

CM22009

Introduction to Linear Algebra

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Announcements

Coursework deadline on Friday!

Math

Probability

- Probability Space
- Random Variables
- Conditional Prob/Independence
- Probability Densities/Distributions
- Expectation / (Co)Variance
- Bayes Theorem
- Central Limit Theorem
- Law of Large Numbers

Linear Algebra

- Vector Spaces
- Matrix Operations
- Linear Independence
- Orthogonality
- Eigenvalues/Eigenvectors

Multiple Dimensions

Machine Learning is a successful approach at dealing with statistics of high dimensional observations

A **vector** is an ordered collection of numbers. An n -dimensional vector of real numbers is represented as \mathbf{v} or $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$\text{e.g. } \mathbf{v} = \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

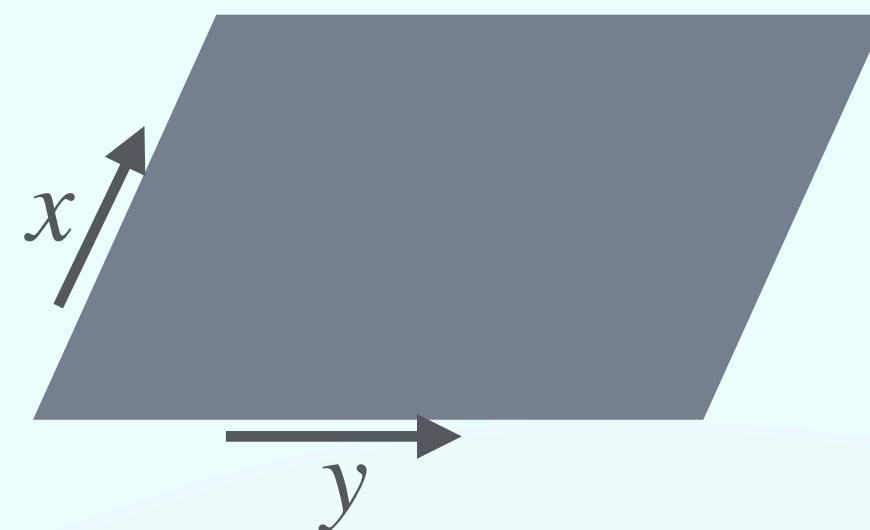
It is commonly used to store the **features** of a datapoint

A **matrix** is a collection of numbers in a two dimensional layout, with rows or columns, that can be viewed as vectors, often represented by an uppercase bold letter $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} & \cdots & A_{1,n} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m,1} & A_{m,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Examples

Spatial coordinates $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$



Student marks \mathbf{v}_s (or $\mathbf{v}^{(s)}$) = $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \mathbf{v}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_N^T \end{bmatrix} =$$

Marks	Module 1	Module 2	...	Module n
Student 1	c1	c2		cn
Student 2	c1	c2		cn
Student 3	c1	c2		cn
...				

Multiple Dimensions

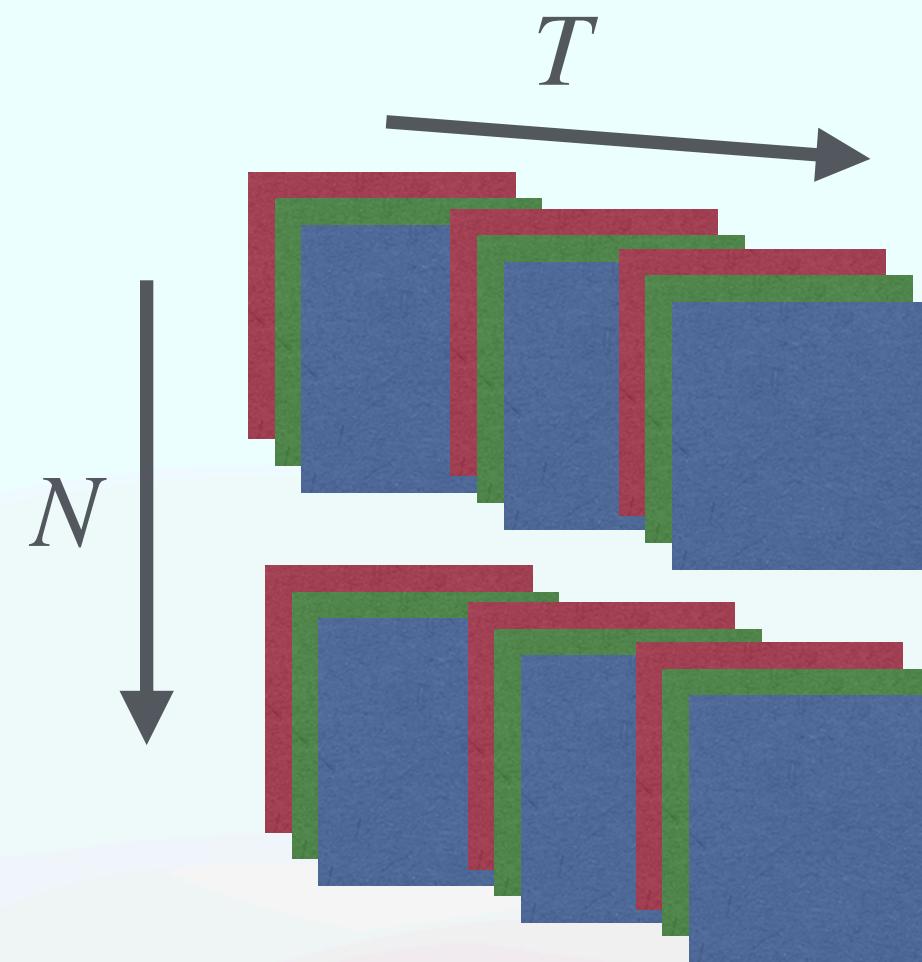
Machine Learning is a successful approach at dealing with statistics of high dimensional observations

A **tensor** is an ordered collection of numbers with more dimensions than a vector or a matrix, e.g $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times \dots \times q}$.

An **example** of a tensor that appears frequently in machine learning is a data tensor that holds an ensemble of images or videos:

$$\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times C \times H \times W}$$

$$\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times T \times C \times H \times W}$$



Where N : the number of Images/Videos, T the number of frames, C the number of channels (red/green/blue), H the vertical resolution, and W the horizontal resolutions

Often software packages treat vectors and matrices as 1-dimensional and 2-dimensional tensors respectively.

Matrix Transpose

- It is often useful to rearrange the position of rows and columns in a matrix.
- Definition:

The transpose, $\mathbf{A}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is formed by reflecting it around the principal diagonal

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} & \cdots & A_{1,n} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m,1} & A_{m,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{2,1} & \cdots & A_{m,1} \\ A_{1,2} & A_{2,2} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1,n} & A_{2,n} & \cdots & A_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

