Introduction to Linear Algebra

A matrix is a **rectangular collection** of numbers

$$A = egin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & -3 \ 11 & \pi & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = egin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.9 & 0.3 \ 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.6 \ 0.7 & 0.7 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$



An **element** of a matrix is denoted by a_{rc} which corresponds the element of matrix a in the r^{th} row and c^{th} column

$$A = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrices are also generally used to represent **systems** of linear equations for example:

$$4x + 2y = 12$$
$$3x - 2y = 8$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \ 3 & -28 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 12 \ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

how this works will be explained later

Matrix Addition

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

Matrix Addition

To get each element $(A+B)_{ij}$, you simply **add the** corresponding elements, $a_{11}+b_{11}$

Matrix Addition

$$A + x = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} + x & a_{12} + x & \dots & a_{1n} + x \ a_{21} + x & a_{22} + x & \dots & a_{2n} + x \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{m1} + x & a_{m2} + x & \dots & a_{mn} + x \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix times matrix multiplication works differently, let say A is an m imes k matrix and B is a k imes n matrix
- Their **cross product** $C = A \times B$ defined to be the matrix with each element:

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

$$A imes B = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \ dots & dots & dots \ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{in} \ dots & dots & dots & dots \ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} imes egin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{1n} \ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{2n} \ dots & dots & dots & dots \ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{1j} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1n} \ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2n} \ dots & dots & dots & dots \ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & \dots & c_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar times matrix multiplication works similar to scalar plus matrix addition:

$$Ax = egin{bmatrix} a_{11}x & a_{12}x & \dots & a_{1n}x \ a_{21}x & a_{22}x & \dots & a_{2n}x \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{m1}x & a_{m2}x & \dots & a_{mn}x \end{bmatrix}$$

The **identity matrix** I_n of order n is a special n imes n (square) matrix such that its elements $\iota_{ij}=1$ if i=j otherwise $\iota_{ij}=0$

$$I = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix is special because, for any m imes n matrix A,

$$AI_n = I_m A = A$$

Powers of square matrices can be defined such that:

$$A^0 = I_n \ A^r = A imes A imes \cdots imes A$$

Transpose of a Matrix

- ullet The elements of A^T , $t_{ij}=a_{ji}$
- Therefore the transpose of a matrix is the same matrix but the rows and columns are **interchanged**.

Transpose of a Matrix

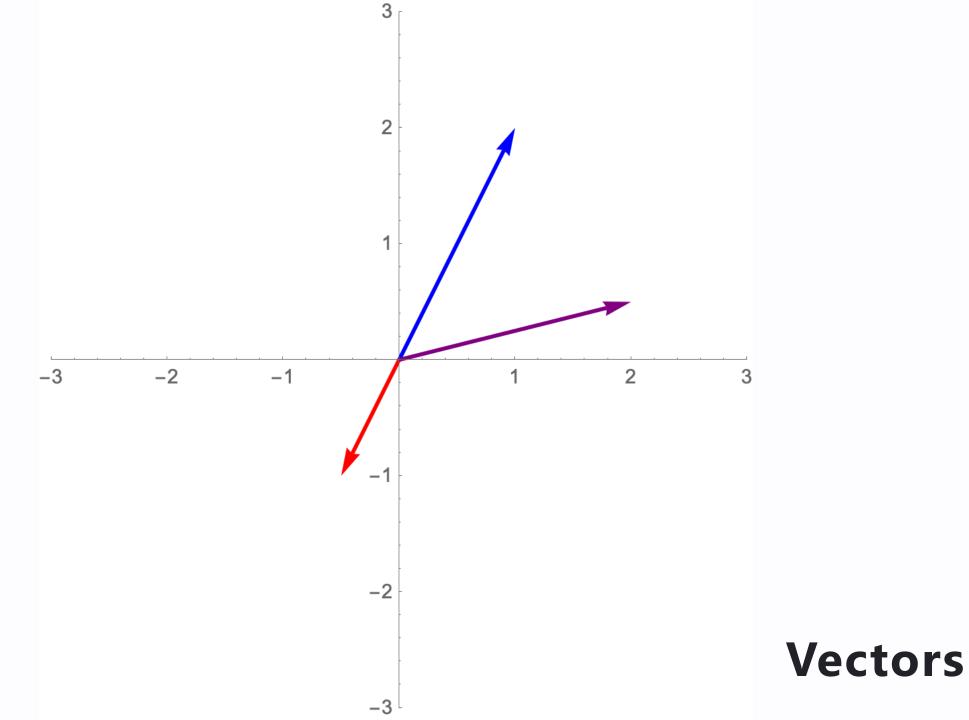
$$egin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & -3 \ 11 & \pi & 12 \end{bmatrix}^T = egin{bmatrix} 4 & 11 \ 2 & \pi \ -3 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transpose of a Matrix

A, square matrix A is said to be **symmetric** if $A^T=A$

The foundation of linear algebra is the concept of a **vector**

For a physics student, a vector is defined by **direction** and **magnitude**:



For a computer science student, a vector is just an ordered collection of numbers

$$ec{v} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A vector in a CS students point of view can be thought of as a coordinate list specifying the destination of an arrow
- In this case the vector \vec{v} can be thought of as the **arrow** pointing from the origin, (0,0,0) to the point (1,3,2).

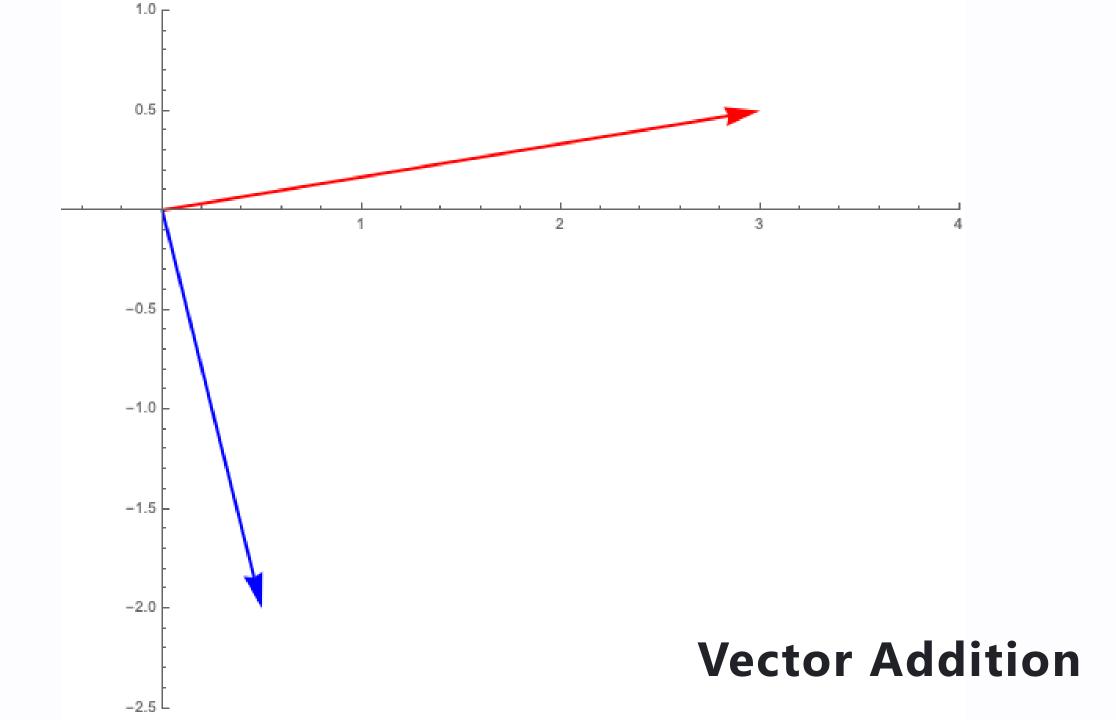
To differentiate vectors and coordinates, vectors are written as single-column matrices while coordinates are written as ordered tuples.

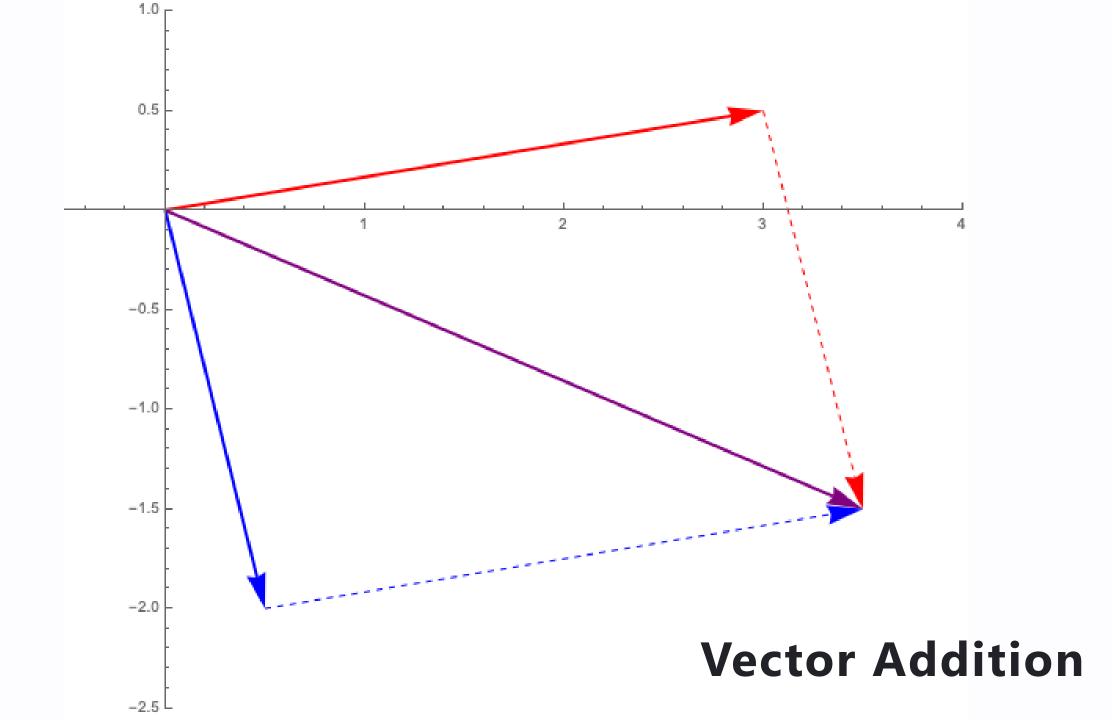
Vector Addition

Vectors can be added to each other which also **add** their corresponding arrows.

Vector Addition

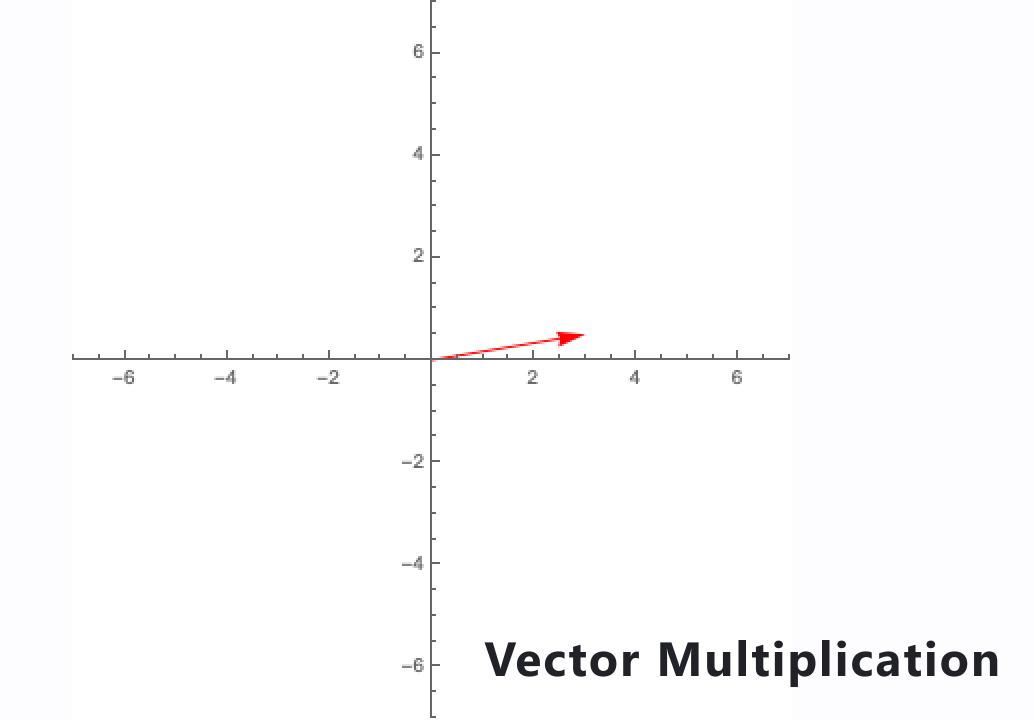
$$egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} + egin{bmatrix} 0.5 \ -2 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 3.5 \ -1.5 \end{bmatrix}$$





