

# AIFS Lecture 2: Objects and Operations in Linear Algebra

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# Overview

- 1 Linear Algebra
- 2 Objects in Linear Algebra
- 3 Operations in Linear Algebra
- 4 Special Matrices
- 5 Aside: More about Spaces
- 6 Operations in Linear Algebra (Cont...)

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# What is Linear Algebra?

- Linear Algebra is the field of mathematics where linear equations and linear functions are represented by the interplay between scalars, vectors, matrices and vector-spaces.
- *Linear Equations*: An equation of the form

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b_1$$

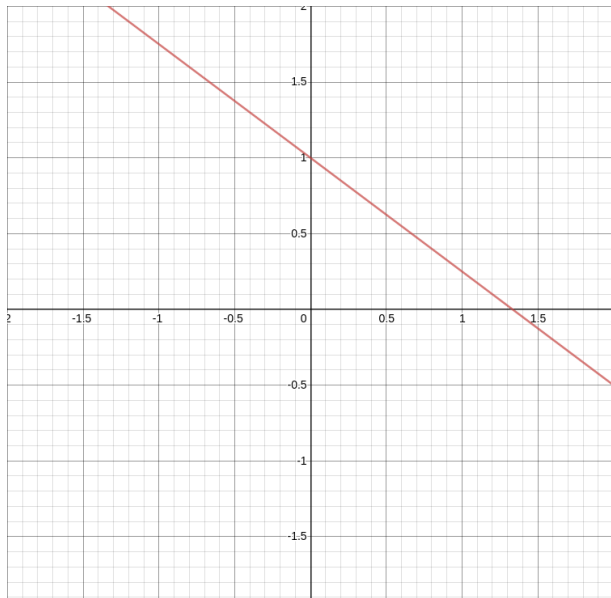
Here the variables,  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ , does not have power greater than 1.

Eg:  $3x_1 + 4x_2 = 4$ ,  $3x_1 + 4x_2 + 5x_3 = 4$

- *Linear Functions*: A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be a linear function if
  - ① for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f(x_1 + x_2 + \dots x_n) = f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \dots + f(x_n)$
  - ②  $af(x) = f(ax)$

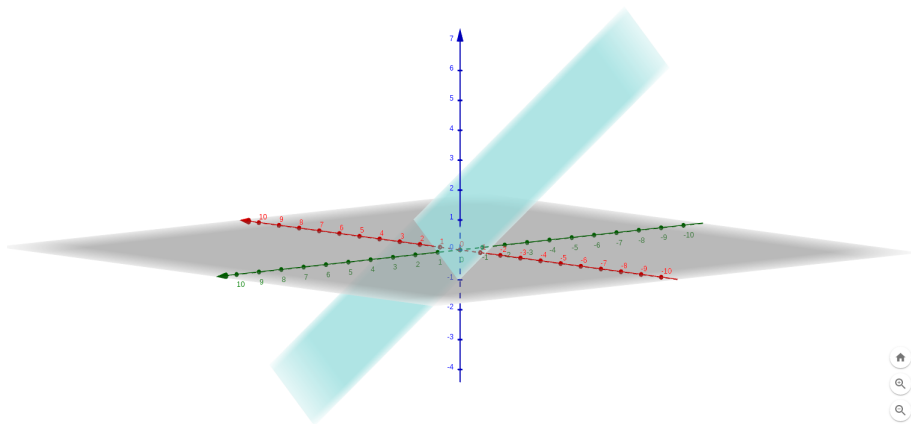
# 2D-Linear equation

$$3x_1 + 4x_2 = 4$$



# 3D-Linear equation

$$3x_1 + 4x_2 + 5x_3 = 4$$



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# Scalars and Vectors

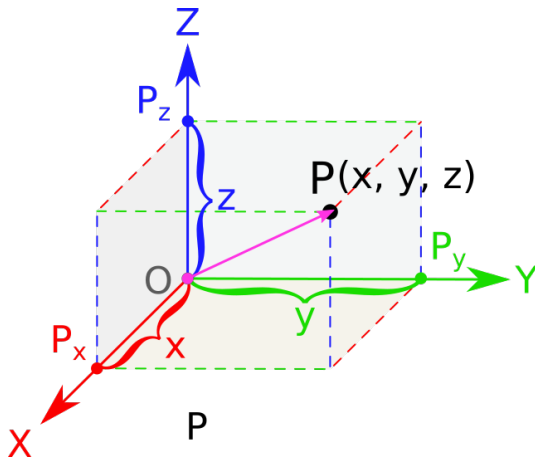
- *Scalar*: A single number. Usually written with lower case non-bold variable names. Eg: 3, 4.5,  $\frac{1}{3}$ ,  $a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{N}$
- *Vector*: An array of ordered numbers. Can be written as a column of numbers, or as an n-tuple. Usually written with lower case bold variable names.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ OR } \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

- A vector can be thought of as a 1-D array of numbers or a 2-D array with one column.