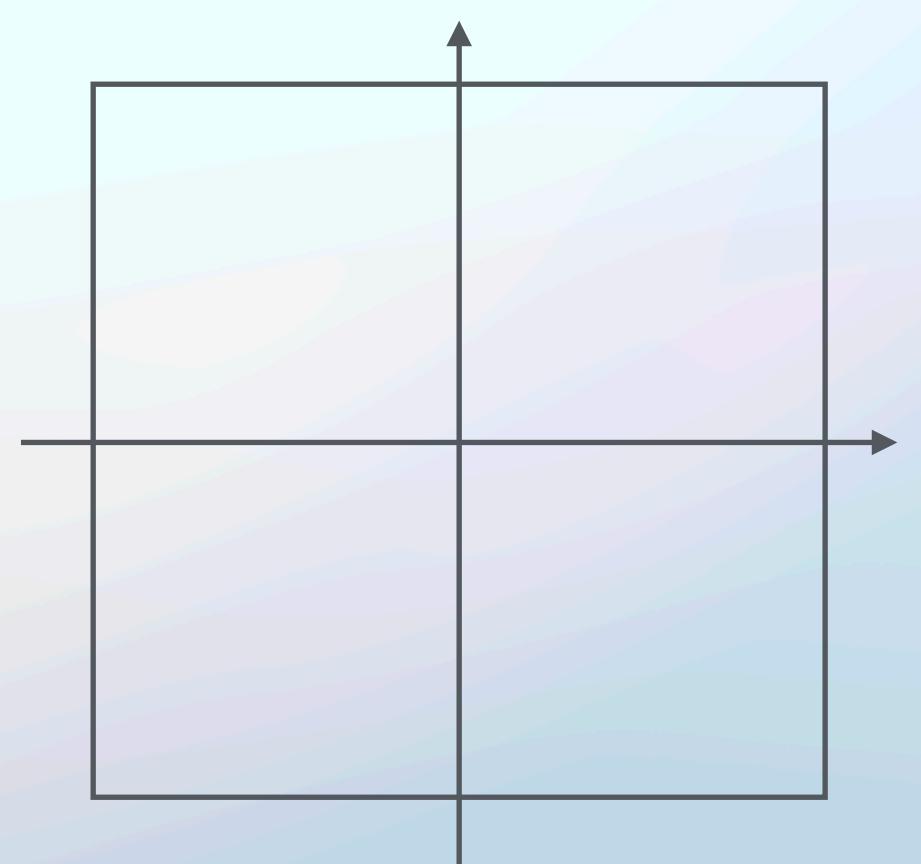
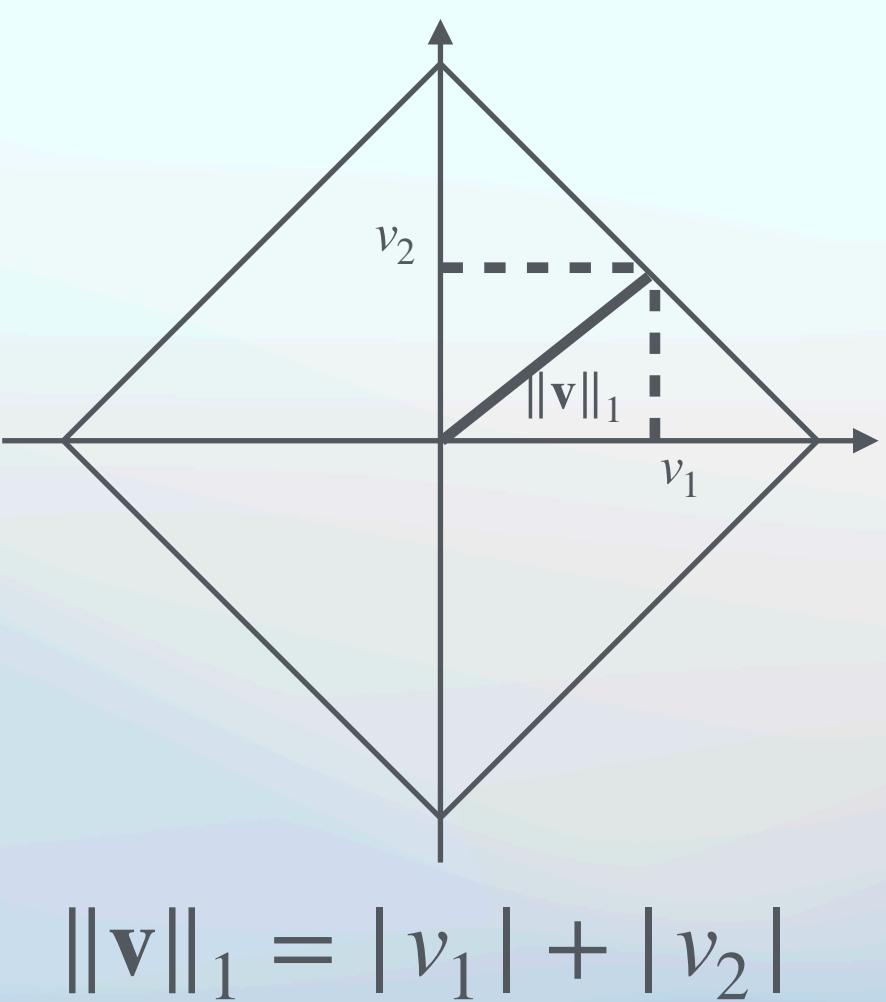
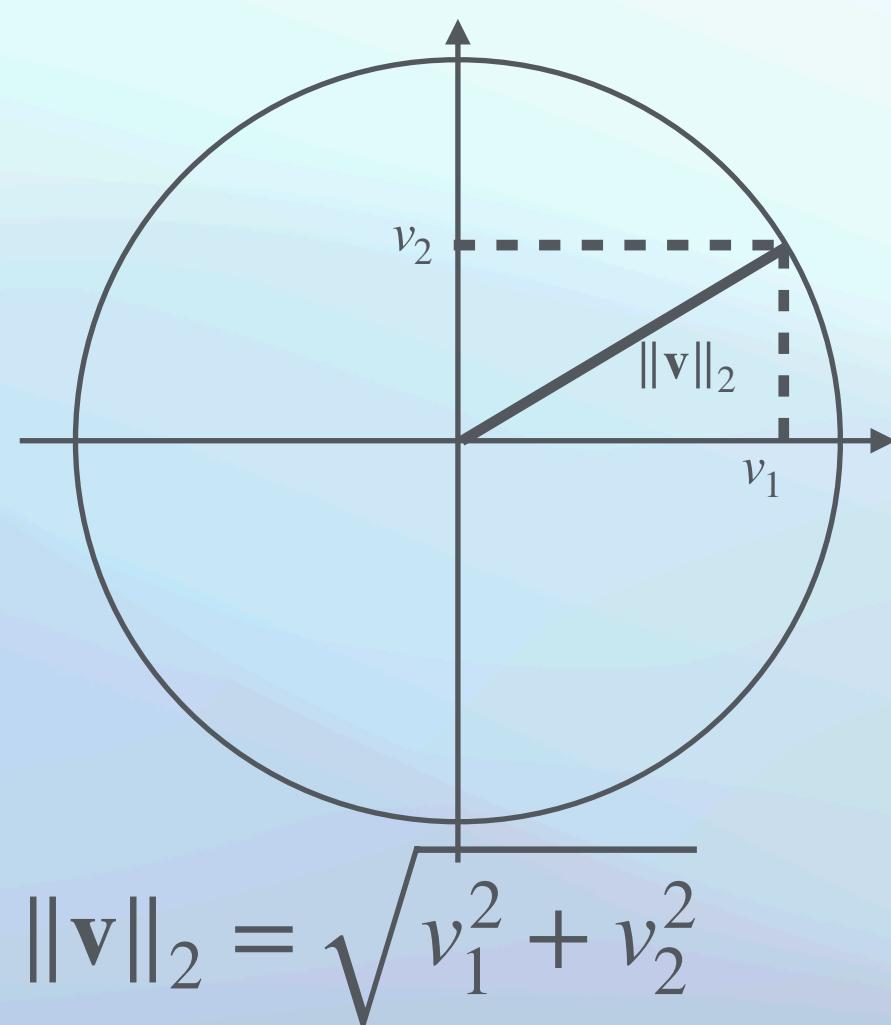
$$\mathbf{v}^T = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \cdots \ v_n]$$

Vector Norms

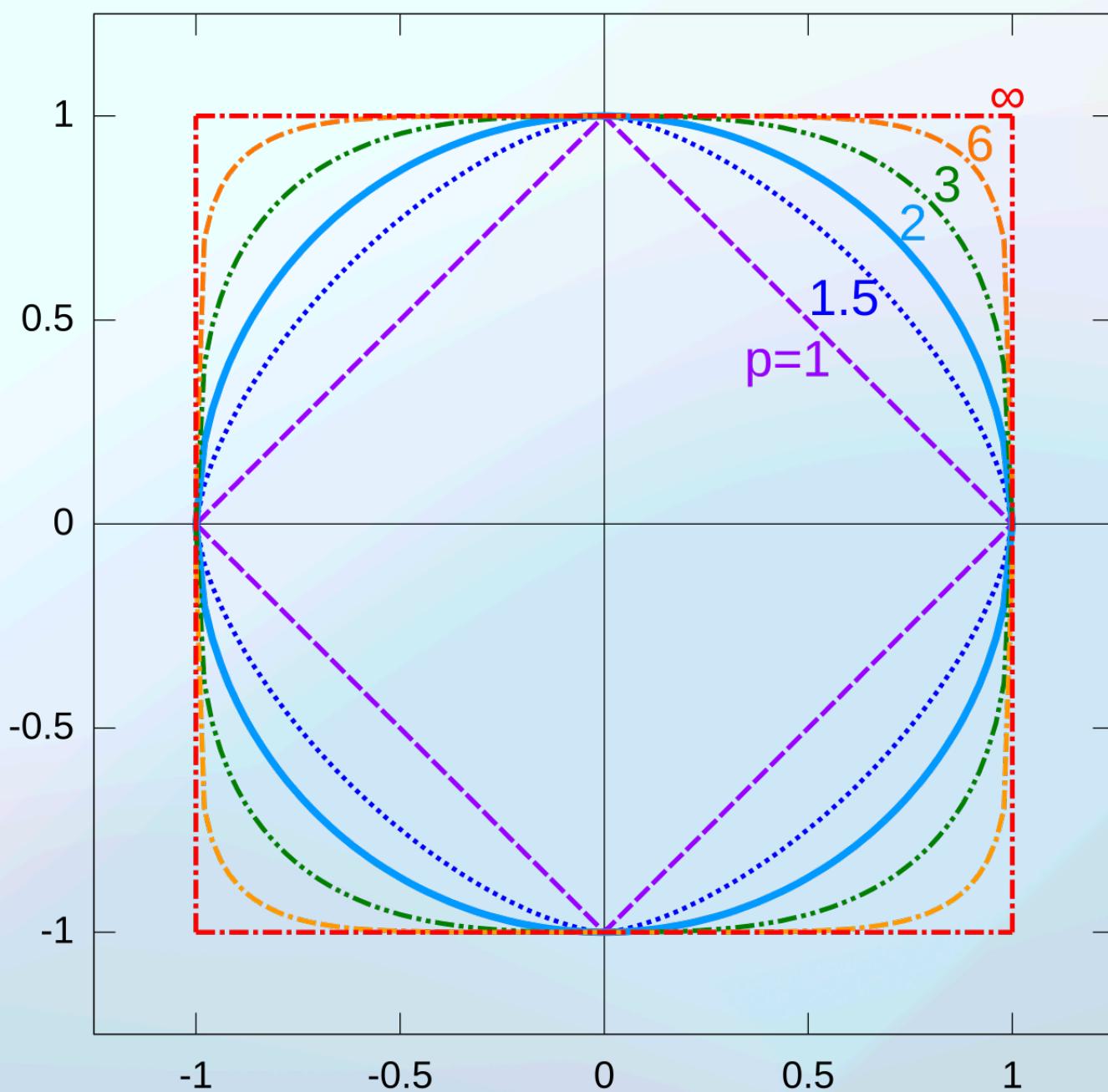
For a vector \mathbf{v} the ℓ_p norm is defined as :

