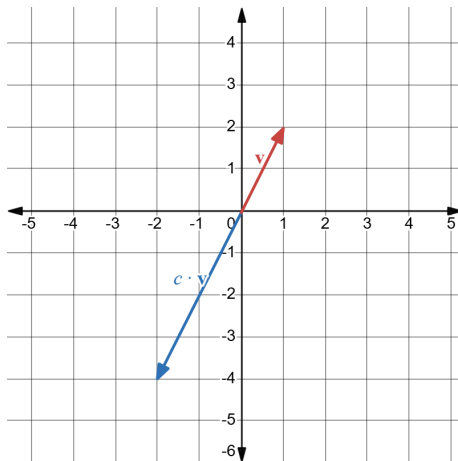
Vector Space

Furthermore, take the line $y = 2x$ and choose any vector on it:



Vector Space

After multiplying it with any number c , it will still stay on the line $y = 2x$:



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In other words, the line $y = 2x$ is **closed under addition and scalar multiplication**, just like the whole set of vectors \mathbb{R}^2 . This motivates us to give a special name to the good sets like the line $y = 2x$ and \mathbb{R}^2 .

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We say that \mathbb{R}^2 is a **vector space**, and the set of vectors lying on the line $y = 2x$ are a **vector subspace** of \mathbb{R}^2 .

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No need to memorize—just the natural laws of addition and multiplication.

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Theorem

Assume V is a vector space, and U is a subset of V . Then U is a subspace of V if and only if

1. $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in U$, for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$,
2. $c\mathbf{x} \in U$, for all $\mathbf{x} \in U$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

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2. $c\mathbf{x} \in U$, for all $\mathbf{x} \in U$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

- So $\mathbb{R}^1, \mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3, \dots$ are all vector spaces.
- The set of all vectors that lie on the same line (e.g. $y = kx$) form a subspace (on the condition that the line also contains the $\mathbf{0}$ vector).

Definition

An $m \times n$ table A of elements a_{ij} is called an (m, n) **matrix**:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \quad a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$$

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Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 3} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$$

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Note that the first number in (m, n) **always** shows rows, second – columns.

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Definition

The sum of two matrices A and B , denoted as $A + B$, is obtained by adding corresponding elements. If A is of size $m \times n$ and B is of the same size, then $A + B$ is also of size $m \times n$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Question

What do you think happens if we multiply a matrix by a scalar?

Scalar Multiplication of a Matrix

Definition

If A is a matrix and c is any scalar, we define the product cA as the matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} c \cdot A &= c \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} c \cdot a_{11} & c \cdot a_{12} & \dots & c \cdot a_{1n} \\ c \cdot a_{21} & c \cdot a_{22} & \dots & c \cdot a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c \cdot a_{m1} & c \cdot a_{m2} & \dots & c \cdot a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

i.e. each element of the matrix is multiplied by the scalar c .

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Definition

If A is a matrix and c is any scalar, we define the product cA as the matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} c \cdot A &= c \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} c \cdot a_{11} & c \cdot a_{12} & \dots & c \cdot a_{1n} \\ c \cdot a_{21} & c \cdot a_{22} & \dots & c \cdot a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c \cdot a_{m1} & c \cdot a_{m2} & \dots & c \cdot a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

i.e. each element of the matrix is multiplied by the scalar c .

Scalar multiplication can be performed for any scalar c and any matrix A .

Negative of a Matrix

Similarly, we define the negative of a matrix to be the matrix with all elements multiplied by -1 :

Definition

The negative of a matrix A , denoted as $-A$, is obtained by changing the sign of each element in the matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} -A &= - \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -a_{11} & -a_{12} & \dots & -a_{1n} \\ -a_{21} & -a_{22} & \dots & -a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ -a_{m1} & -a_{m2} & \dots & -a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix Subtraction

Definition

The difference of two matrices A and B (both of the same size), denoted as $A - B$, is obtained by subtracting corresponding elements:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A - B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - b_{11} & a_{12} - b_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} - b_{1n} \\ a_{21} - b_{21} & a_{22} - b_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} - b_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} - b_{m1} & a_{m2} - b_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} - b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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What happens if we add a matrix to its negative?