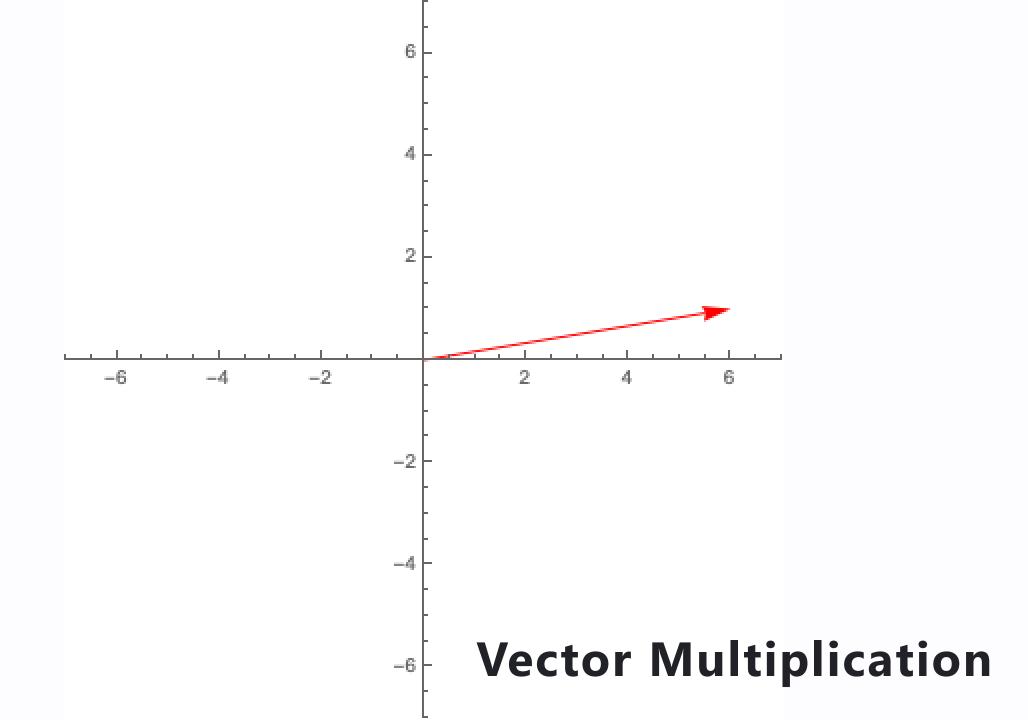
Vectors can also be multiplied with **scalar** values which will scale their corresponding arrows

$$ec{v} = egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$



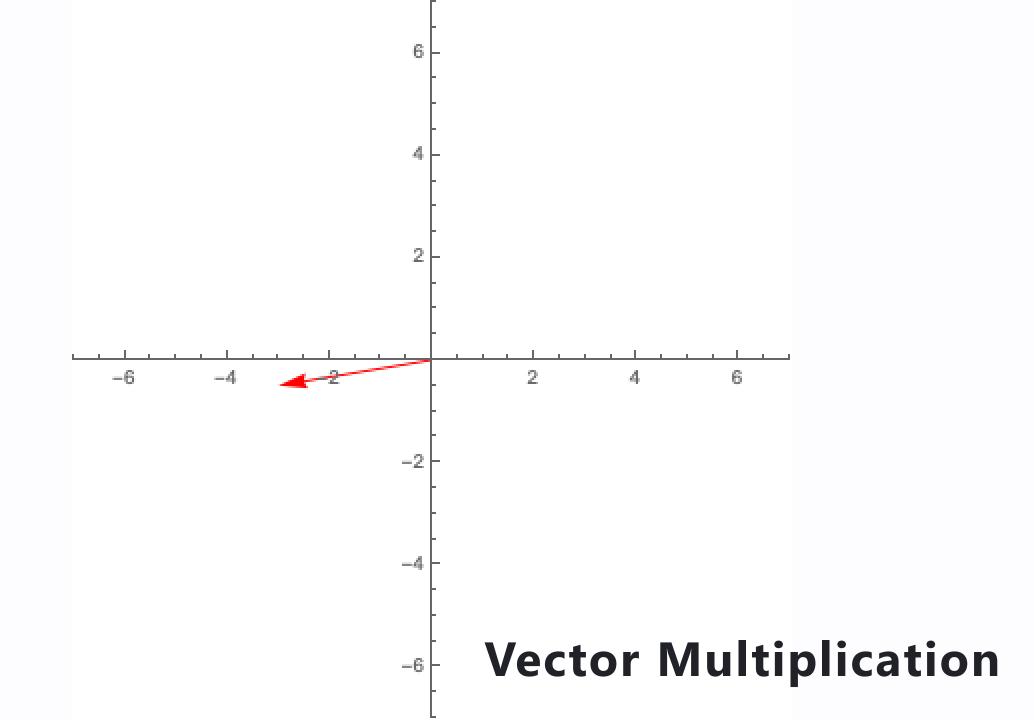
The vector **scaled** by a factor of **2**:

$$2ec{v}=2egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix} 6 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Scaled by a factor of -1.

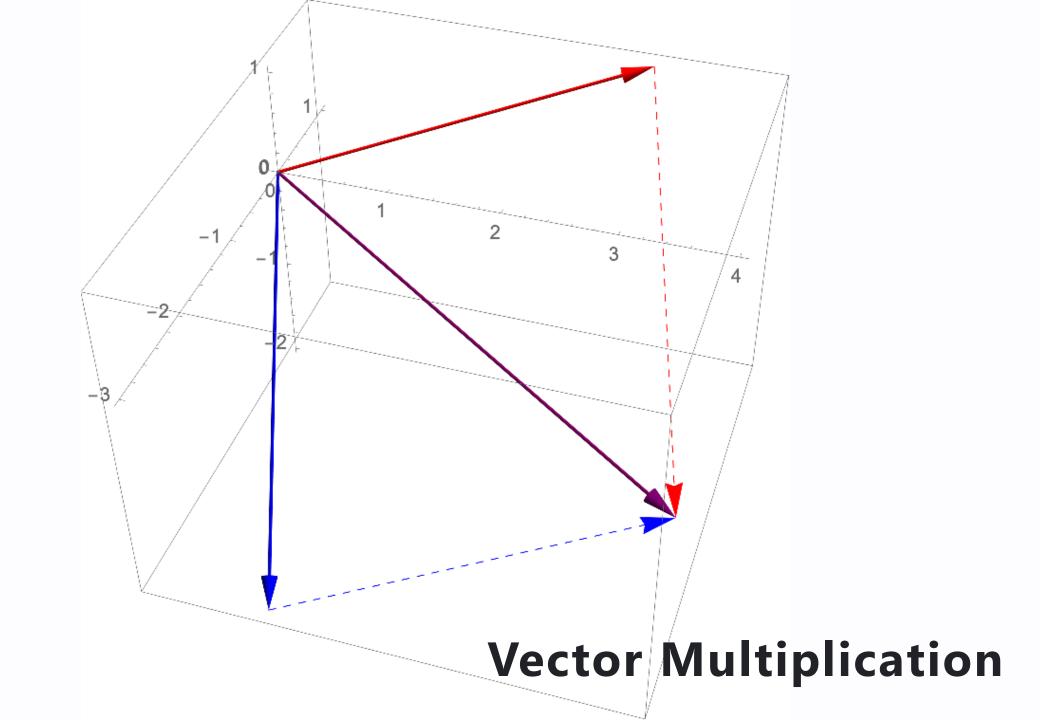
$$-1ec{v}=-1egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 0.5 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} -3 \ -.5 \end{bmatrix}$$



Scalars are called scalars because they **scale** the vectors.

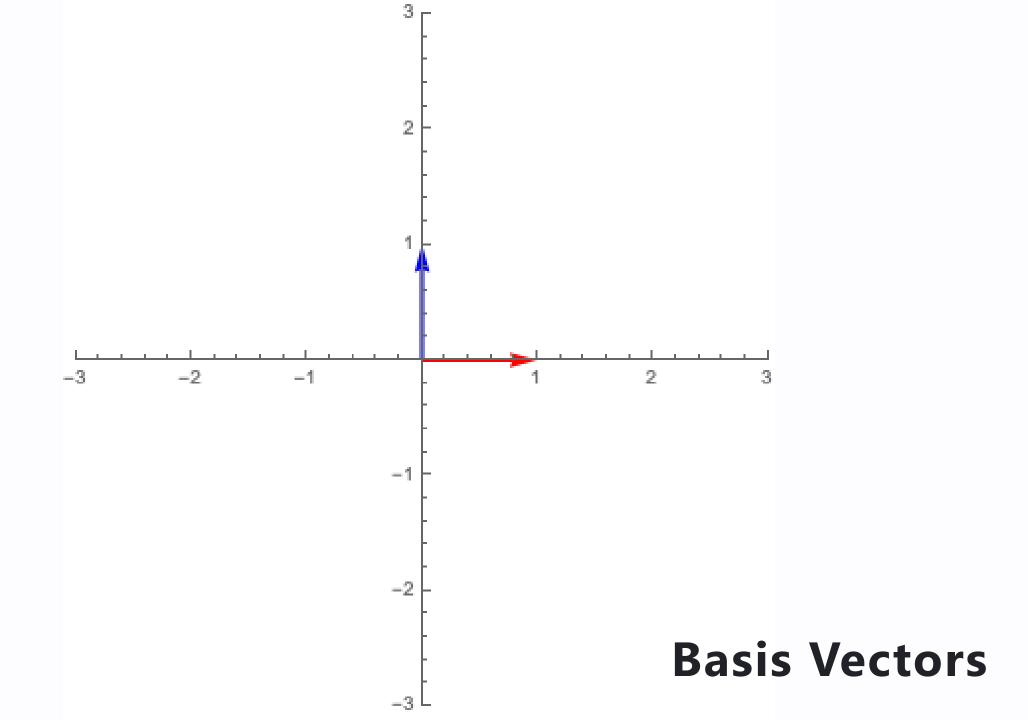
These operations also work on 3 dimensional vectors

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 3 \ 1 \ \end{bmatrix} + egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 1 \ \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 4 \ \end{bmatrix} \ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$



- ullet To generalize vectors and vector operations, linear algebra makes use of **basis vectors** which are unit vectors along the x and y axis of a Cartesian plane
- ullet We call these vectors, $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{\jmath}$ respectively

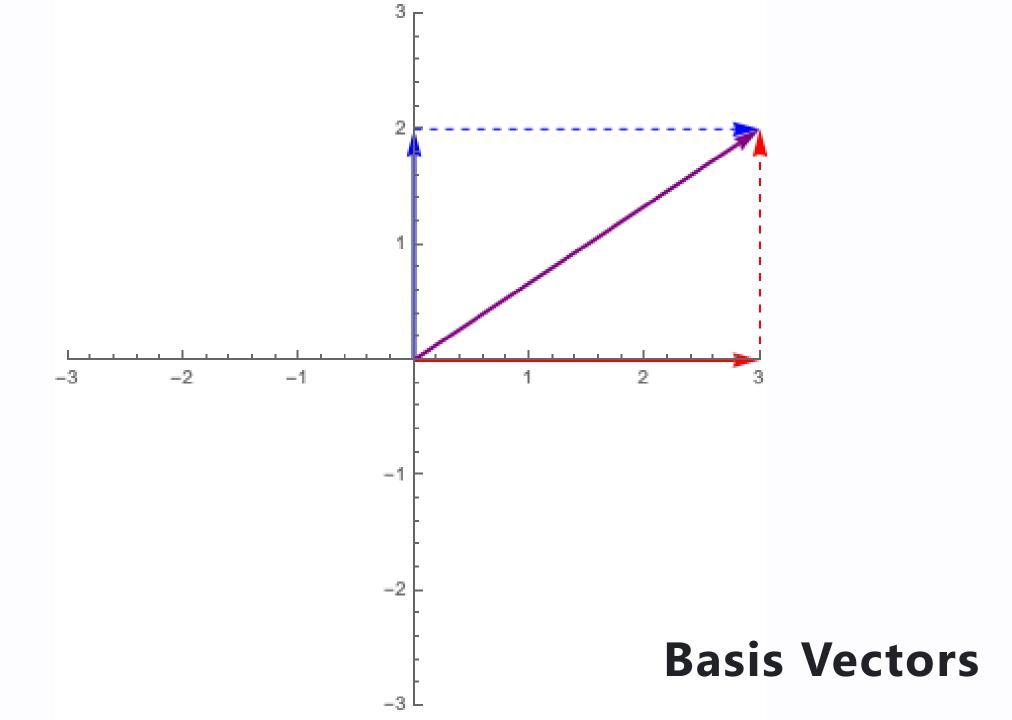
$$\hat{\imath} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \hat{\jmath} = egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

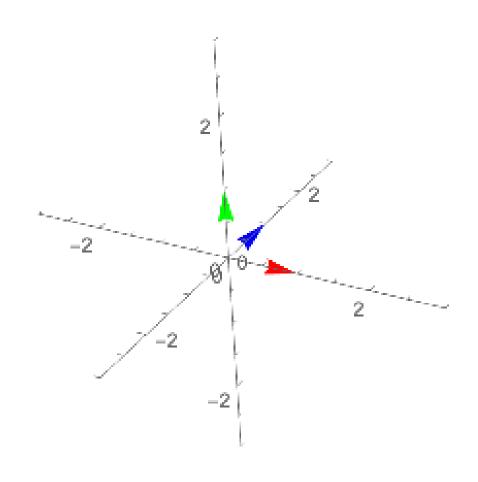


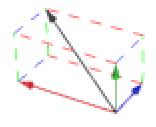
Basis vectors are special because you can **define** new vectors vectors based on the the definitions of the basis

$$ec{v}=3\hat{\imath}+2\hat{\jmath}$$

$$ec{v}=3egin{bmatrix}1\0\end{bmatrix}+2egin{bmatrix}0\1\end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix}3\2\end{bmatrix}$$