# Cartesian Coordinate View

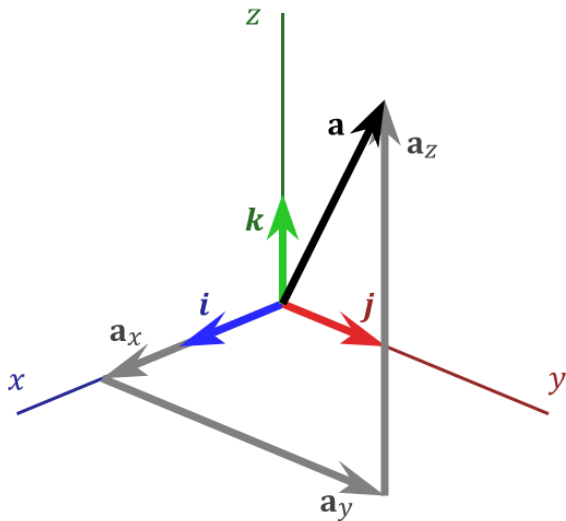


A vector can be visualized as an object identifying points in space, with each component of the vector giving the coordinate along a different axis.

- A real valued vector space is a set  $V$  on which two operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are defined, called vector addition and scalar multiplication, and satisfy the following three properties for all scalars  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Closure under addition: If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are vectors in  $V$  then  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  should also be in  $V$ .
- Closure under multiplication: If  $c$  is any scalar in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  is a vector in  $V$  then  $c \cdot \mathbf{u}$  is also in  $V$ .
- The zero vector  $\mathbf{0}$  is in  $V$ .

# Vector space

Vector space in  $\mathbb{R}^3$



# Matrices

- A *matrix* is a 2-D array of numbers arranged in rows and columns for which the addition (+) and multiplication (×) operations are defined.

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

- If a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns then we call it an  $m \times n$  matrix, read as "*m by n matrix*" where  $m$  and  $n$  are called it's *dimensions*.  $m \times n$  is also referred to as the *shape* of the matrix.
- *Notations*:  $\mathbf{A}_{m \times n}$  specifies the dimensions of the matrix as subscript.  $A_{i,j}$  refers to the value in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row and  $j^{\text{th}}$  column.
- Eg. of a  $2 \times 3$  matrix

$$\mathbf{A}_{2 \times 3} = \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 9 & 1.2 \\ 3.5 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ here, } A_{1,3} = 1.2$$

# Tensors

- A tensor is a mathematical object represented as a multidimensional array of numbers. It can be thought of as a generalization of the matrix to N-dimensions.

0-D Tensor  
(Scalar)

**1**

**NA**

1-D Tensor  
(Vector)

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

**(k)**

2-D Tensor  
(Matrix)

$j$   $k$

(1,1)	(1,2)
(2,1)	(2,2)

**(j, k)**

3-D Tensor

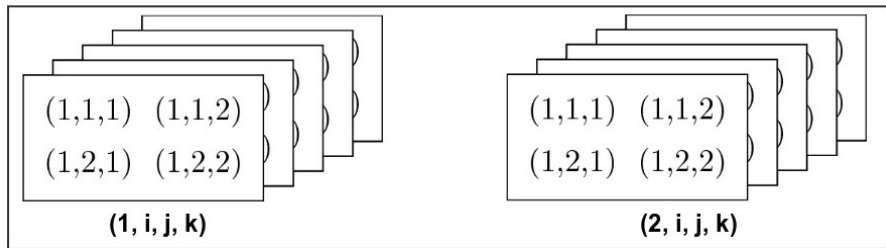
$i$   $j$   $k$

(5,1,1)	(5,1,2)
(4,1,1)	(4,1,2)
(3,1,1)	(3,1,2)
(2,1,1)	(2,1,2)
(1,1,1)	(1,1,2)
(1,2,1)	(1,2,2)