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{d=1}^D |v_d|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

For $D = 2$



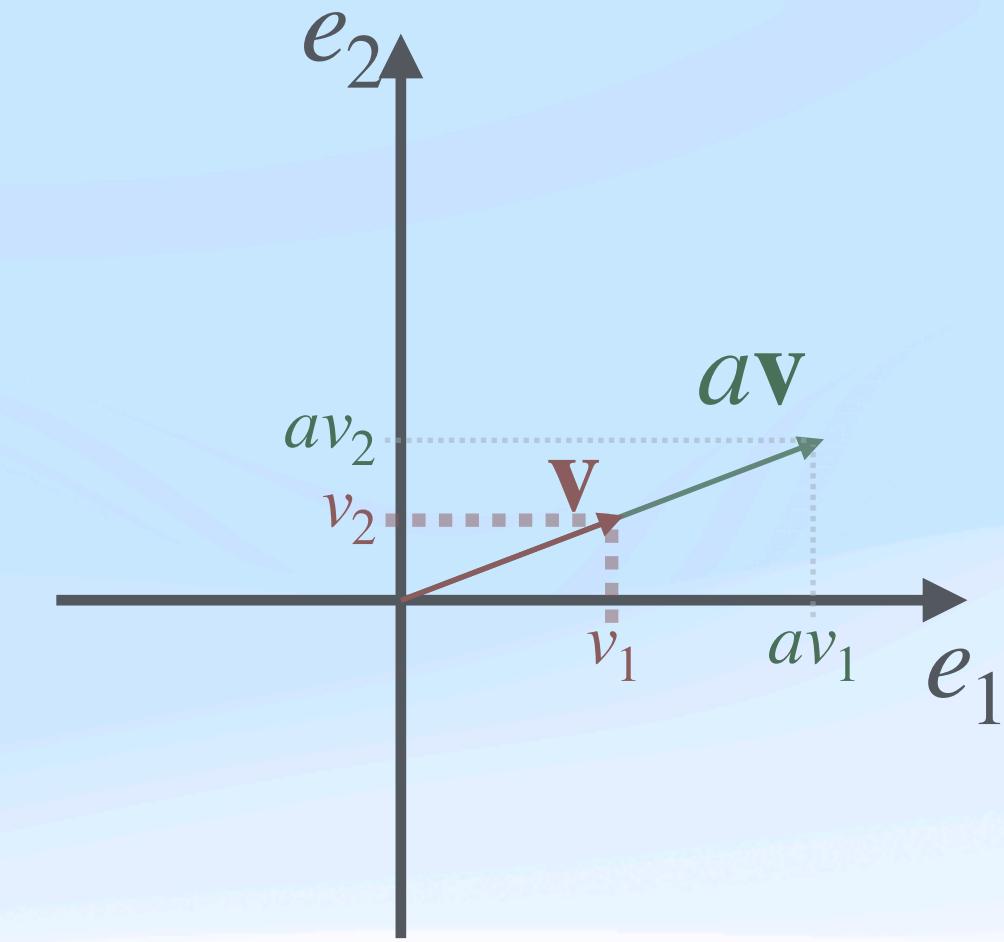
$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty = \max\{v_1, v_2\}$$



Vector Operations

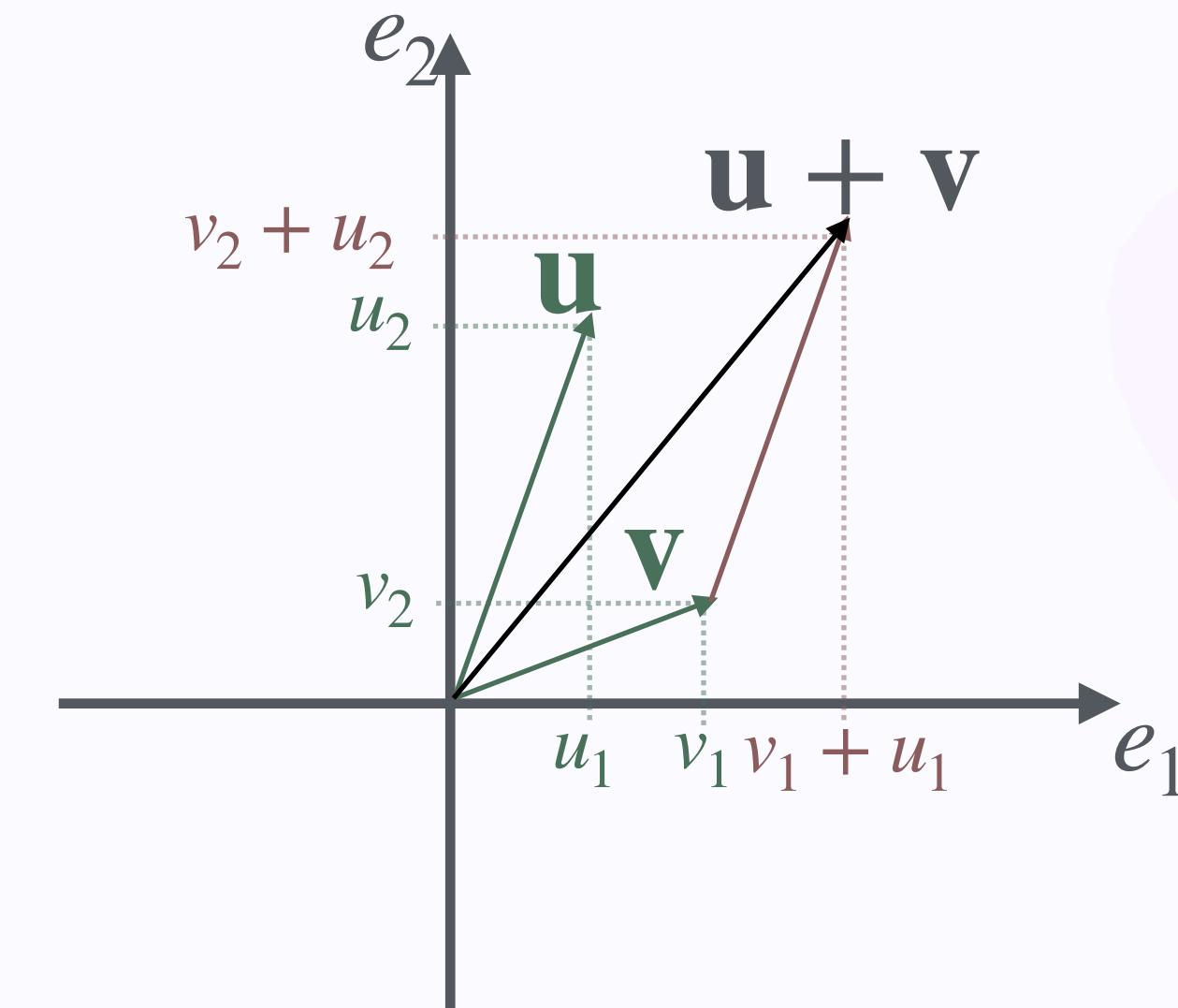
- Multiplication of a vector, $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with a scalar, $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$a\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} av_1 \\ av_2 \\ \vdots \\ av_n \end{bmatrix}$$



- Addition of two vectors, $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, :
(they must have the same dimensions)

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 + u_1 \\ v_2 + u_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n + u_n \end{bmatrix}$$



Basis Vectors

Vectors as linear combinations of vectors

Linear dependence:

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is said to be linearly dependent if there is a set of scalar values $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, not all 0, such that:

$$a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

Linear independence:

If a set of vectors is not linearly dependent they are linearly independent.