Zero Matrix

Definition

The **zero matrix**, denoted as O or $O_{m \times n}$, is a matrix where all elements are zero.

Example

$$O_{2 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad O_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Of course, adding O has no effect on a matrix:

Remark

For any zero matrix O of the same size as matrix A , we have

$$A + O = O + A = A$$

Transpose of a Matrix

Definition

The **transpose** of a matrix A , denoted as A^T , is obtained by swapping its rows and columns.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Theorem

For each fixed (m, n) , the set $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ of all $m \times n$ matrices forms a vector space.

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Theorem

For each fixed (m, n) , the set $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ of all $m \times n$ matrices forms a vector space.

Okay, but why do we need matrices at all?

Matrix-Vector Multiplication

Let's define the multiplication of a matrix by a vector.

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Say, we have a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

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To multiply A by \mathbf{v} , we take each row of A and compute its dot product with the vector \mathbf{v} :

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As a result we get a new vector of size $m \times 1$.

Matrix-Vector Multiplication

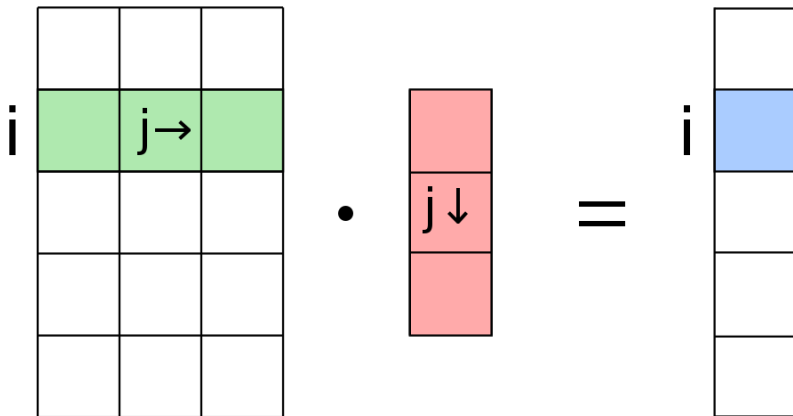
Definition

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and \mathbf{v} be a column vector of size $n \times 1$. The product $A\mathbf{v}$ is a column vector of size $m \times 1$ obtained by multiplying each row of A by the corresponding element of \mathbf{v} and summing the results.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}v_1 + a_{12}v_2 + \dots + a_{1n}v_n \\ a_{21}v_1 + a_{22}v_2 + \dots + a_{2n}v_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}v_1 + a_{m2}v_2 + \dots + a_{mn}v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Vector Multiplication



Matrix-Vector Multiplication

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot (-1) + 3 \cdot 3 \\ 4 \cdot 2 + 5 \cdot (-1) + 6 \cdot 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Vector Multiplication

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Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} (-2) \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 2 \\ 0 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot 2 \\ 1 \cdot 4 + (-1) \cdot 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Vector Multiplication

Matrix-vector multiplication shares properties with scalar multiplication and addition of vectors.

- **Distributive Property:**

For a matrix A and vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} of appropriate sizes:

$$A(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = A\mathbf{v} + A\mathbf{w}$$

- **Scalar Multiplication:**

For a matrix A and a scalar c :

$$A(c\mathbf{v}) = c(A\mathbf{v})$$

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Note that we can only multiply a matrix by a vector if the number of columns of the matrix equals the length of the vector (i.e. **not all** matrices and vectors can be multiplied)!