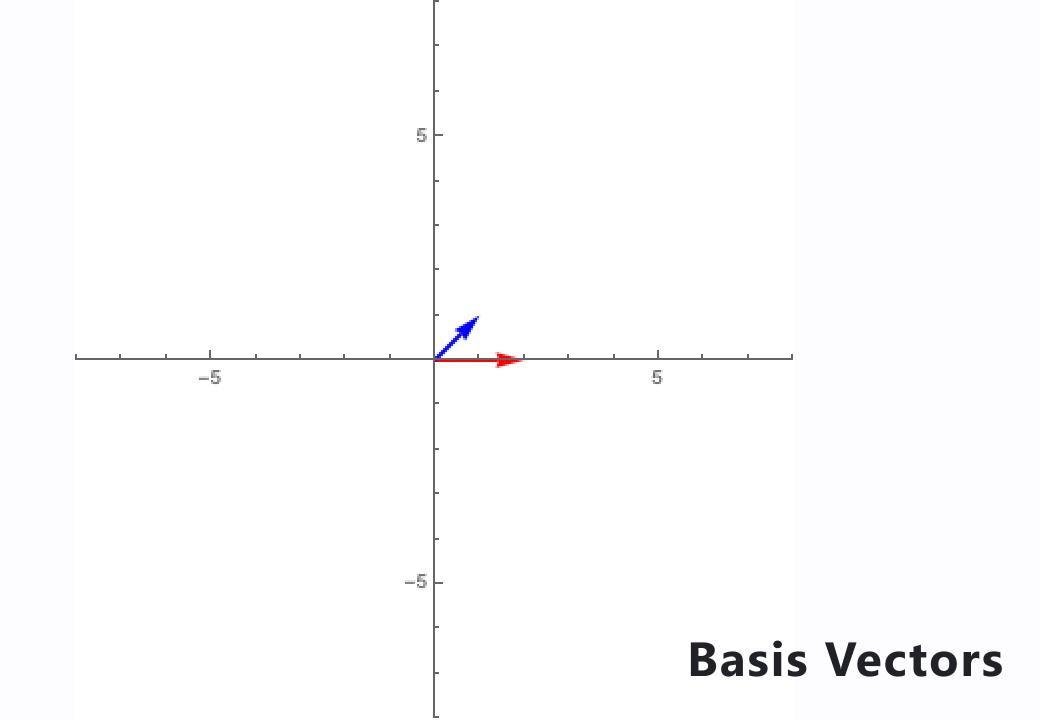




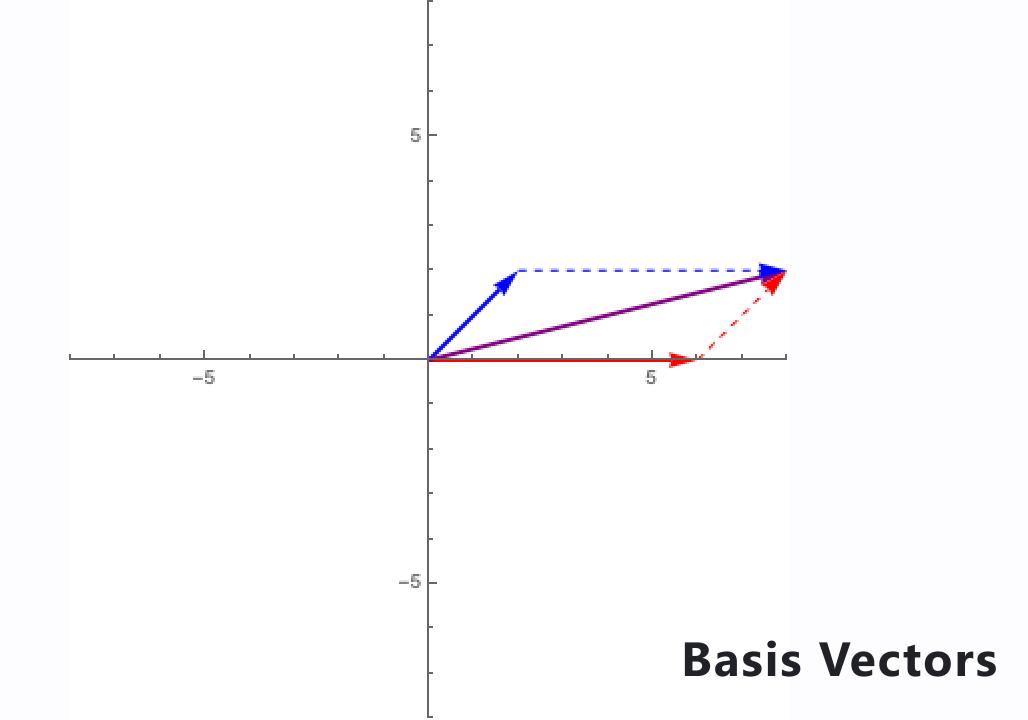


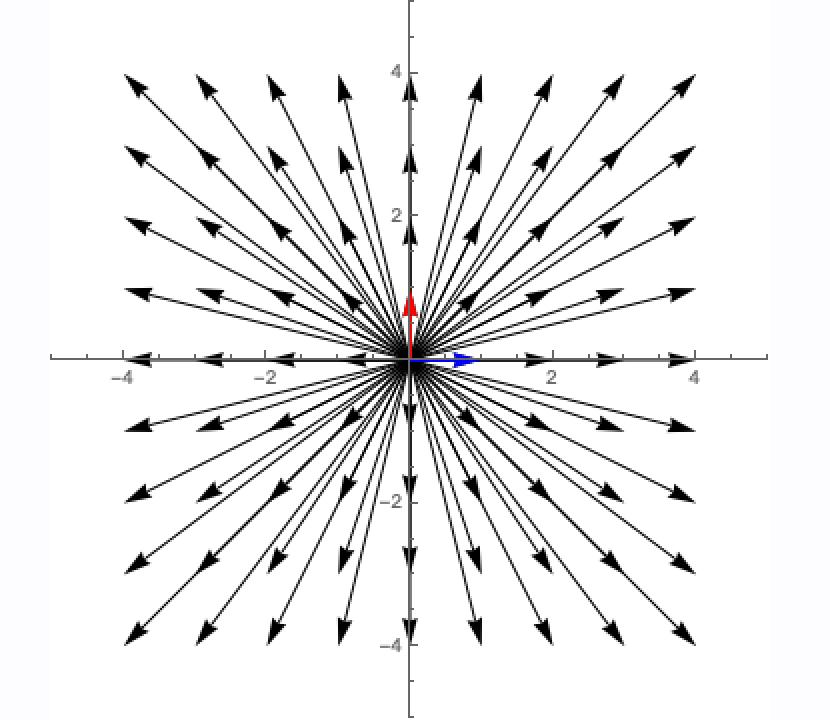


$$ec{u} = egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}, ec{w} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$ec{v}=3egin{bmatrix}2\\0\end{bmatrix}+2egin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix}8\\2\end{bmatrix}$$



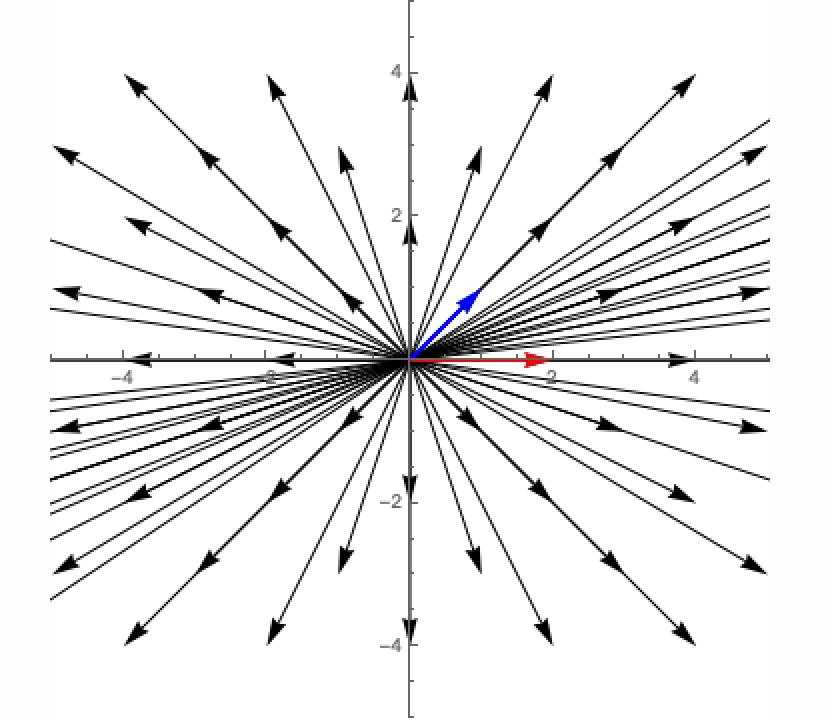


Span

For the set of vectors $\{\hat{\imath},\hat{\jmath}\}$, you can generate **all** of the possible vectors in the 2 dimensional vector space.

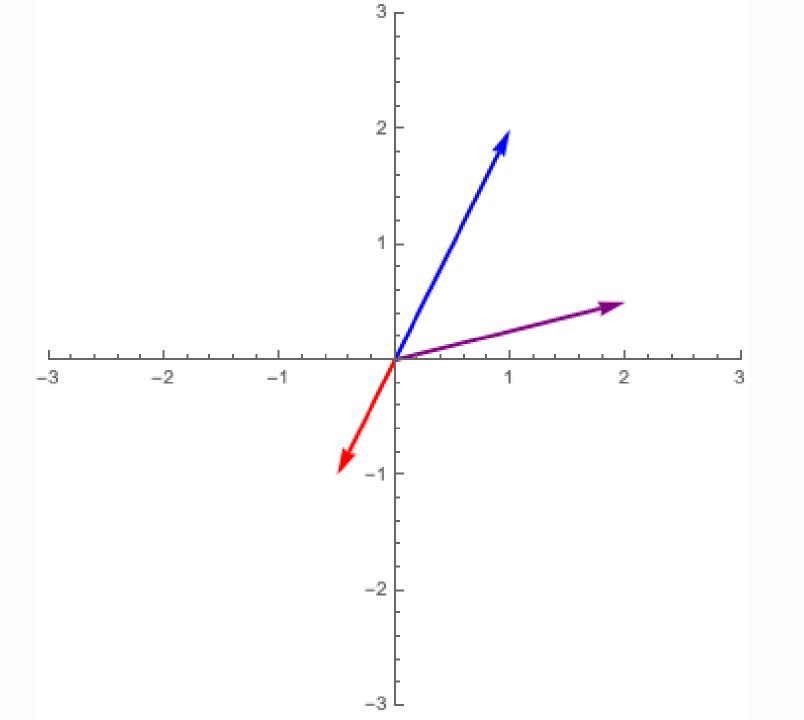
You can also generate **all** of the possible vectors in the 2-dimensional vector space using the basis vectors:

$$\left\{ egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}
ight\}$$



Span

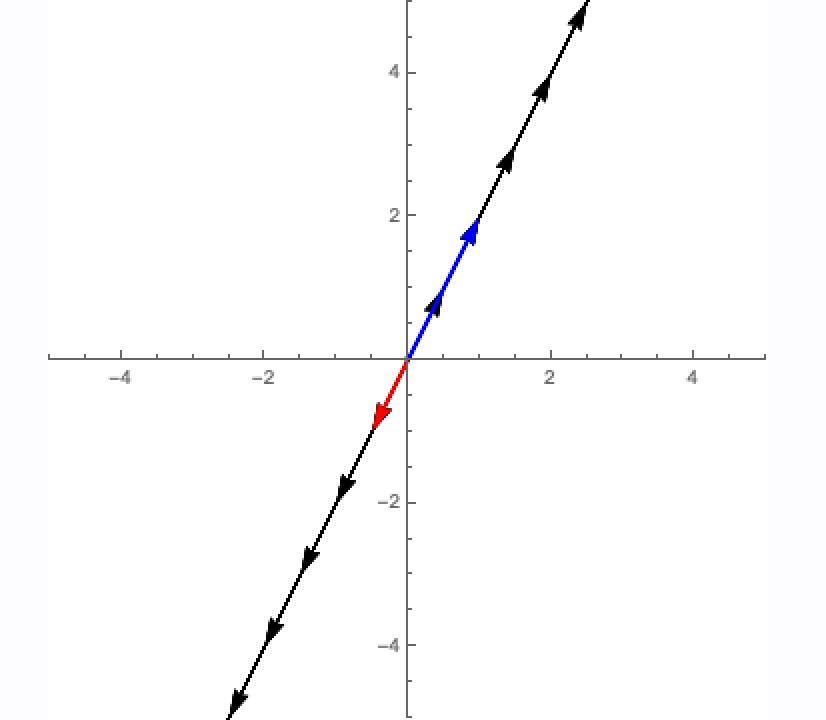
$$\{ec{r}=egin{bmatrix} -0.5 \ -1 \end{bmatrix}, ec{b}=egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \end{bmatrix} \}$$