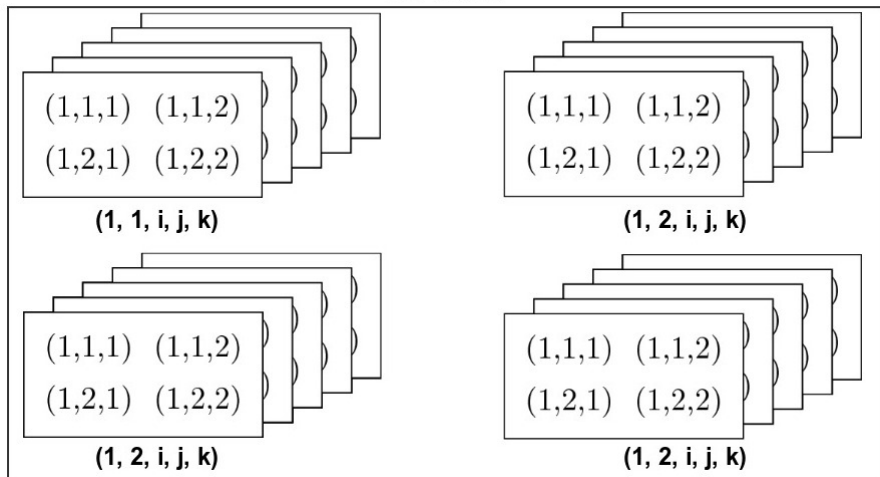
**(i, j, k)**

# 4D-Tensor

4-D Tensor



## 5-D Tensor



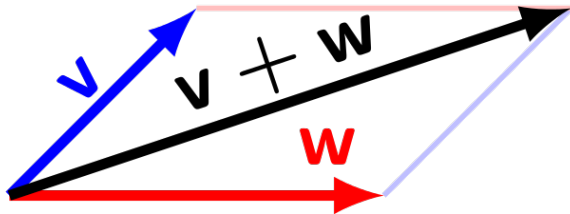
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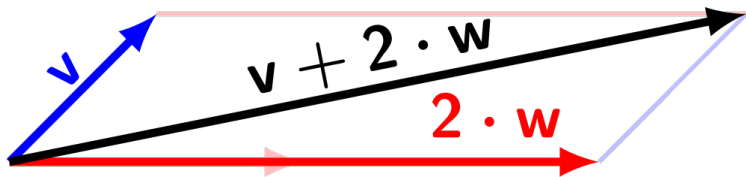
# Vector addition

- Let  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  and  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ ,
- then  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2, \dots, v_n + w_n)$



# Scalar Multiplication

- Let  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ , and  $c$  a scalar,
- then  $c \cdot \mathbf{w} = (c \cdot w_1, c \cdot w_2, \dots, c \cdot w_n)$



# Matrix Addition

- *Matrix Addition:* Two matrices can only be added together if they have the same shape. Given two matrices  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  of the same shape, then  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ , where  $C_{i,j} = A_{i,j} + B_{i,j}$

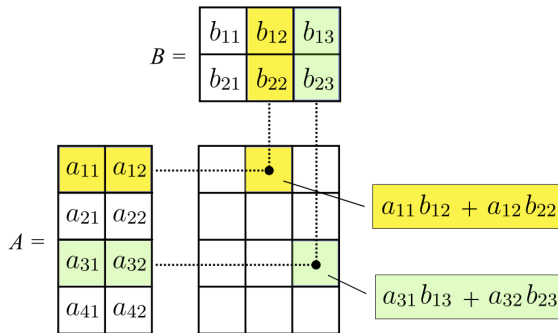
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots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

- *Scalar Multiplication and Addition:* Given a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and scalars  $c, d$ , the matrix  $\mathbf{B} = c \cdot \mathbf{A} + d$  is given by  $B_{i,j} = c \cdot A_{i,j} + d$

# Matrix Multiplication

- *Matrix Multiplication*: Two matrices can only be multiplied together if the number of columns of the first matrix match the number of rows in the second. More concretely, given two matrices  $\mathbf{A}_{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{B}_{p \times q}$ , the product  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$  is only defined when  $n = p$ . The product is defined as:

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



# Transpose Operation

- Transpose of a matrix (or a vector represented as a matrix) is the mirror image of the matrix across its main diagonal.
- Easier way to visualize: rows become columns and columns become rows.
- Transpose of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is written as  $\mathbf{A}^\top$

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

# Trace Operator

Trace is a matrix operator that returns the sum of the elements along the main diagonal (the diagonal starting from top-left moving right and down one row and column until we reach the bottom row) of a square matrix.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_i A_{i,i} = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn}$$

# Determinant

- The determinant of a matrix is a scalar value computed from the elements of a square matrix.
- It is denoted by  $\det(\mathbf{A})$  or  $|\mathbf{A}|$ , and given by the formula (not important).