Span of vectors:

For a set of vectors $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$, the span of S is the set of all vectors that can be written as linear combinations of the vectors in S .

$$\text{span}(S) = \{a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n\}$$

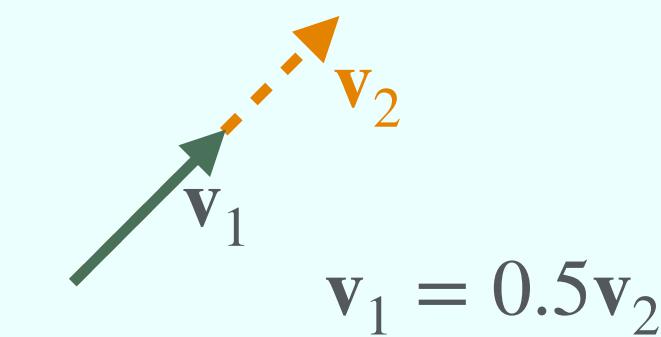
Basis:

A basis B of a vector space, e.g. \mathbb{R}^n , is a subset of that space, e.g. $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, that spans the vector space, e.g. $\text{span}(S) = \mathbb{R}^n$.

Example

Dependent

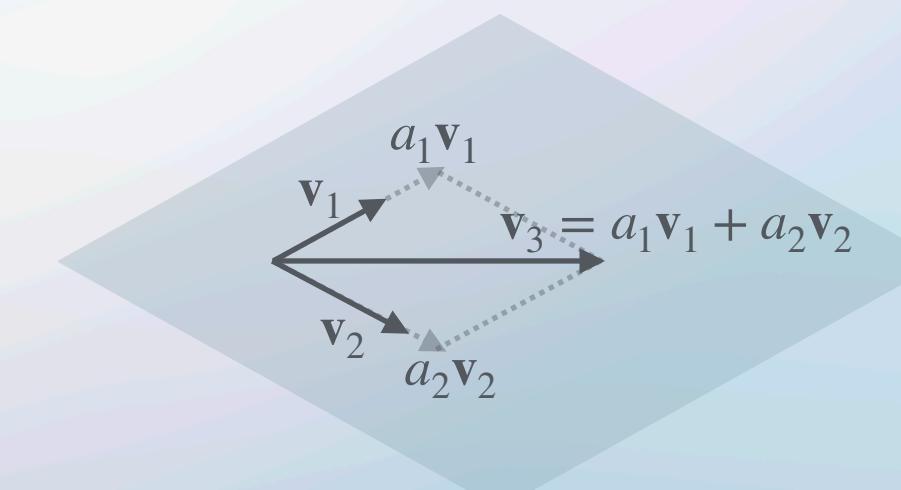
2D:



So for $a_1 = -2$ and $a_2 = 1$

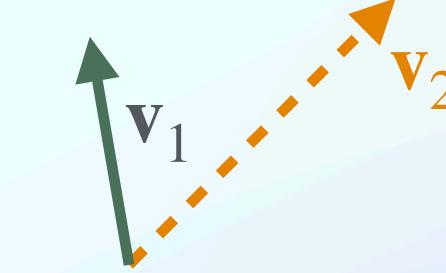
$$\begin{aligned} a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 &= -2\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 \\ &= -2 \cdot 0.5\mathbf{v}_2 + \mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

3D:

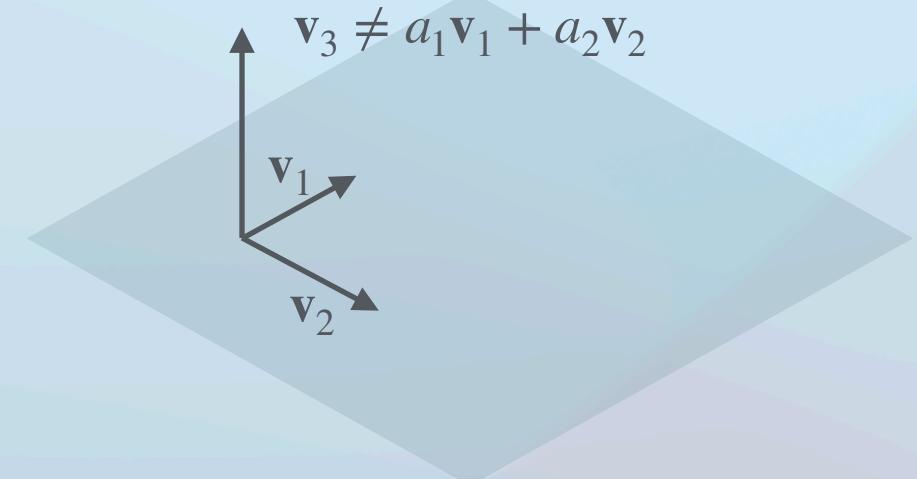


$$\text{span}(\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}) = \mathbb{R}^2$$

Independent



Unless $a_1 = a_2 = 0$
 $a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 \neq \mathbf{0}$



$$\text{span}(\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}) = \mathbb{R}^3$$

Basis Vectors

Vectors as linear combinations of vectors

Linear dependence:

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is said to be linearly dependent if there is a set of scalar values $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$, not all 0, such that:

$$a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

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If a set of vectors is not linearly dependent they are linearly independent.

Span of vectors:

For a set of vectors $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$, the span of S is the set of all vectors that can be written as linear combinations of the vectors in S .

$$\text{span}(S) = \{a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n\}$$

Basis:

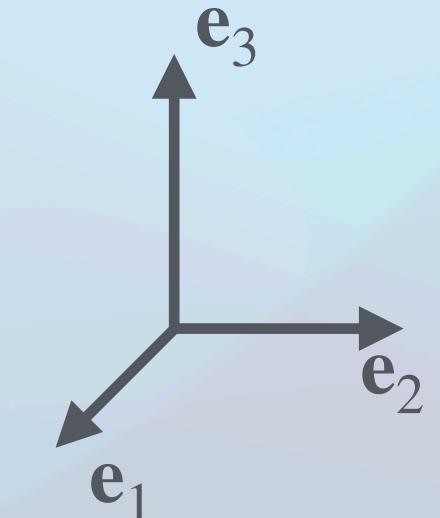
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Example

The **Standard (Canonical) Basis** $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$, where \mathbf{e}_i is a vector with the i -th dimension equal to 1 and all others equal to 0.

For example the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^3 is:

$$\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$



Dot product

For two vectors, $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define the dot product as:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i$$

The dot product can also be written as:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta$$