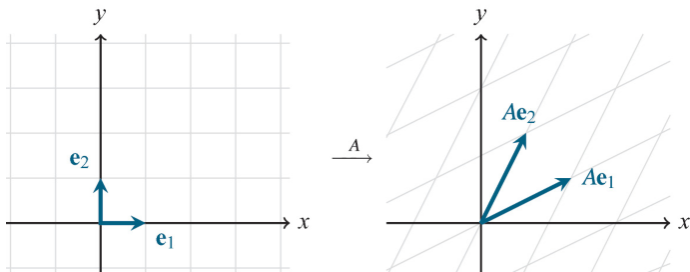
Geometric Interpretation

Why do we define the matrix-vector multiplication this way? Turns out, it has a beautiful geometrical interpretation.

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Why do we define the matrix-vector multiplication this way? Turns out, it has a beautiful geometrical interpretation.

Think this way: when you multiply, say, a 2×2 matrix A by a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, what you get is another vector $\mathbf{u} = A\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We call this \mathbf{u} the **transformed version** of \mathbf{v} (and we say that A is a linear transformation).



Geometric Interpretation

As we will see later, the resulting "transformed version" \mathbf{u} is just the same old \mathbf{v} except it is **rotated** and **scaled** to become longer or shorter (and possibly, flipped).

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As we will see later, the resulting "transformed version" \mathbf{u} is just the same old \mathbf{v} except it is **rotated** and **scaled** to become longer or shorter (and possibly, flipped).

In this sense, all matrices are either just rotating vectors by some degree, or flipping them horizontally/vertically, or scale them, or do all three.

The key thing is: whatever a matrix "does" to one vector, it does the same to all other vectors too (when being multiplied with them).

Check different matrices yourself:

- visualize-it.github.io/linear_transformations/simulation.html

- www.shad.io/MatVis

We will learn more about this later—now back to matrices~

Matrix Multiplication

Definition

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and let B be an $n \times k$ matrix. The product $C = AB$ is an $m \times k$ matrix, where each element c_{ij} is the dot product of the i^{th} row of A and the j^{th} column of B :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1k} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2k} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \dots & b_{nk} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1k} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2k} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & \dots & c_{mk} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in}b_{nj}$.

Matrix Multiplication

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \times \begin{array}{c} \text{B} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{array} \right] \end{array} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 19 & 22 \\ 43 & 50 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 \times 6 + 2 \times 8 = 22 \\ 1 \times 5 + 2 \times 7 = 19 \\ 3 \times 5 + 4 \times 7 = 43 \\ 3 \times 6 + 4 \times 8 = 50 \end{array}$$

Matrix Multiplication

Matrix multiplication shares properties with scalar multiplication and addition of vectors, as well as matrix-vector multiplication.

- **Distributive Property:**

$$A(B + C) = AB + AC \quad \text{and} \quad (A + B)C = AC + BC$$

- **Associative Property:**

$$A(BC) = (AB)C$$

- **Scalar Multiplication:**

$$A(cB) = c(AB) = (cA)B$$

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$$A(cB) = c(AB) = (cA)B$$

Note that we can only multiply A and B if the (number of columns in A) equals the (number of rows in B): $(m \times n)$ with $(n \times k)$.

In particular, this means that matrix multiplication is **not commutative**, i.e. in general, $AB \neq BA$!

Matrix Multiplication

Example

Let

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 2} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} CD &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 3 & -1 \cdot (-2) + 0 \cdot 0 & -1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 7 \\ 2 \cdot 5 + (-3) \cdot 3 & 2 \cdot (-2) + (-3) \cdot 0 & 2 \cdot 1 + (-3) \cdot 7 \\ 4 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 3 & 4 \cdot (-2) + 1 \cdot 0 & 4 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 7 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & -19 \\ 23 & -8 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} \end{aligned}$$

Matrix Multiplication

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Let

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 2 & -3 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 2} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} CD &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 3 & -1 \cdot (-2) + 0 \cdot 0 & -1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 7 \\ 2 \cdot 5 + (-3) \cdot 3 & 2 \cdot (-2) + (-3) \cdot 0 & 2 \cdot 1 + (-3) \cdot 7 \\ 4 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 3 & 4 \cdot (-2) + 1 \cdot 0 & 4 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 7 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & -19 \\ 23 & -8 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} \end{aligned}$$

What about DC ?