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \left( \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n a_{i,\sigma_i} \right)$$

In the case of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix the determinant may be defined as

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

Similarly, for a  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $A$ , its determinant is

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} \square & \square & \square \\ \square & e & f \\ \square & h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} \square & \square & \square \\ d & \square & f \\ g & \square & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} \square & \square & \square \\ d & e & \square \\ g & h & \square \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} \\ &= aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh. \end{aligned}$$

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# Row and Column Vectors

A vector can be written in matrix format in two ways: as row vectors and column vectors.

- *Column-vector*: A single column with more than one row, that is a matrix with  $m$  rows and 1 column.
- *Row-vector*: A single row with more than one columns, that is a matrix with 1 row and  $n$  columns.

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Square Matrix

An  $m \times n$  matrix where  $m = n$ , that is the number of rows is equal to the number of columns.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Eg: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 9 & 1 \\ 7 & 4 & 1 & 8 \\ 7 & 3 & 2 & 9 \\ 5 & 6 & 9 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Symmetric Matrix

A Symmetric matrix is a square matrix where  $A = A^T$

$$\text{Eg: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 9 & 1 \\ 4 & 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 9 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 6 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Diagonal Matrix

- A **diagonal matrix** is a matrix where all elements outside the main diagonal (the diagonal starting from top-left moving right and down one row and column until we reach the bottom row).
- A diagonal matrix can also be a rectangular matrix, but in most cases it would be a **square symmetric matrix**.

$$\text{Eg: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Identity Matrix

- An **identity matrix** is a square matrix with ones on the main diagonal and zeros everywhere else.
- The letter  $I_n$  is used to denote an  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

$$\text{Eg: } I_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Invertible Matrix

- An  $n \times n$  square matrix,  $\mathbf{A}$ , is said to be **invertible** if there exists another  $n \times n$  square matrix,  $\mathbf{B}$ , such that,

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

- If the matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  exists, it is written as  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- The inverse of a matrix,  $\mathbf{A}$  exists if and only if  $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$
- A non-invertible matrix is also known as a *singular* matrix

$$\text{Eg: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AA}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}_2$$

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# More about Spaces

- With vector spaces we added the notions of addition and scalar-multiplication of vectors. But what about...
- Distance between two points (vectors)
- Length (magnitude, size) of a vector
- Angle between two vectors



# More about Spaces

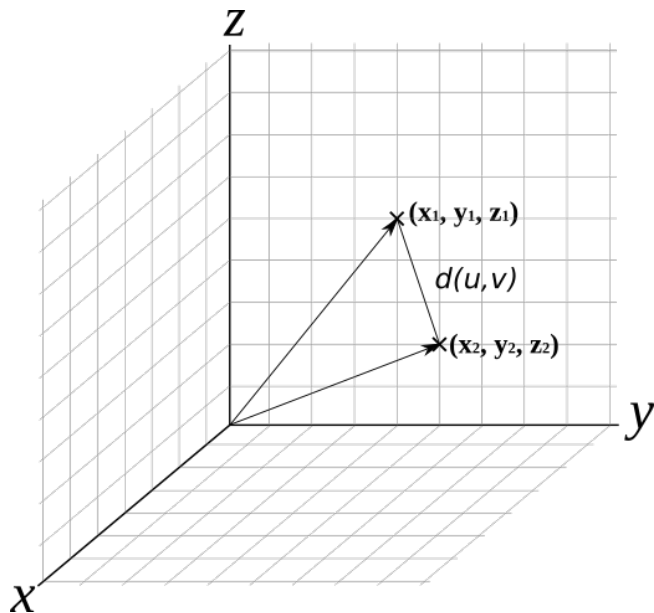
- With vector spaces we added the notions of addition and scalar-multiplication of vectors. But what about...
- Distance between two points (vectors)... **Metric space**
- Length (magnitude, size) of a vector... **Normed Space**
- Angle between two vectors... **Inner Product Space**

- A vector space with a *distance function* giving the distance between any two points is called a metric space.<sup>1</sup>
- For a function,  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ , to be a distance function, it needs to satisfy the following properties.
- *Identity of Indiscernibles*:  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$
- *Symmetry*:  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$
- *Triangle Inequality*:  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \leq d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}) + d(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v})$