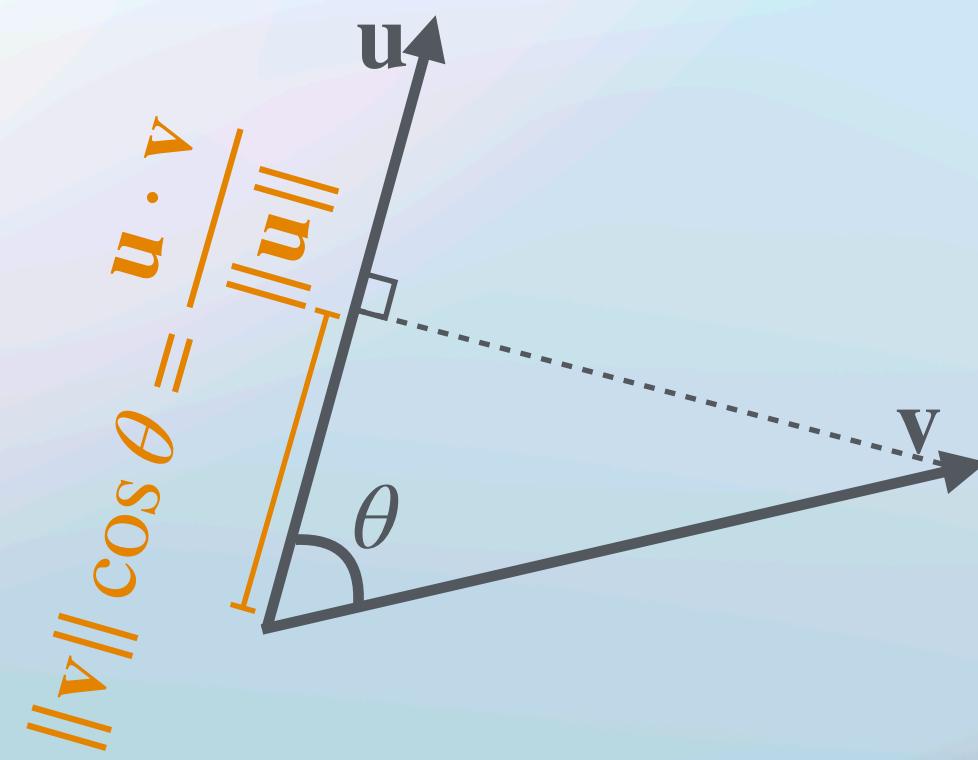
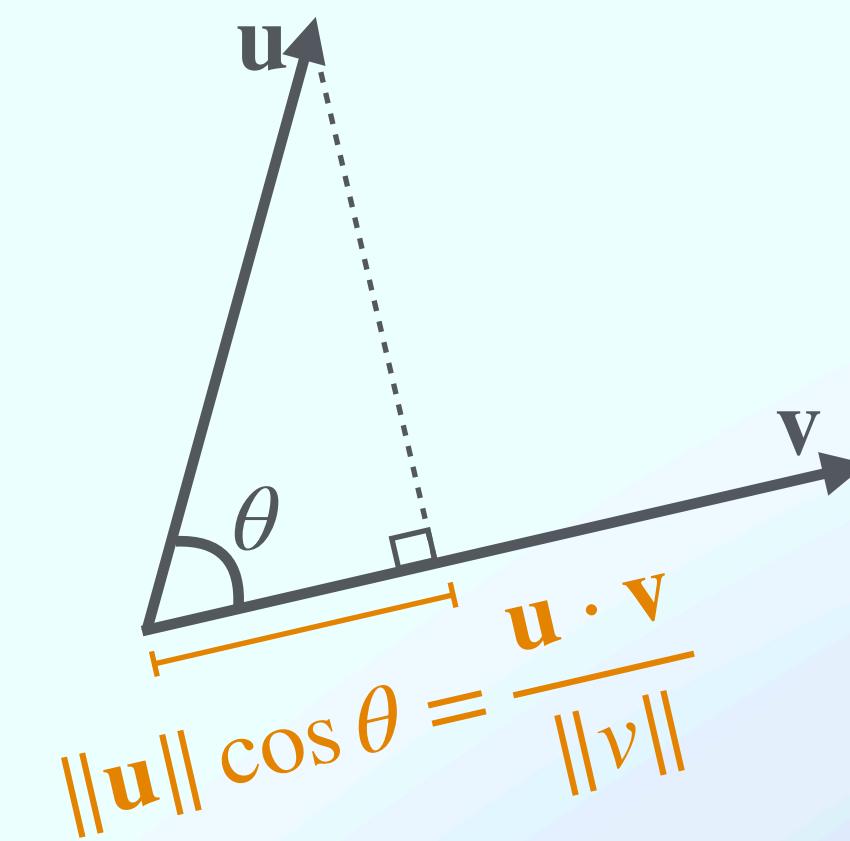
Length of a vector:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2} = \sqrt{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \cos 0}$$

Angle between vectors:

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

Example

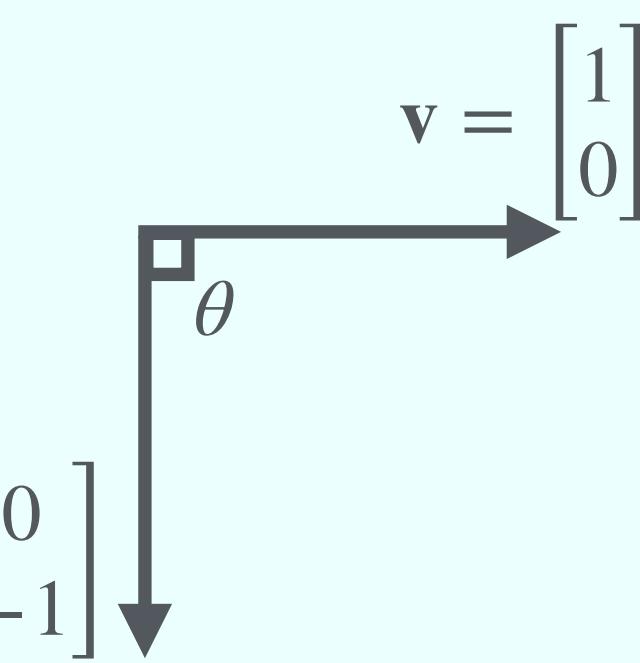


Orthogonal vectors

Two non-zero vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are called orthogonal if their inner product is 0, i.e. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta$$

Example

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


The diagram shows two vectors, \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} , originating from the same point. Vector \mathbf{u} is represented by a vertical line segment pointing downwards, labeled with a bracketed zero at its top endpoint. Vector \mathbf{v} is represented by a horizontal line segment pointing to the right, labeled with a bracketed one at its left endpoint. A small square at the origin where the two vectors meet indicates a 90-degree angle, confirming they are orthogonal.

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot (-1) = 0$$

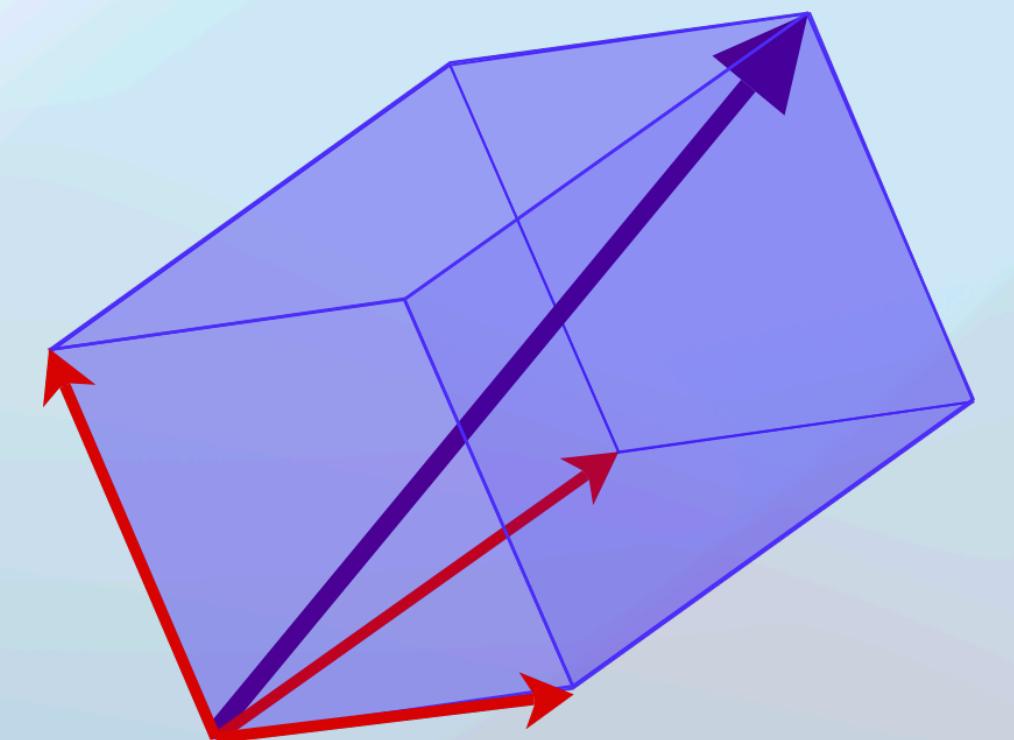
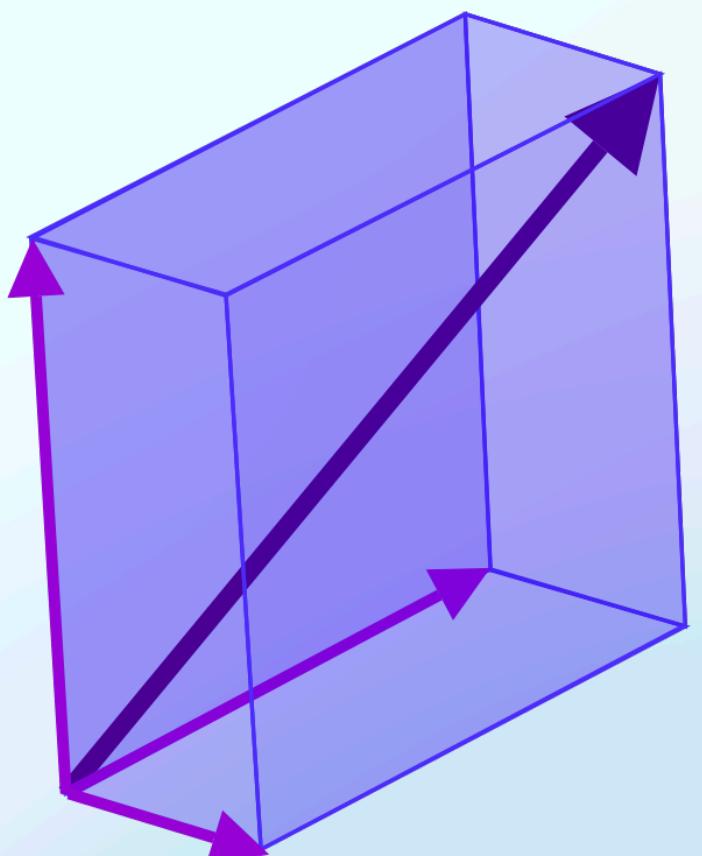
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 0$$