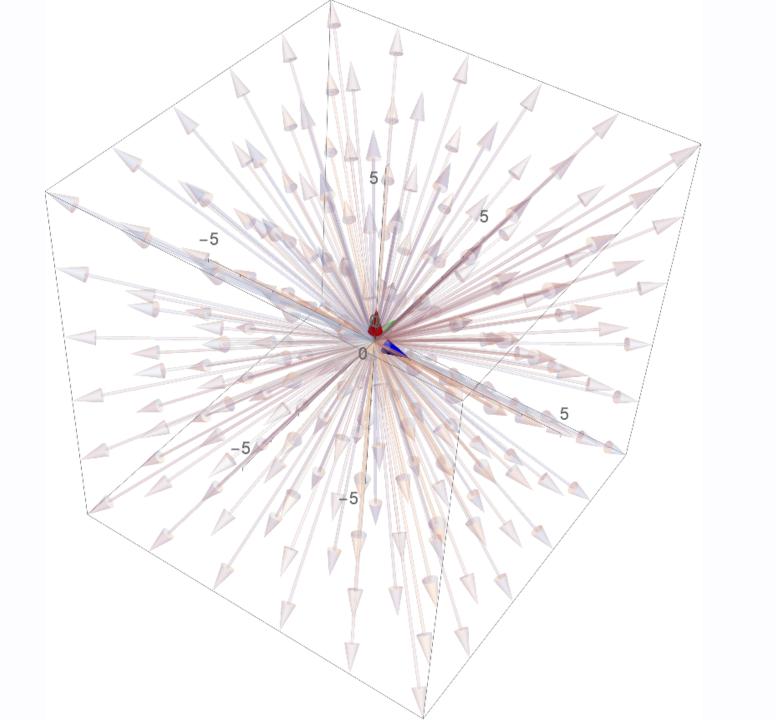
- You can't generate the purple vector since one of the basis vectors you are using is redundant
- ullet It is redundant in the sense that the $ec{r}$ is just a **scaled** version on of $ec{b}$ and vice versa

$$ec{r}=-0.5ec{b} \ ec{b}=-2ec{r}$$

$$\dot{b}=-2ar{r}$$

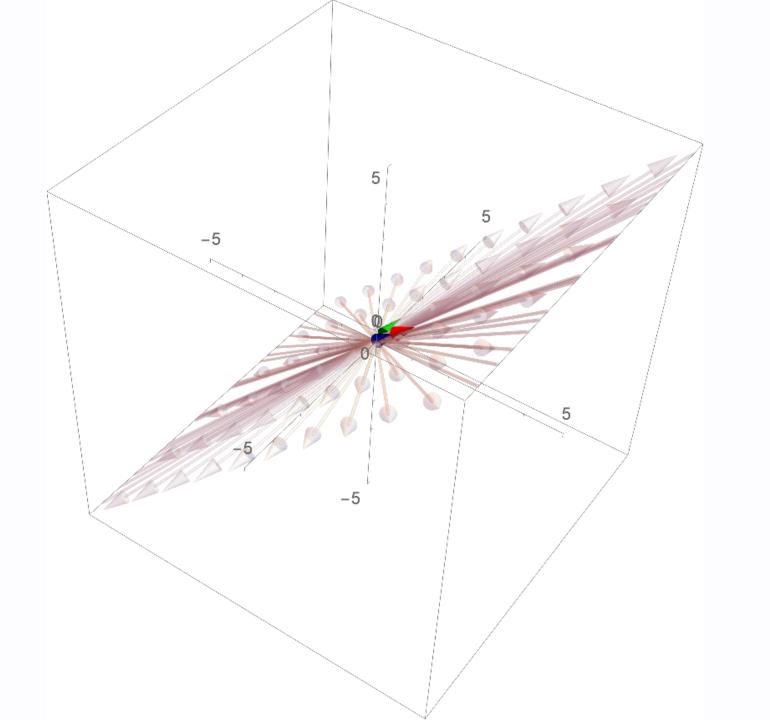


- ullet We call $ec{r}$ and $ec{b}$ and any set of vectors that has some kind of redundancy as **linearly dependent**
- The basis vectors defined earlier, $\{\hat{\imath},\hat{\jmath}\}$, and $\{\vec{u},\vec{w}\}$ as linearly independent.



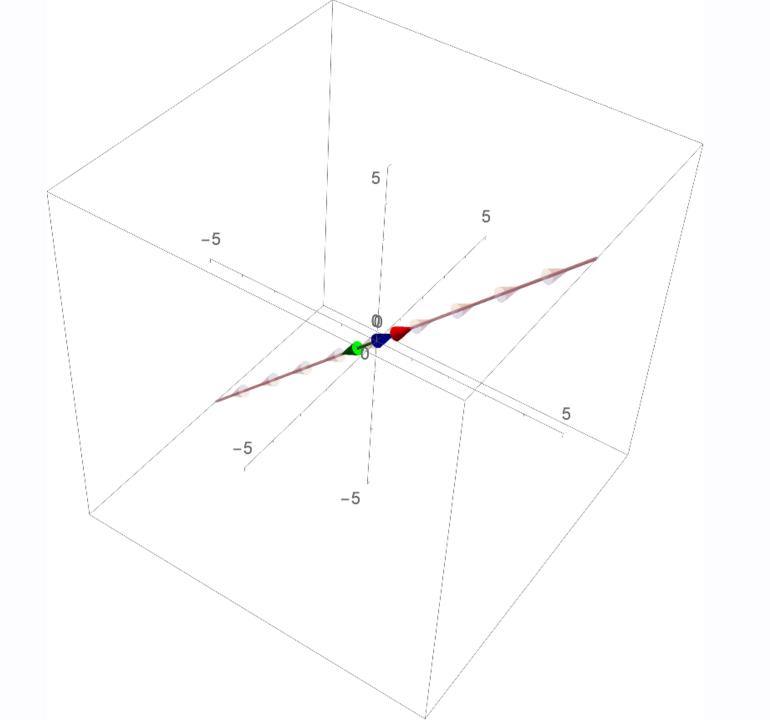
Linear dependence in three dimensions can result to spans that describe a **plane**:

$$\left\{ egin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0.5 & 0 \ 1 & 0.5 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \ \end{array}
ight.$$



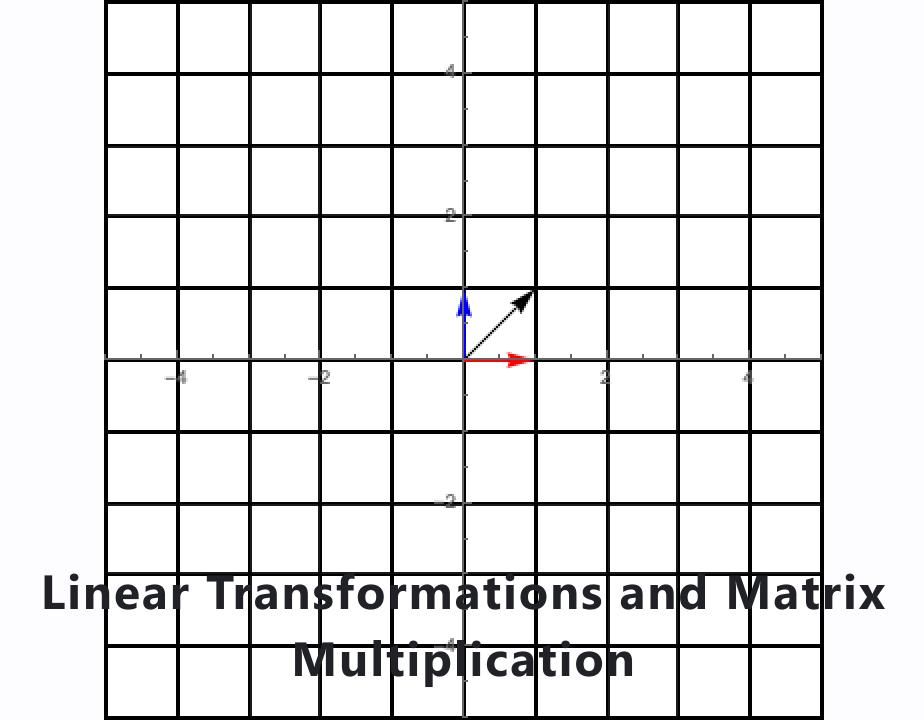
And spans that describe a **line**:

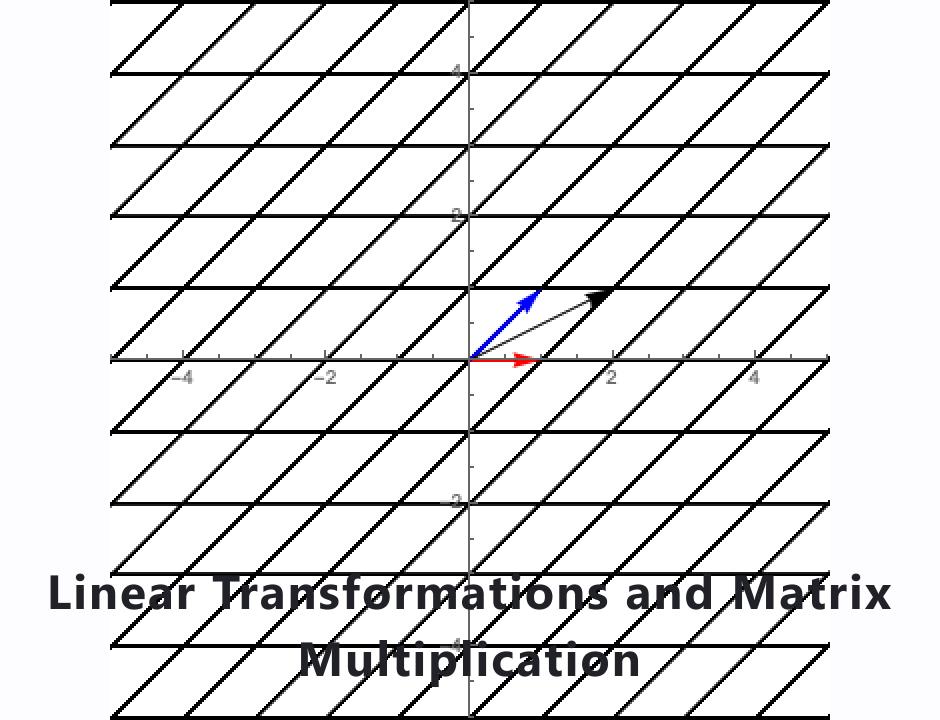
$$\left\{ egin{array}{c} 1 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array}, egin{array}{c} [0.5] \ (-1] \ -1 \ 0 \end{array}
ight\}$$



Linear Transformations and Matrix Multiplication

- A transformation is basically a function that converts one vector to another vector
- ullet For example the transformation f can be defined as f(ec x)=3ec x
- You can think of a transformation visually as the distortion of the entire vector space

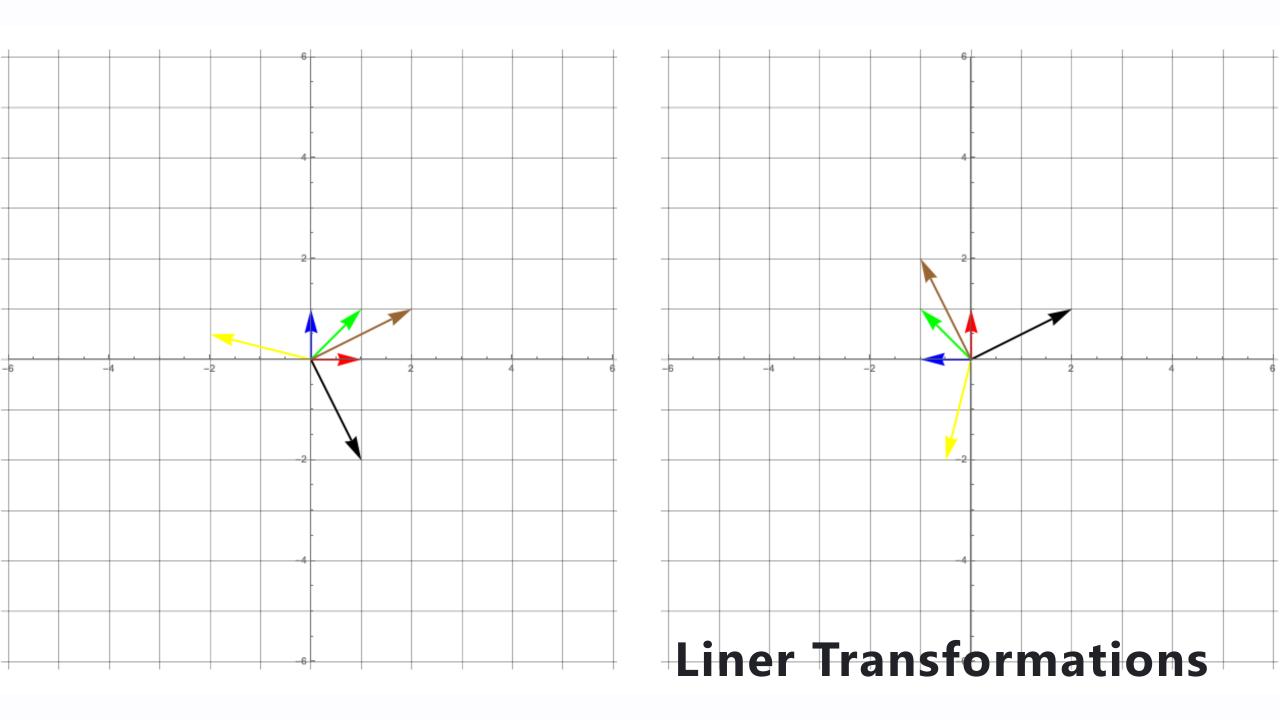




Linear Transformations are special transformations where the distortion of the vector space follows these rules:

- 1. The origin should not move
- 2. Parallel lines stay parallel
- 3. Straight lines stay straight

It turns out all transformations that satisfy the above rules can be perfectly described by watching how the **basis vectors** are transformed



- new $\hat{\imath}$ (red vector) $: \hat{\imath}' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- new $\hat{\jmath}$ (blue vector): $\hat{\jmath}' = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
- Green vector: $1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$ullet$$
 Brown vector: $2egin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}+1egin{bmatrix}-1\\0\end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix}-1\\2\end{bmatrix}$

$$ullet$$
 Yellow vector: $-2egin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}+0.5egin{bmatrix}-1\\0\end{bmatrix}=egin{bmatrix}-0.5\\-2\end{bmatrix}$

ullet Black vector: $1egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 1 \end{bmatrix} + -2egin{bmatrix} -1 \ 0 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- All of the other vector values after the transformation is basically scaled versions of the new basis vectors in the same way that the pretransformed vector values are combinations of the original basis vectors
- This means that any 2-dimensional linear transformation can be represented by 4 numbers, which we can write as a matrix, where each column corresponds to a basis vector

$$T = egin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T = egin{bmatrix} a & b \ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear Transformation and Matrix Multiplication

$$xegin{bmatrix} a \ c \end{bmatrix} + yegin{bmatrix} b \ d \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} ax+by \ cx+dy \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear Transformation and Matrix Multiplication

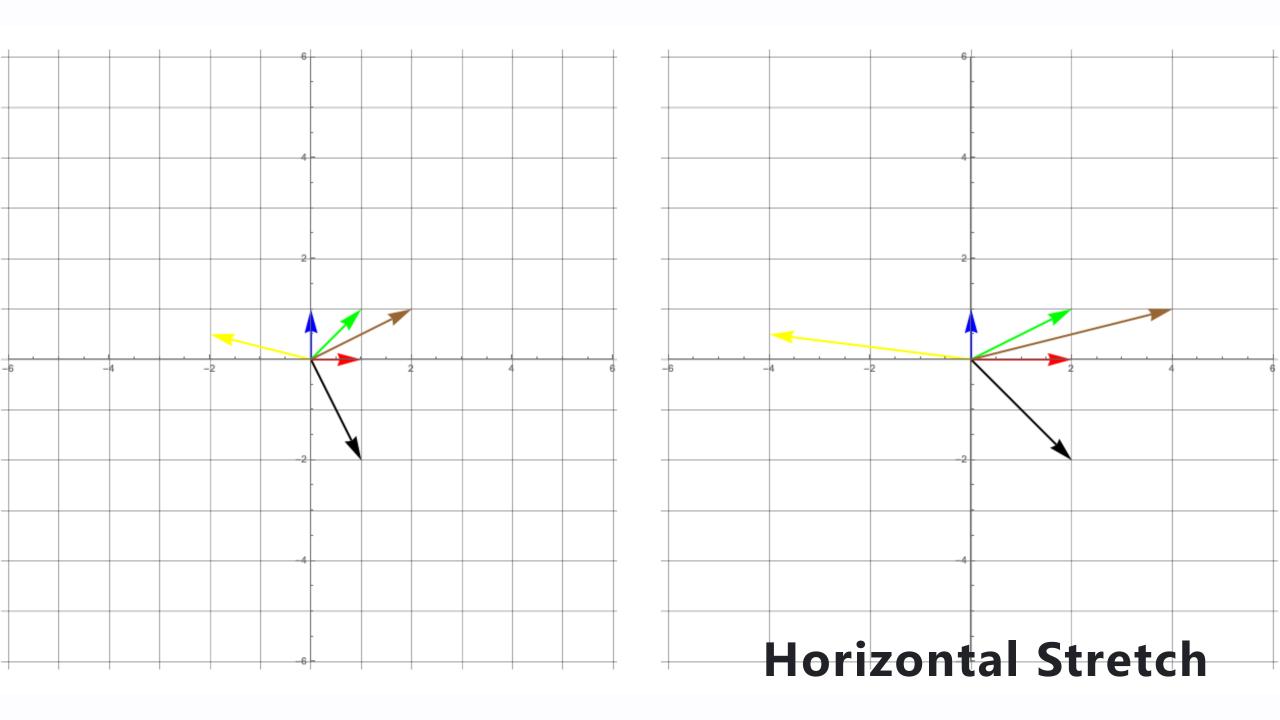
$$egin{bmatrix} a & b \ c & d \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} ax + by \ cx + dy \end{bmatrix}$$

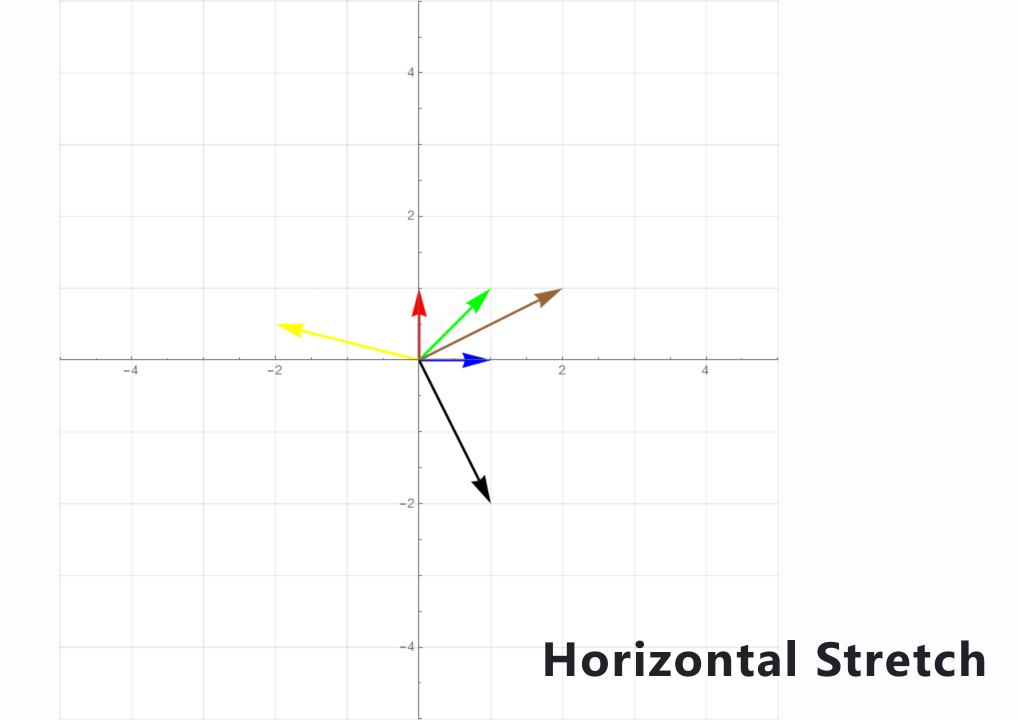
Linear Transformation and Matrix Multiplication

$$f(\vec{v}) = T\vec{v}$$

Horizontal Stretch

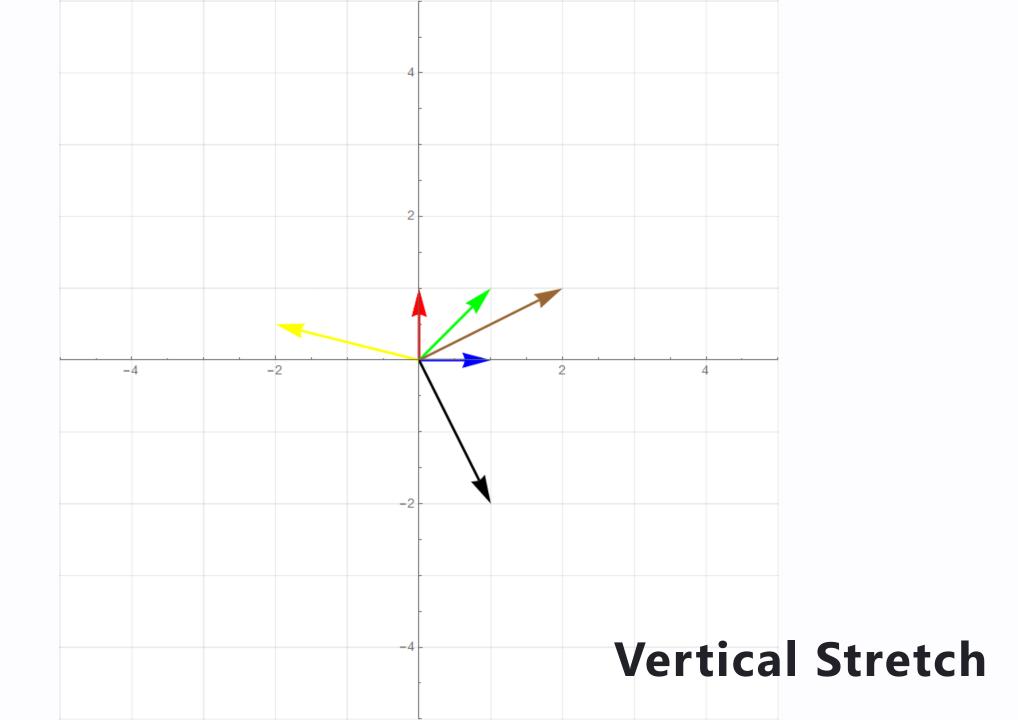
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