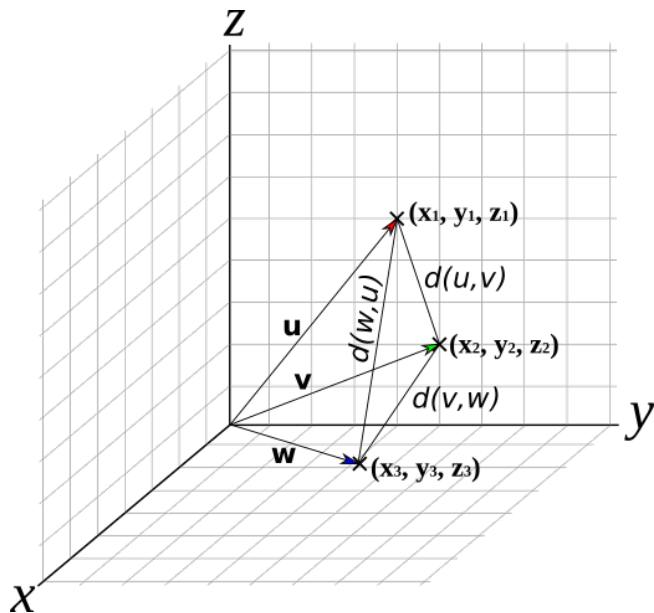
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<sup>1</sup>This definition is correct but not complete, to flush out the actual details we need to go more into pure math, which is not required for us.

# Metric Spaces: Visualization



# Metric Spaces: Visualization



# Examples of Metric Spaces

- $\mathbb{R}^n$  with euclidean distance. If  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ ,

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + \dots + (u_n - v_n)^2}$$

- Manhattan distance or taxi-cab distance or  $L_1$ -distance. If  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ ,

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^n |u_i - v_i|$$

- Wasserstein metric. A metric that gives a measure of distance between two probability distributions. Useful in Deep learning.  
Formula!

# More about Spaces

- With vector spaces we added the notions of addition and scalar-multiplication of vectors. But what about...
- Distance between two points (vectors)... **Metric space**  $(V, +, \cdot, d(\cdot, \cdot))$
- Length (magnitude, size) of a vector... **Normed Space**
- Angle between two vectors... **Inner Product Space**

- A *Norm* is a function that gives the length (magnitude/size) of a vector. The notation  $|| \cdot ||$  is often used for a norm.
- Since a vector is representative of a point in space, the length of a vector is always relative to the origin (the zero vector: **0**)
- For a function,  $f(\cdot) = || \cdot ||$ , to be a norm, it has to satisfy the following properties.
- *Triangle Inequality*:  $||\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}|| \leq ||\mathbf{u}|| + ||\mathbf{v}||$
- *Absolute Homogeneity*:  $||a\mathbf{u}|| = |a| ||\mathbf{u}||$
- *Positive Definite*: If  $||\mathbf{u}|| = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$

# Examples of Normed spaces

- $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\ell_1$ -norm (Taxicab norm):

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |u_i|$$

- $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\ell^2$ -norm (Euclidean norm):

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

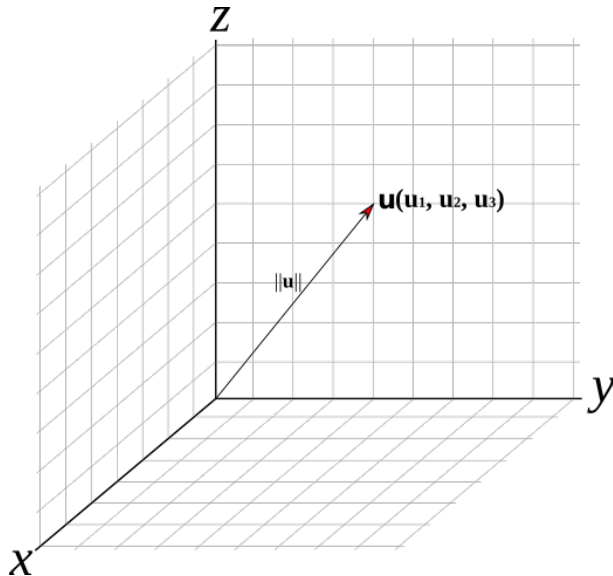
- $\mathbb{R}^n$  with *max-norm* (Infinity norm):

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\|_\infty = \max(|u_1|, |u_2|, \dots, |u_n|)$$



# Visualization: Normed Spaces

Do you see a connection between metric spaces and normed spaces?