Matrix Rank

The matrix **rank** is the number of linearly independent columns of a matrix.

An orthogonal matrix, $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, has a rank equal to n , since a set of orthogonal vectors (the columns) are linearly independent.

For a non-square matrix, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the matrix rank is at most as high as the minimum between its rows and columns, $\text{rank}(\mathbf{B}) \leq \min(m, n)$



Matrix-Vector Product

For a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we can define a product $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{Av} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ as:

$$u_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j} v_j$$

Interesting Matrices:

Identity:

$$I = [\mathbf{e}_1 \ \mathbf{e}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{e}_n] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} s_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & s_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & s_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 5 + 2 \cdot 6 \\ 3 \cdot 5 + 4 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 \\ 49 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 6 \\ 0 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 6 \\ 0 \cdot 5 + 0.5 \cdot 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Vector Product

For a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we can define a product $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{Av} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ as:

$$u_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j} v_j$$

Interesting Matrices:

Rotation:

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

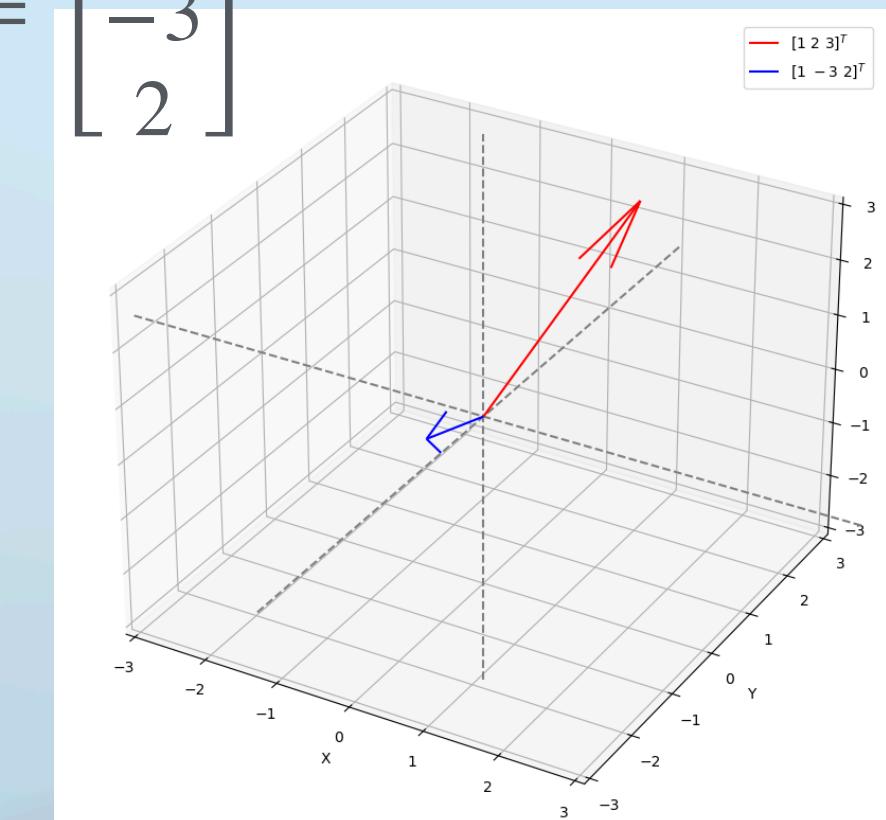
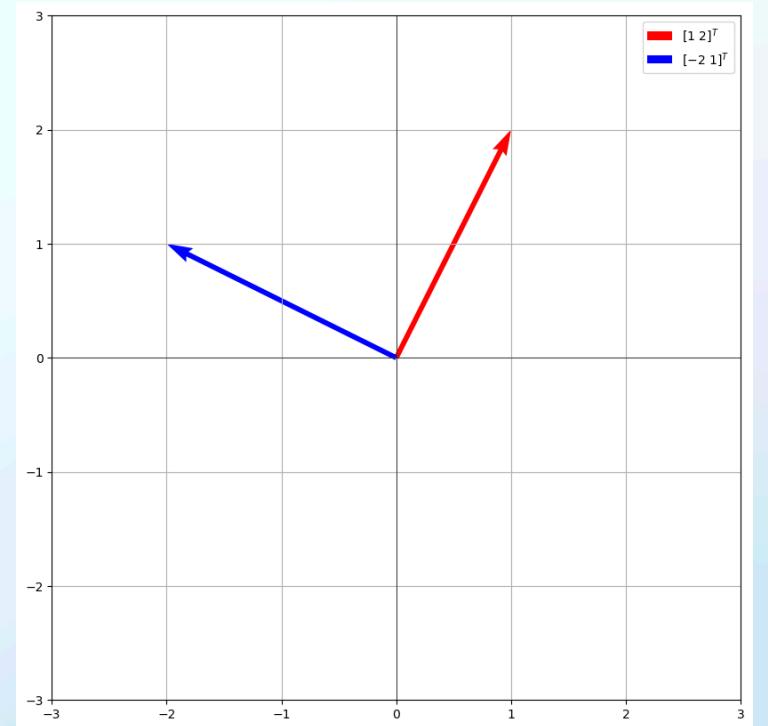
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & \dots & -\sin \theta \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \dots & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation by $\frac{\pi}{2}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} & -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\pi}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} & -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ 0 & \sin \frac{\pi}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