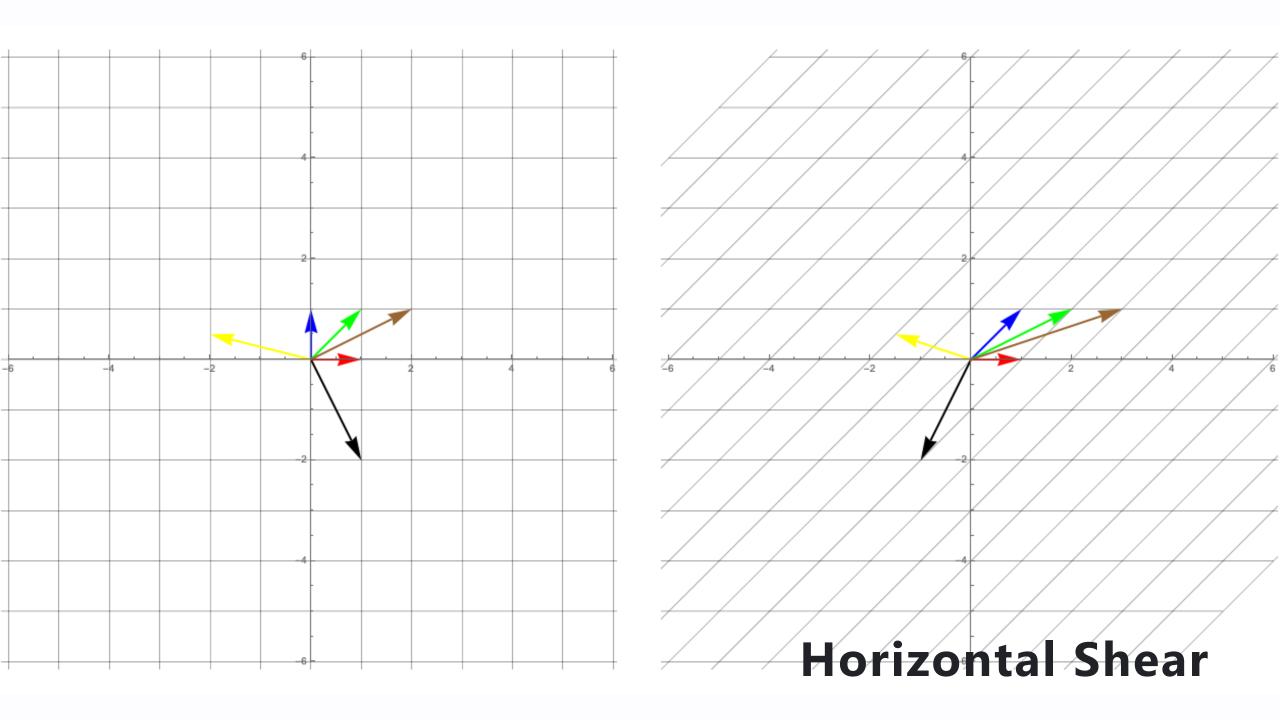
Vertical Stretch

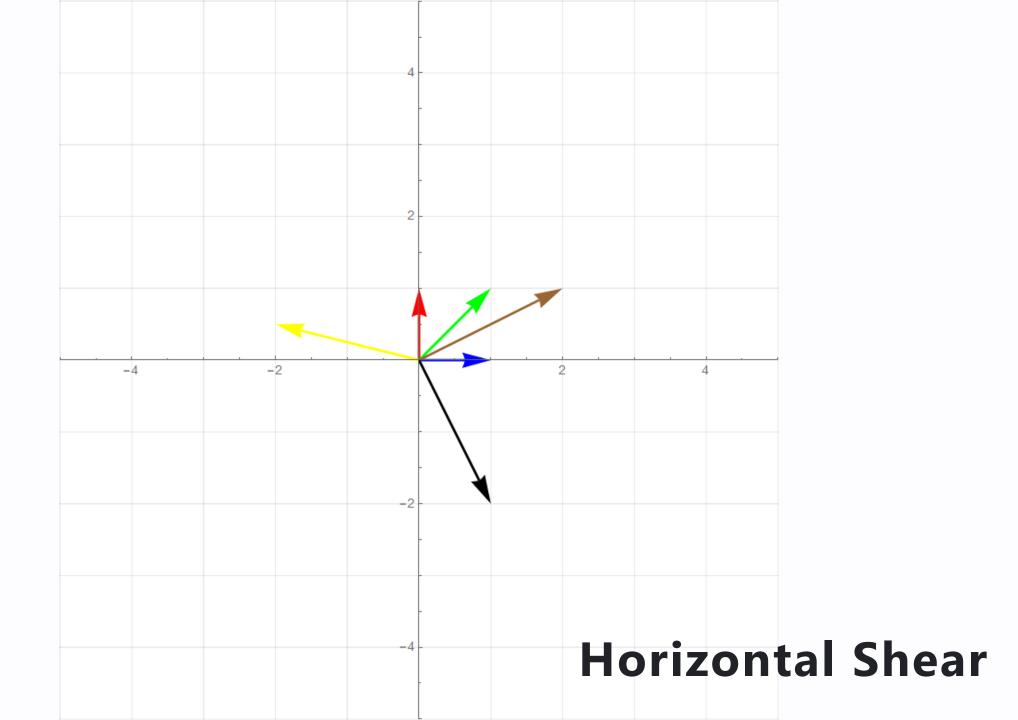
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Horizontal Shear

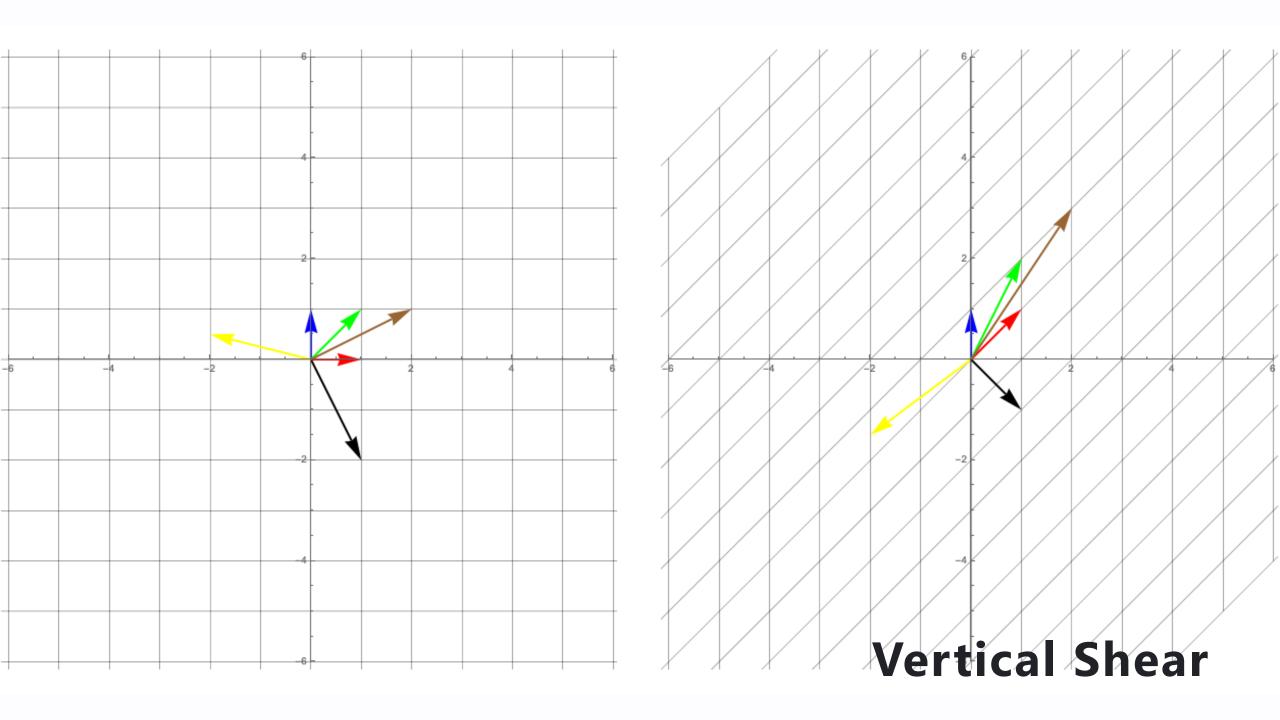
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

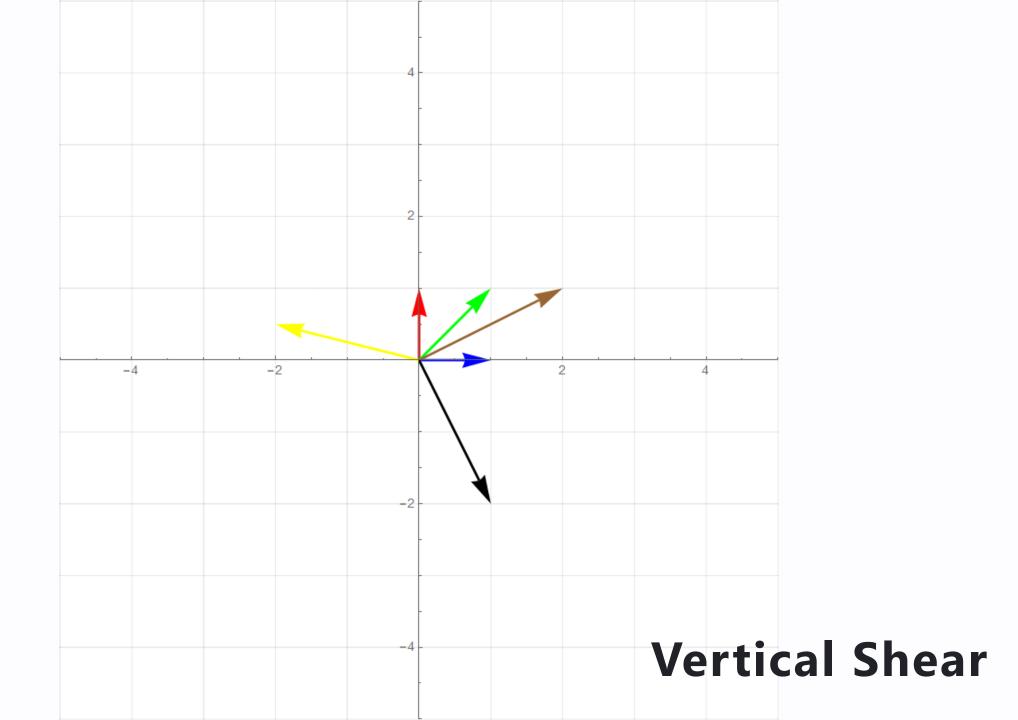




Vertical Shear

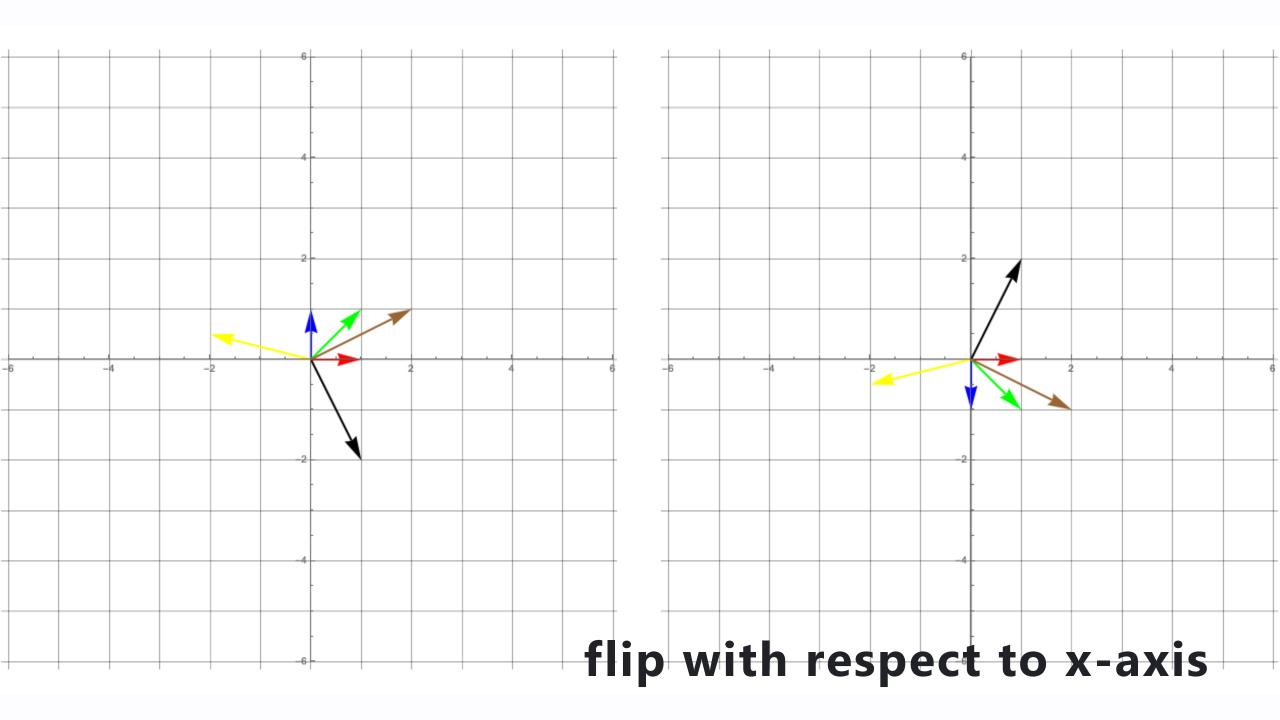
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