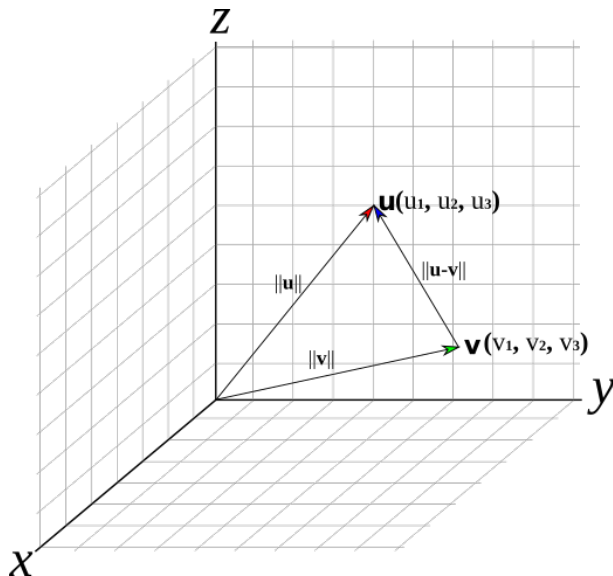


# Norm induces a Metric

- A Norm induces a Metric in the space.
- If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ ,  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$  are their respective norms, then the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  induces the following metric:

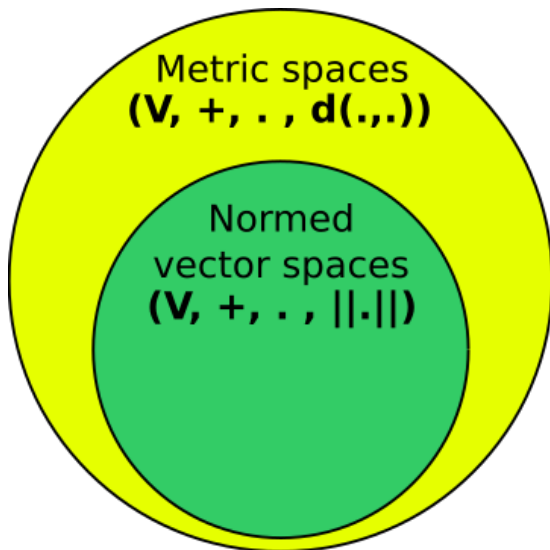
$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

# Visualization: Norms and Metrics



# Visualization: Norms and Metrics

All normed spaces are metric spaces, but not all metric spaces are normed spaces.



# More about Spaces

- With vector spaces we added the notions of addition and scalar-multiplication of vectors. But what about...
- Distance between two points (vectors)... **Metric space**  $(V, +, \cdot, d(\cdot, \cdot))$
- Length (magnitude, size) of a vector... **Normed Space**  $(V, +, \cdot, \|\cdot\|)$
- Angle between two vectors... **Inner Product Space**

# Inner product space

- A vector space with an additional function called the *inner product*, is called an inner product space.
- An inner product, denoted by  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , is a function that takes two vectors and returns a scalar, and also satisfies the following properties.
- *Symmetry*:  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$
- *Linearity in first (or second) argument*:  
 $a\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle a\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$   
 $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$
- *Positive Definiteness*: for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$   $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle > 0$

# Inner product space

- A vector space with an additional function called the *inner product*, is called an inner product space.
- An inner product, denoted by  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , is a function that takes two vectors and returns a scalar, and also satisfies the following properties.

① *Symmetry*:  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$

② *Linearity in first (or second) argument*:

$$a\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle a\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$$

③ *Positive Definiteness*: for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$   $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle > 0$

- Important Results:

- $\langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0} \rangle = 0$

$$\langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0} \rangle = \langle 0\mathbf{x}, 0\mathbf{x} \rangle = 0\langle \mathbf{x}, 0\mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \quad (\text{Linearity in first argument})$$

- *Cauchy-Schwarz inequality*:

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}$$

# Inner Product induces a Norm

## Theorem

$\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$  is a norm.

## Proof.

We have to prove that  $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$  satisfies all the properties of a norm.

- *Positive Definiteness*: We need to prove  $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$   
To do that let's prove the contrapositive, meaning it is enough to show that  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0} &\rightarrow \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle > 0 && \text{(Positive Definiteness of Inner product)} \\ &\rightarrow \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \neq 0 \\ &\rightarrow \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \neq 0\end{aligned}$$





# Inner Product induces a Norm

## Proof.

- *Absolute Homogeneity*: We need to prove  $\sqrt{\langle a\mathbf{x}, a\mathbf{x} \rangle} = |a|\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$

$$\sqrt{\langle a\mathbf{x}, a\mathbf{x} \rangle} = \sqrt{a\langle \mathbf{x}, a\mathbf{x} \rangle} \quad (\text{Linearity in first argument})$$

$$= \sqrt{a^2\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \quad (\text{Linearity in second argument})$$

$$= |a|\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \quad (\sqrt{a^2} = |a|)$$



# Inner Product induces a Norm

## Proof.

- *Triangle Inequality*: To show:  $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle} \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} + \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}$

$$\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle \quad (\text{Linearity in 1}^{st})$$

$$= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \quad ( " \text{ in } 2^{nd})$$

$$= (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle})^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle})^2 \quad (\text{Symmetry})$$

$$\leq (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle})^2 + 2|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| + (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle})^2 \quad (a \leq |a|)$$

$$\leq (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle})^2 + 2\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle} + (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle})^2$$

(Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)

$$= (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} + \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle})^2$$

$$\therefore \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle} \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} + \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}$$



# Inner Product induces a Norm and Metric

## Definition

Give a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in an inner product space:  $(V, +, \cdot, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ , the norm of the vector,  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$  is defined as:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$$

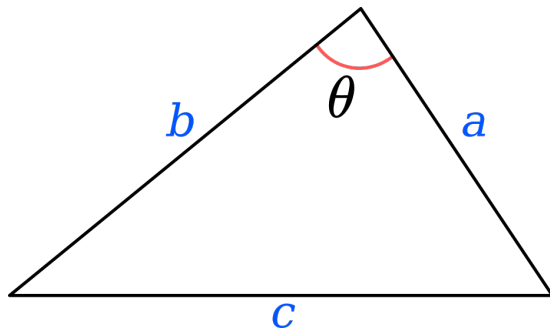
We know that a norm induces a metric in the space, therefore by association an inner product also induces a metric.

## Definition

Give two vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  in an inner product space:  $(V, +, \cdot, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ , the distance between the vector,  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ , is defined as:

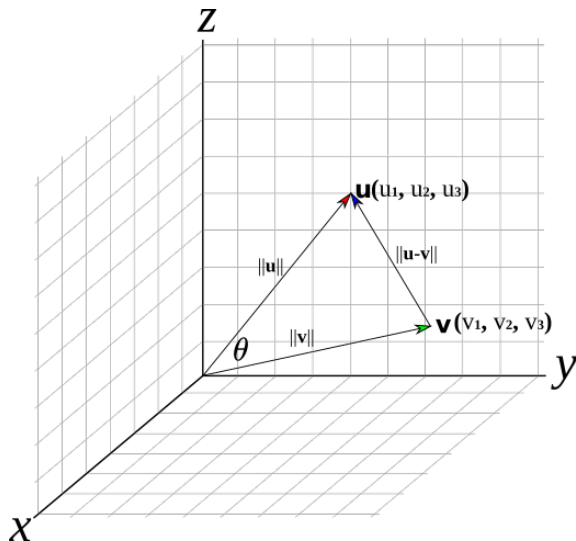
$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle}$$

# Law of Cosines in Trigonometry



**Law of Cosines:**  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$

# Angle between two Vectors



$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta$$

# Angle between two Vectors

$$\begin{aligned} ||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||^2 &= (\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle})^2 \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle -\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle && \text{(Linearity in 1<sup>st</sup>)} \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle && \text{( " in 2<sup>nd</sup>)} \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle - 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle && \text{(Symmetry)} \end{aligned}$$

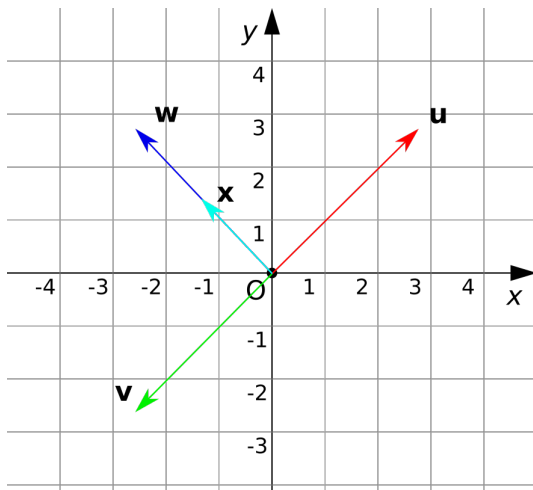
$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle - 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle &= ||\mathbf{u}||^2 + ||\mathbf{v}||^2 - 2||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}|| \cos \theta \\ \Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle - 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle - 2||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}|| \cos \theta \\ \Rightarrow \cos \theta &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}||} \\ \therefore \theta &= \arccos \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}||} \end{aligned}$$

# Question?

Why did we need the inner product space if the angle can be derived from the Norm?

# Angle between two Vectors

The previous derivation overlooked a special case. What happens when one vector is a scalar multiple of the other? The Law of cosines does not work anymore because the distance between the two vectors is not the side opposite to the angle. We need a new proof for such cases.