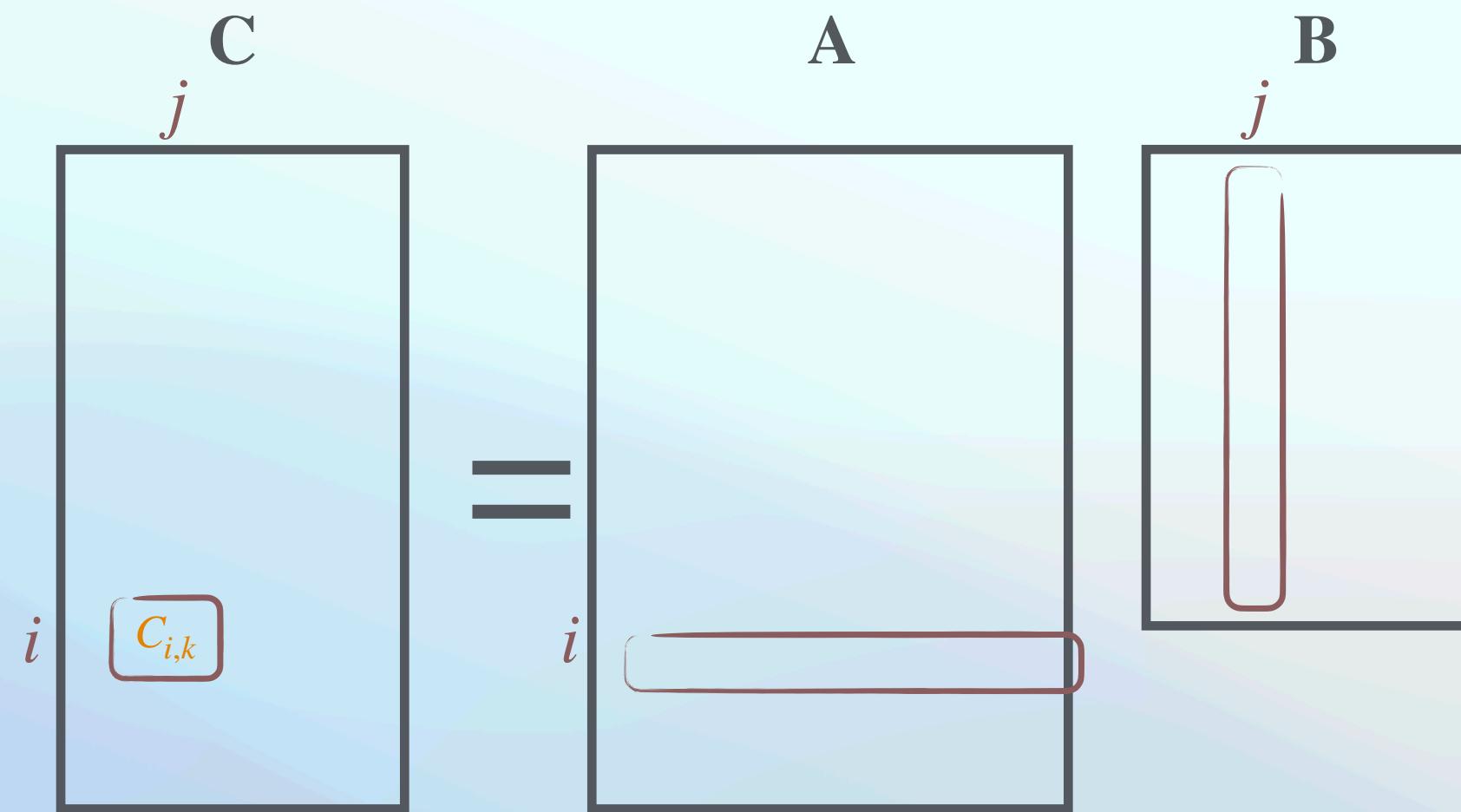
Example



Matrix - Matrix Multiplication

A matrix $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ is the product, $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$, of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ with:

$$C_{i,k} = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j} B_{j,k}$$



Example

Let \mathbf{A} be a matrix of student marks in different units. Some unit coordinators like to issue marks on a scale of 10, some in a scale of 20, and some in a scale of 100. What would you do to set them all to a scale of 100?

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 6 & 20 & 86 \\ 7 & 13 & 96 \\ 4 & 11 & 76 \\ 10 & 3 & 65 \\ 9 & 17 & 54 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{B} \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 10 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{C} \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 60 & 80 & 86 \\ 70 & 65 & 96 \\ 40 & 55 & 76 \\ 100 & 15 & 65 \\ 90 & 85 & 54 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Change of Basis

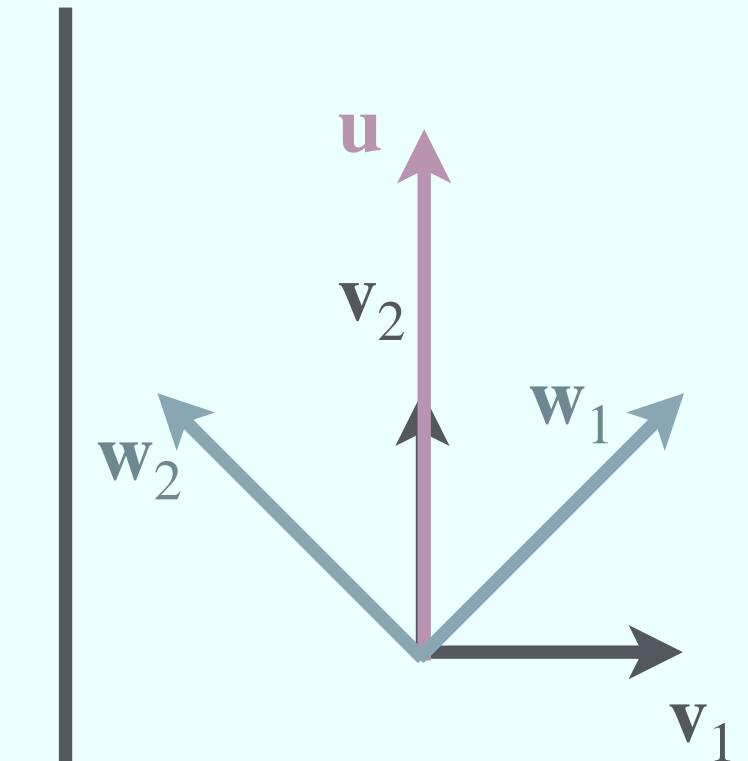
Let $\mathbf{B}_{\text{old}} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ and $\mathbf{B}_{\text{new}} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n\}$ be two bases of \mathbb{R}^n (for simplicity assume that each vector in \mathbf{B}_{old} and \mathbf{B}_{new} have length 1). We can represent the new basis using the old one:

$$\mathbf{w}_j = \sum_{j,i} A_{j,i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{old}} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n] = \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} & \cdots & v_{1,n} \\ v_{2,1} & v_{2,2} & \cdots & v_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{n,1} & v_{n,2} & \cdots & v_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{new}} = [\mathbf{w}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_n] = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1} & w_{1,2} & \cdots & w_{1,n} \\ w_{2,1} & w_{2,2} & \cdots & w_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{n,1} & w_{n,2} & \cdots & w_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{new}} = \mathbf{AB}_{\text{old}}$$



Example

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{w}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{old}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}_{\text{new}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{new}} = \mathbf{AB}_{\text{old}}$$

Expressed in \mathbf{B}_{new}

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Expressed in \mathbf{B}_{old}

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

Invertible Matrix

A square matrix, $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, is called invertible if there is a matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{BA}$, where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix.

The inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} is often denoted as \mathbf{A}^{-1} .

Properties:

- $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$
- $(k\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = k^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- $(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T$
- For two invertible matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$:
 - $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$

Example

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1.5 & -0.5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

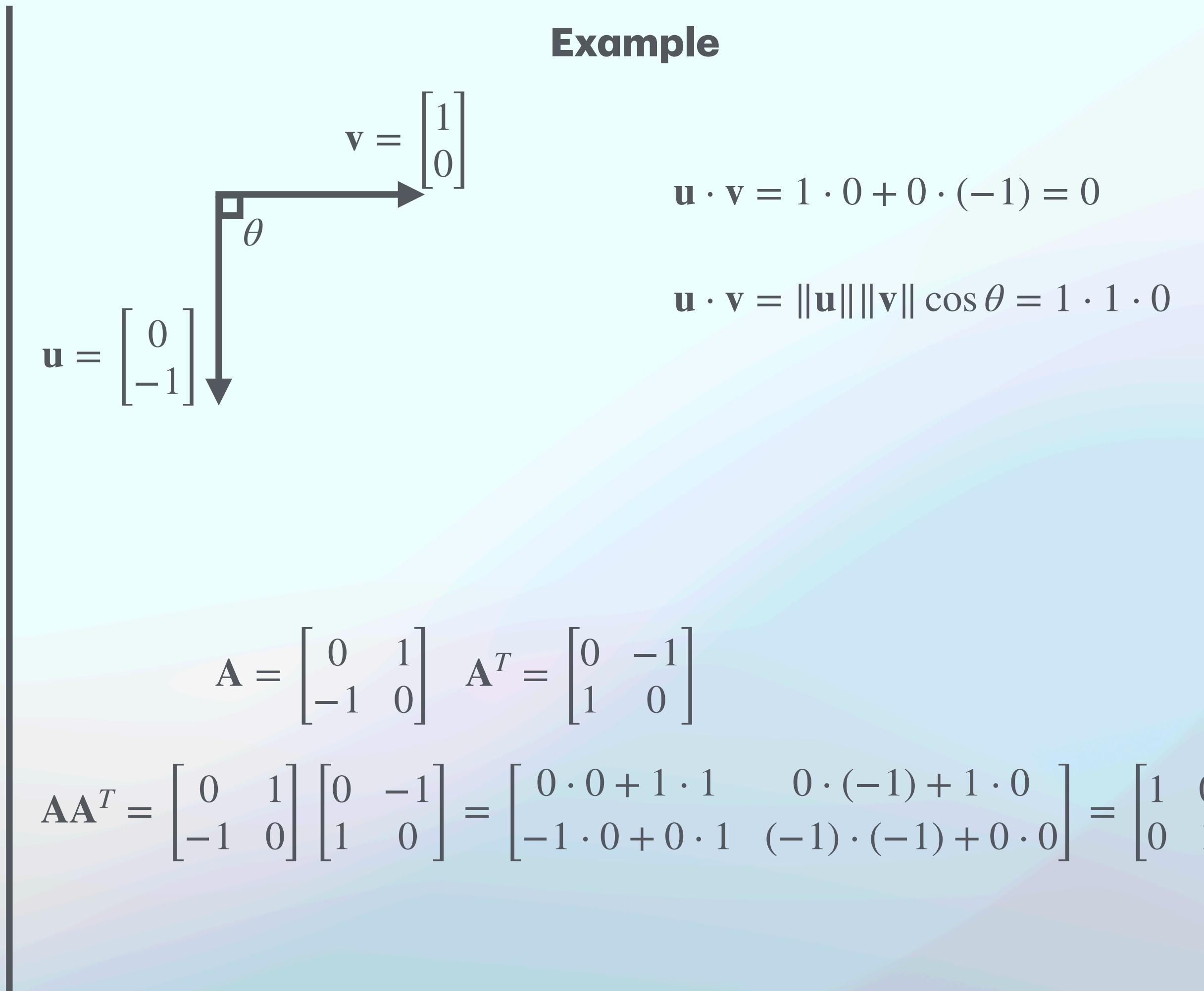
$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 3 & -2 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 4 \\ 1.5 \cdot 1 - 0.5 \cdot 3 & 1.5 \cdot 2 - 0.5 \cdot 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthogonal Vectors/Orthogonal Matrix