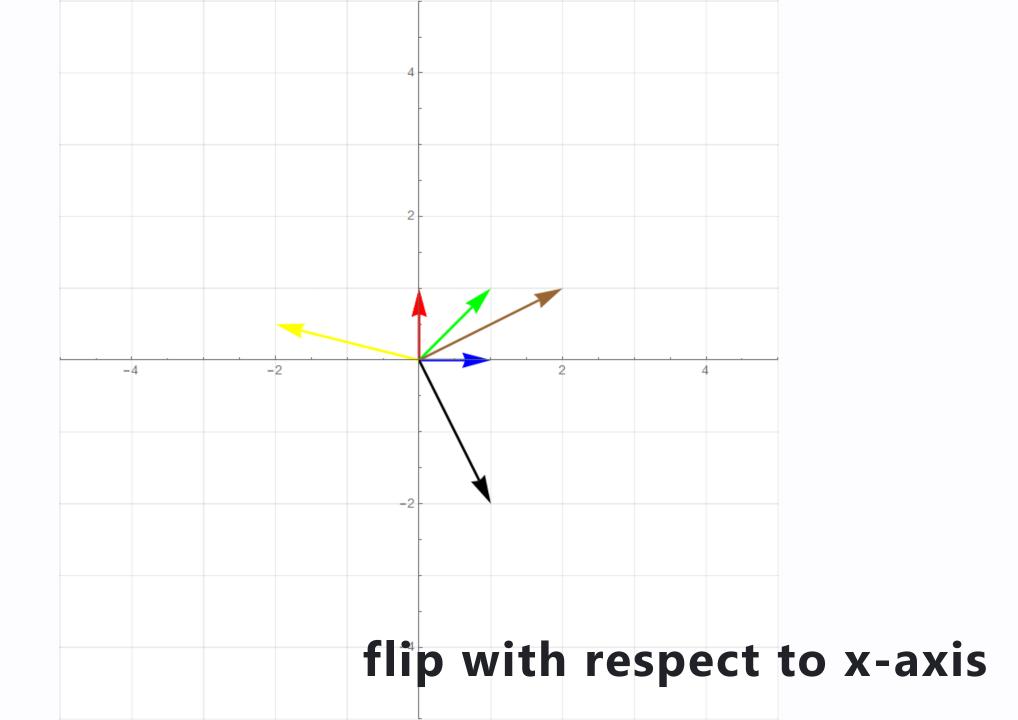




flip with respect to x-axis

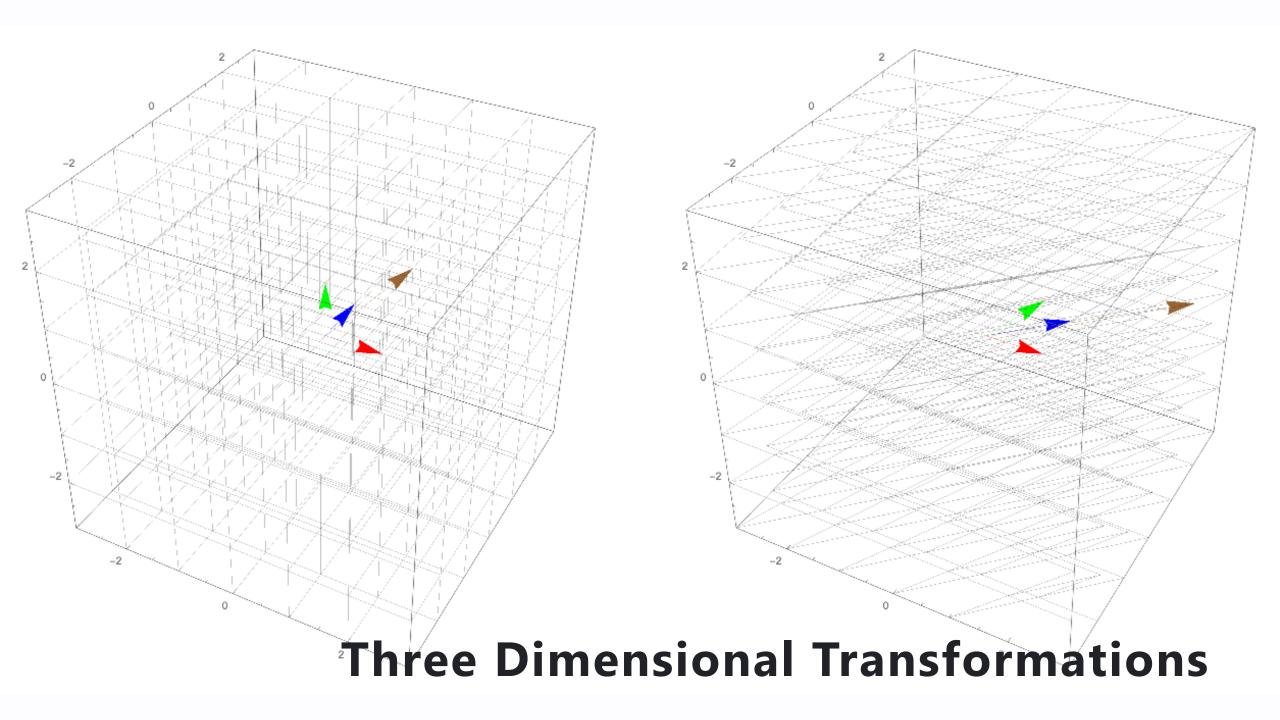
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



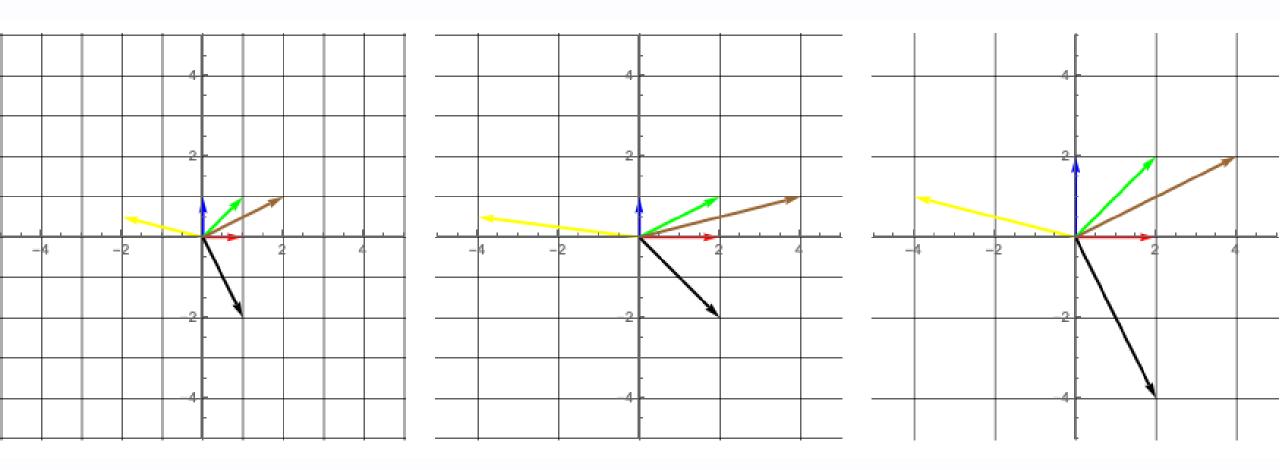


Three Dimensional Transformations

$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



- You can combine transformations by performing transformations in a sequence
- For example, you can combine a horizontal stretch with a vertical stretch which can be defined as a new transformation.



Composing transformations

Since you are applying one transformation after the other, the overall transformation can be defined as a **composition** of the horizontal stretch transformation inside a vertical stretch transformation.

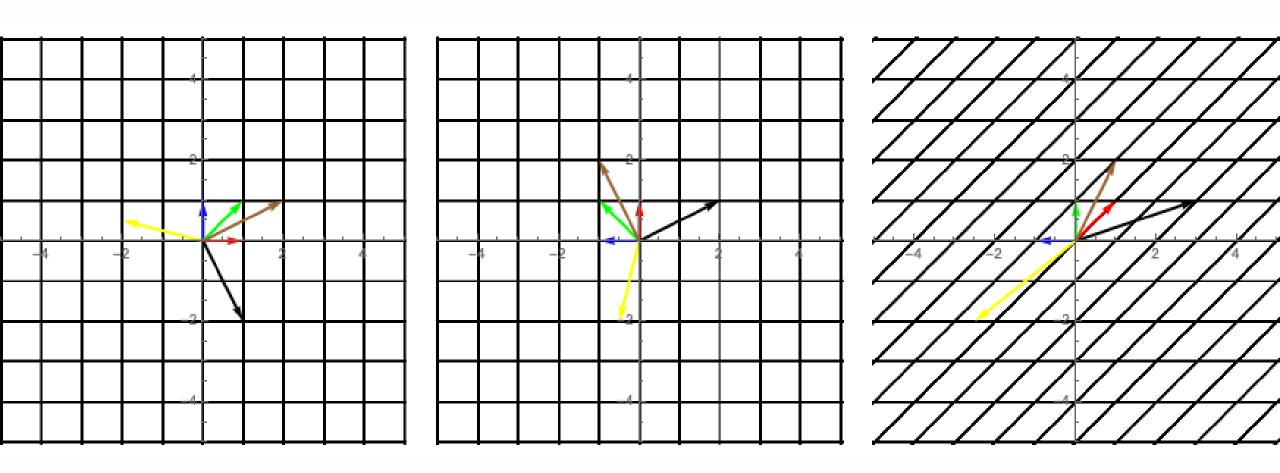
$$f(ec{v}) = egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} ec{v} \ g(ec{v}) = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} ec{v}$$

$$g(f(ec{v})) = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} ec{v}$$

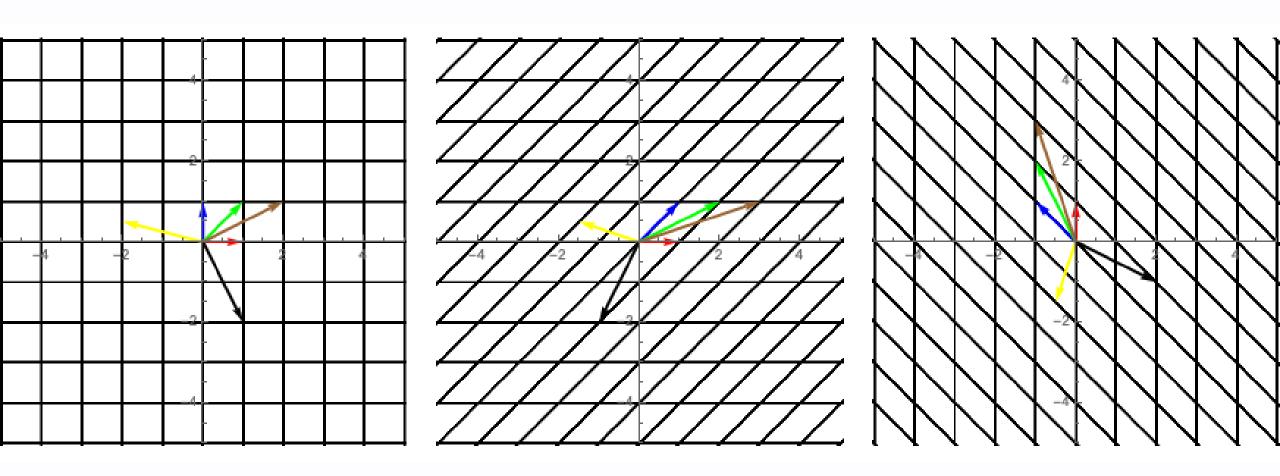
$$g(f(ec{v})) = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \left(egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} ec{v}
ight) = egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} ec{v}$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$egin{aligned} f(ec{v}) &= T_1 ec{v} \ g(ec{v}) &= T_2 ec{v} \ g(f(ec{v})) &= T_2 T_1 ec{v} \end{aligned}$$