# Angle between two Vectors

Give two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , which are scalar multiples of each other, without loss of generality, we can write:

$$\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{v}$$

The inner product between the two vectors can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle &= \langle c\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= c\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle && \text{(Linearity in 1<sup>st</sup>)} \\ &= \text{sign}(c)|c|\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= \text{sign}(c)|c| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 && (\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}) \\ &= \text{sign}(c)|c| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| \\ &= \text{sign}(c)\|\mathbf{cv}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| && \text{(Absolute Homogeneity)} \\ \therefore \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle &= \text{sign}(c)\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\| && (\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{v})\end{aligned}$$

# Angle between two vectors

We have:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \text{sign}(c) \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

When  $\text{sign}(c) = 1, \theta = 0 \Rightarrow \cos \theta = \cos 0 = 1$  (Same Direction)

When  $\text{sign}(c) = -1, \theta = 180 \Rightarrow \cos \theta = \cos 180 = -1$  (Opp. Direction)

Therefore, we can replace  $\text{sign}(c)$  with  $\cos \theta$ .

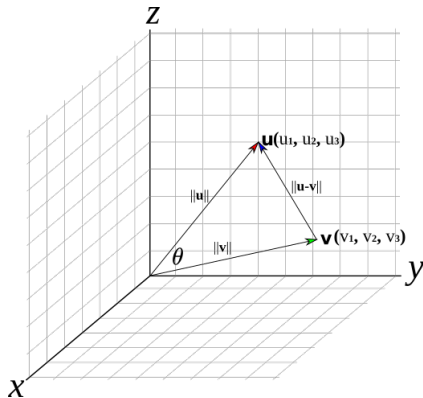
$$\Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \cos \theta \|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

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

$$\therefore \theta = \arccos \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|}$$

# Putting it all together

Given an **Inner Product Space**:  $(V, +, \cdot, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ . We have,



- 1 Angle between two vectors:  $\theta = \arccos \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|}$
- 2 Length of a vector:  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$
- 3 Distance between two vectors:  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle}$

# Dot Product

The dot product is the most famous example of an inner product. A Vector space equipped with the dot product is an inner product space. The dot product is defined as follows

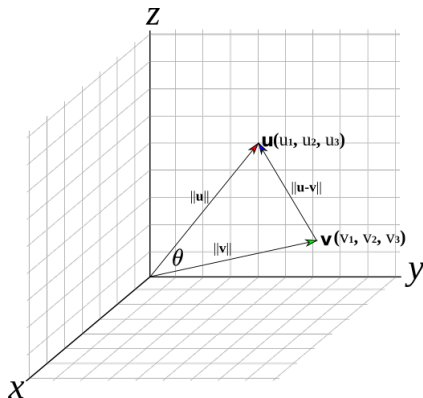
$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

Where,

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots \quad x_n] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\therefore \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = [x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots x_n y_n]$$

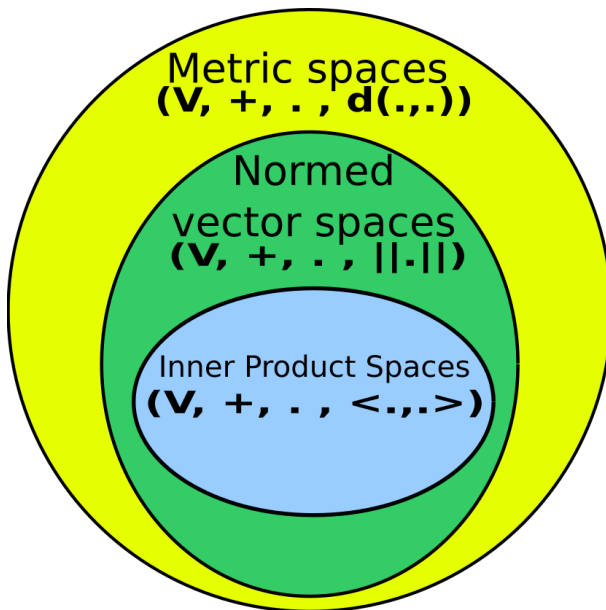
# Vector Space as we know it

Given a vector space,  $(V, +, \cdot)$  along with the dot product  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$ .



- 1 Angle between two vectors:  $\theta = \arccos \frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}||}$
- 2 Length of a vector:  $||\mathbf{u}|| = \sqrt{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}$
- 3 Distance b/w two vectors:  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = ||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})^T (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v})}$

# Inner Product Spaces



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# Operations in Linear Algebra

From that not so brief aside we now have three new operations.

- *Dot Product*: An operation between two vectors that results in a scalar value. It is also known as the scalar product.

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots x_n y_n \quad (\text{Component-wise})$$

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos(\theta) \quad (\text{Using Angle})$$

- *Norm*: The norm gives the magnitude or length of a vector.

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

- *Distance*: Measures the distance between two vectors.

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$$