A real square matrix, $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, is called orthogonal (or orthonormal) if all its columns are orthogonal unit-length vectors.

In that case the inverse, i.e. $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{I}$.

We also write $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$



Symmetric Matrices

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric if and only if:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T \quad \text{or} \quad A_{i,j} = A_{j,i} \quad \text{for all } i, j$$

Properties:

If $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are two symmetric matrices:

$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$ are also symmetric

Addition/Subtraction of Matrices is an elementwise

operation, i.e. $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} - B_{1,1} & \dots & A_{1,n} - B_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n,1} - B_{n,1} & \dots & A_{n,n} - B_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}$

\mathbf{A}^n is symmetric for any n

\mathbf{A}^{-1} is symmetric if and only if \mathbf{A} is also symmetric

Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}^T$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}^T$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 & 2 \\ 5 & 6 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\mathbf{A}^2 = \mathbf{AA} = \begin{bmatrix} 22 & 19 & 10 & 19 \\ 19 & 18 & 10 & 21 \\ 10 & 10 & 12 & 12 \\ 19 & 21 & 12 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Matrix decomposition

A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be decomposed into a product of matrices like $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T$, where $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is an orthogonal matrix, and $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix

Eigenvalues/Eigenvectors:

A vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an eigenvector if:

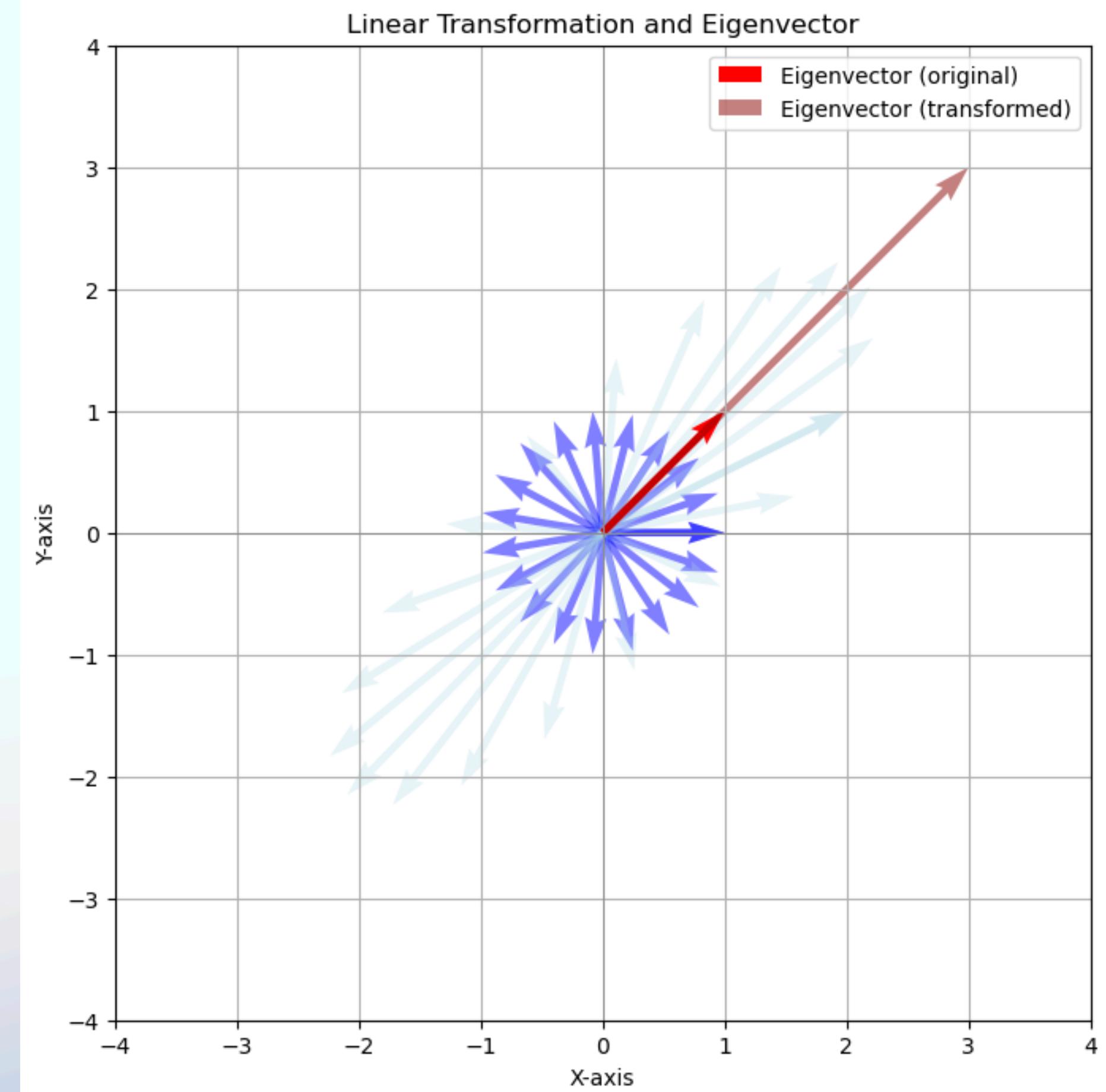
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

where λ is the corresponding eigenvalue of \mathbf{v} .

There are n different eigenvectors, we have:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n]^T$$

Example



Covariance Matrix

For a random vector $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{x}_n]^\top$, the covariance matrix Σ is defined as

$$\Sigma = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E} [(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}])(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}])^\top]$$

For a data matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ with n observations and p variables, the sample covariance matrix \mathbf{S} can be calculated as:

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_i - \bar{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{X}_i - \bar{\mathbf{X}})^\top$$

where:

- \mathbf{X}_i is the i -th observation (a vector),
- $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$ is the mean vector of all observations, calculated as $\bar{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}_i$.

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(X_1, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) & \dots & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_n) \\ \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_2) & \dots & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(X_n, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_n, X_2) & \dots & \text{Cov}(X_n, X_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i])(X_j - \mathbb{E}[X_j])]$.

Covariance Matrix Example

- Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 3}$ be a data matrix of 4 samples from 3 observations. The covariance matrix is calculated as:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \\ -3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \left[\frac{1+2-3+1}{4} \quad \frac{-2-3+1+1}{4} \quad \frac{3+2+1-1}{4} \right] = [0.25 \quad -0.75 \quad 1.25]$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = [(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_1]) \quad (\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_2]) \quad (\mathbf{x}_3 - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_3])] = \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 & -2.75 & 4.25 \\ 1.75 & -3.75 & 3.25 \\ -3.25 & 0.25 & 2.25 \\ 0.75 & 0.25 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Cov[\mathbf{X}] = \frac{1}{4-1} \hat{\mathbf{X}}^T \hat{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} 4.9 & -3.1 & 0.6 \\ -3.1 & 4.25 & -2.75 \\ 0.6 & -2.75 & 2.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Summary

- Vectors/Matrices/Tensors
- Vector Operations (geometric interpretation/feature interpretation)
- Matrix Vector Operations
- Matrix Multiplication
- Matrix Inverse
- Special Matrices (Identity, Scaling, Orthogonal, Symmetric)
- Covariance Matrix

Anonymous Feedback on Georgios' Lectures for CM22009