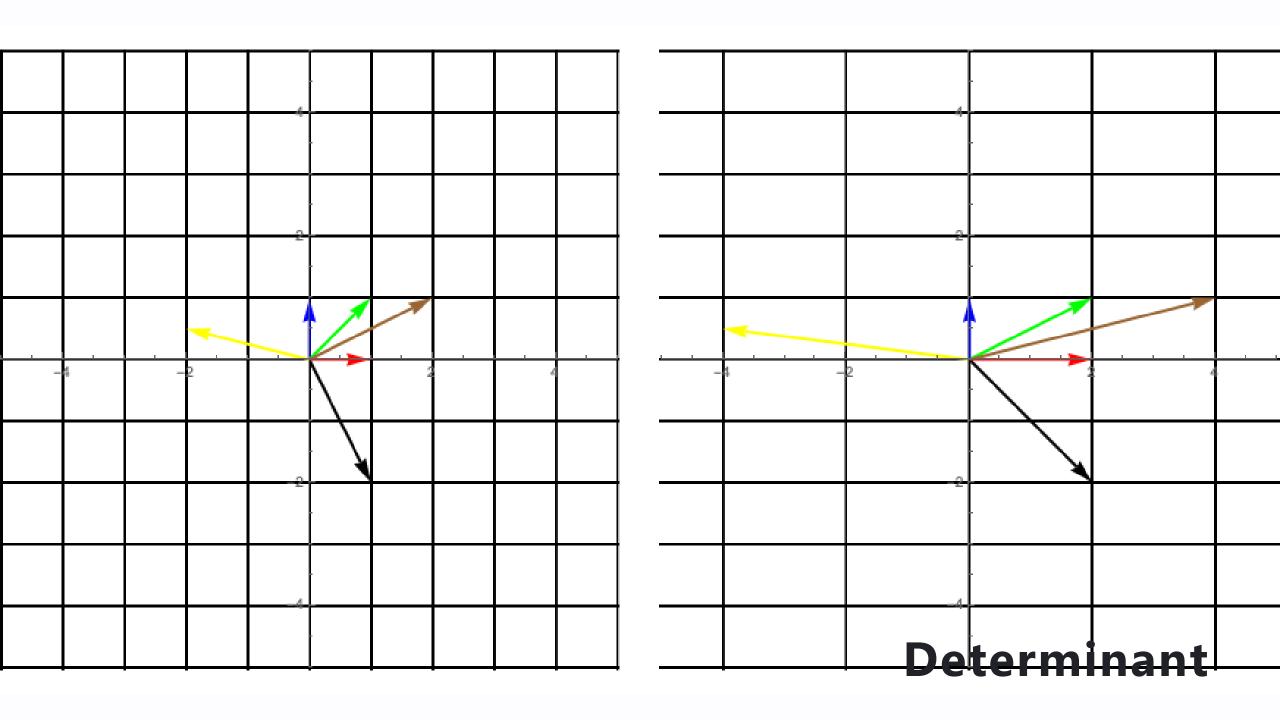
Composing transformations

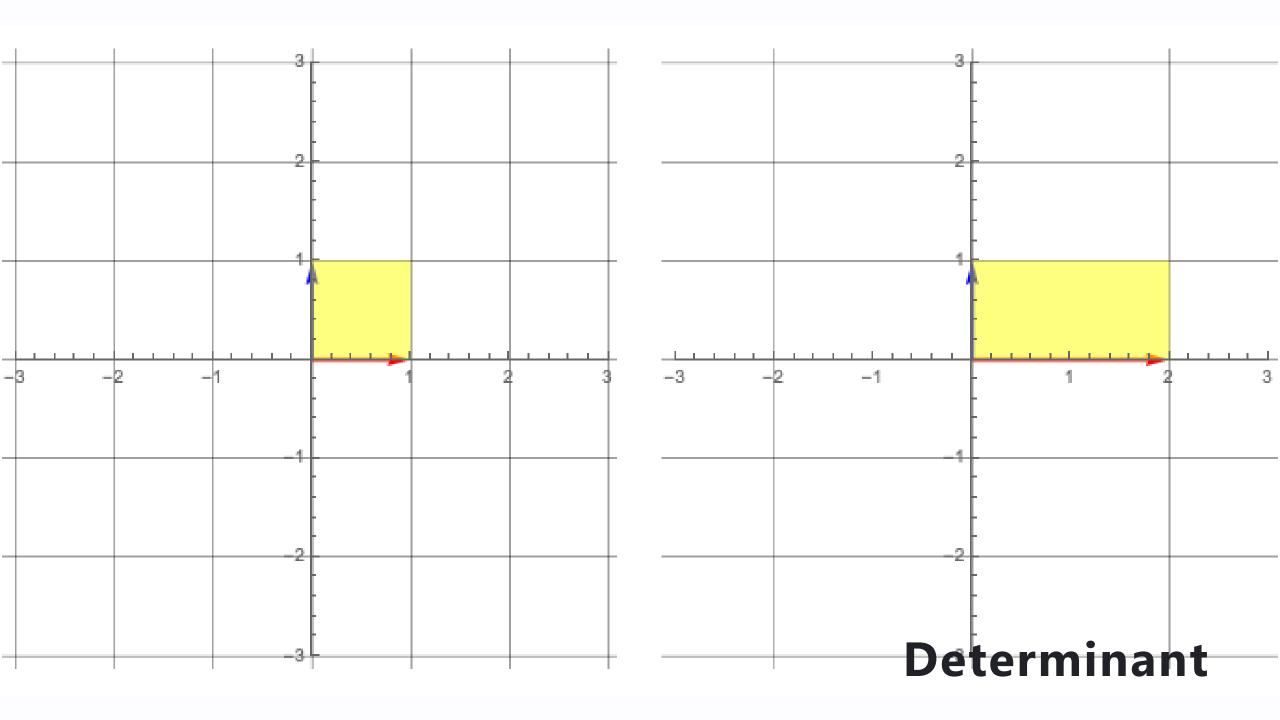


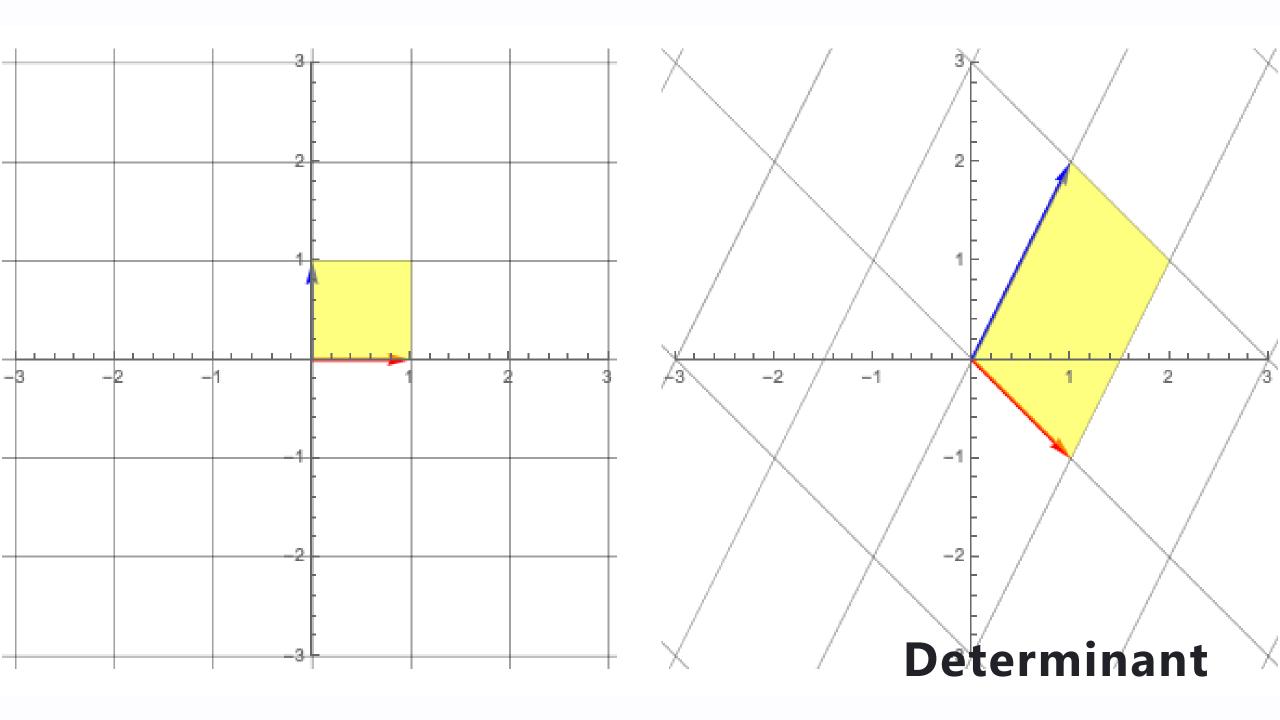
Composing transformations

One of the important things you can study about a given linear transformation is how it generally stretches or compresses the space

$$T = egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$







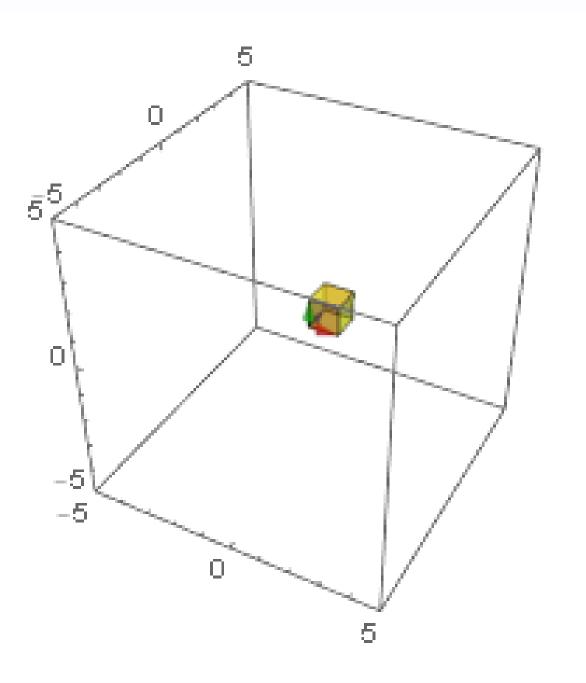
The factor stretching/compression of the entire space that occurs during a transformation has a special name called the **determinant** of a transformation

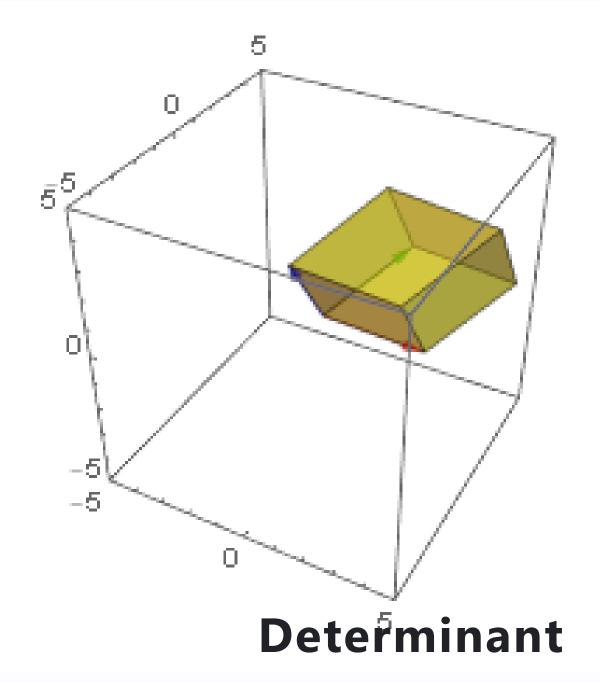
$$T = egin{bmatrix} a & b \ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

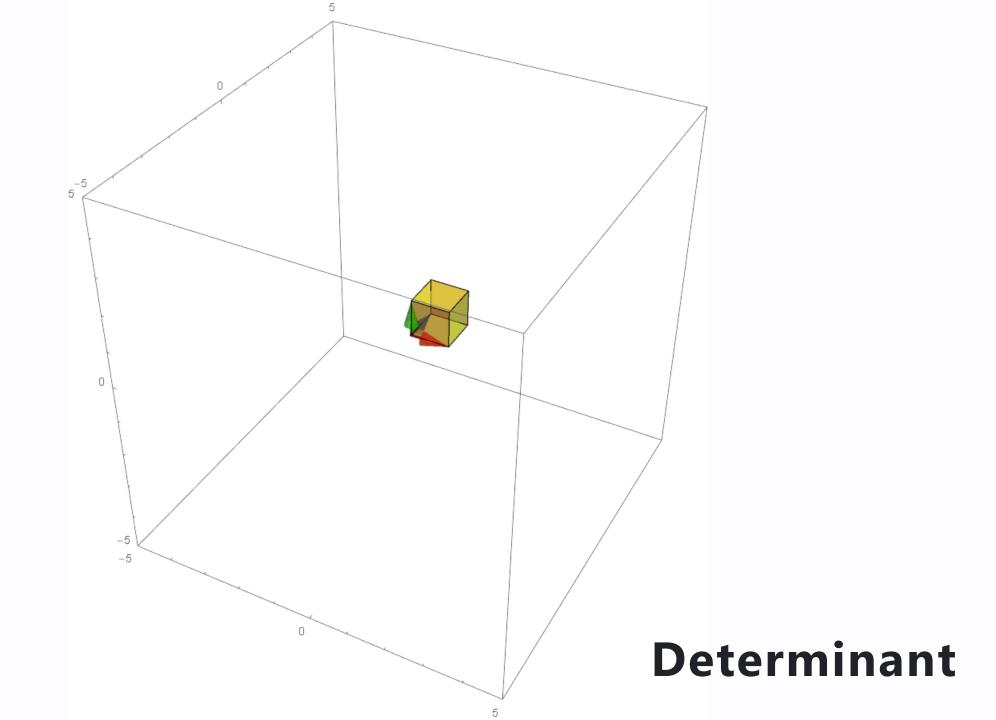
$$\det \left(egin{bmatrix} a & b \ c & d \end{bmatrix}
ight) = ad - bc$$

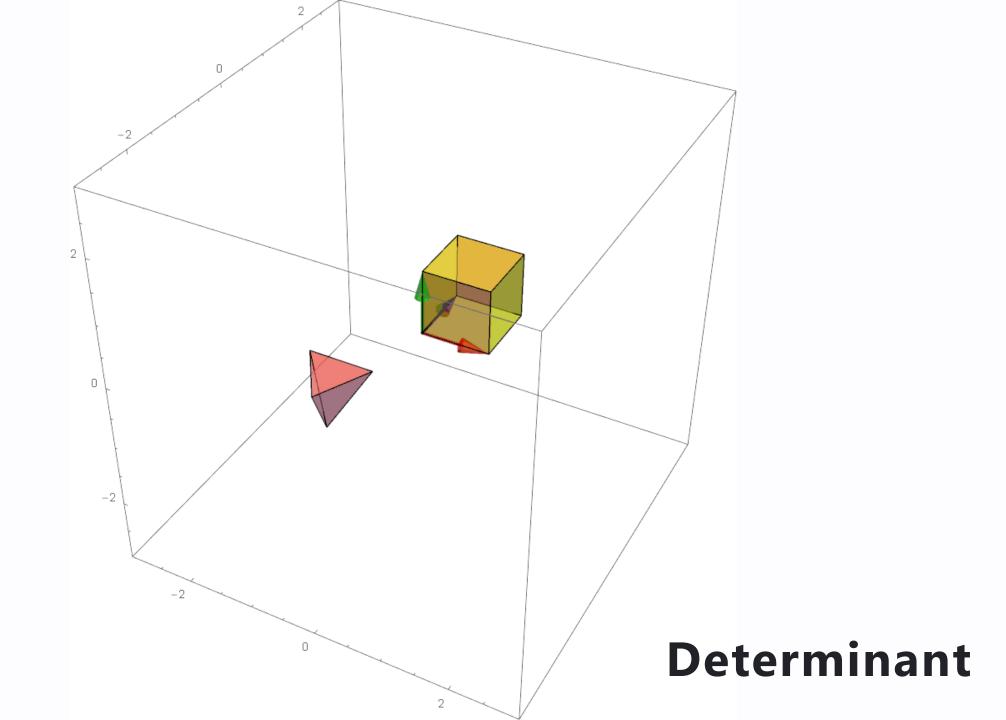
This formula can be derived by calculating the **area** of the resulting yellow parallelogram, which is the transformed version of the yellow square

The determinant of a 3 dimensional transformation is the factor of stretching/compression of the **volume** of the unit cube to the parallelepiped:



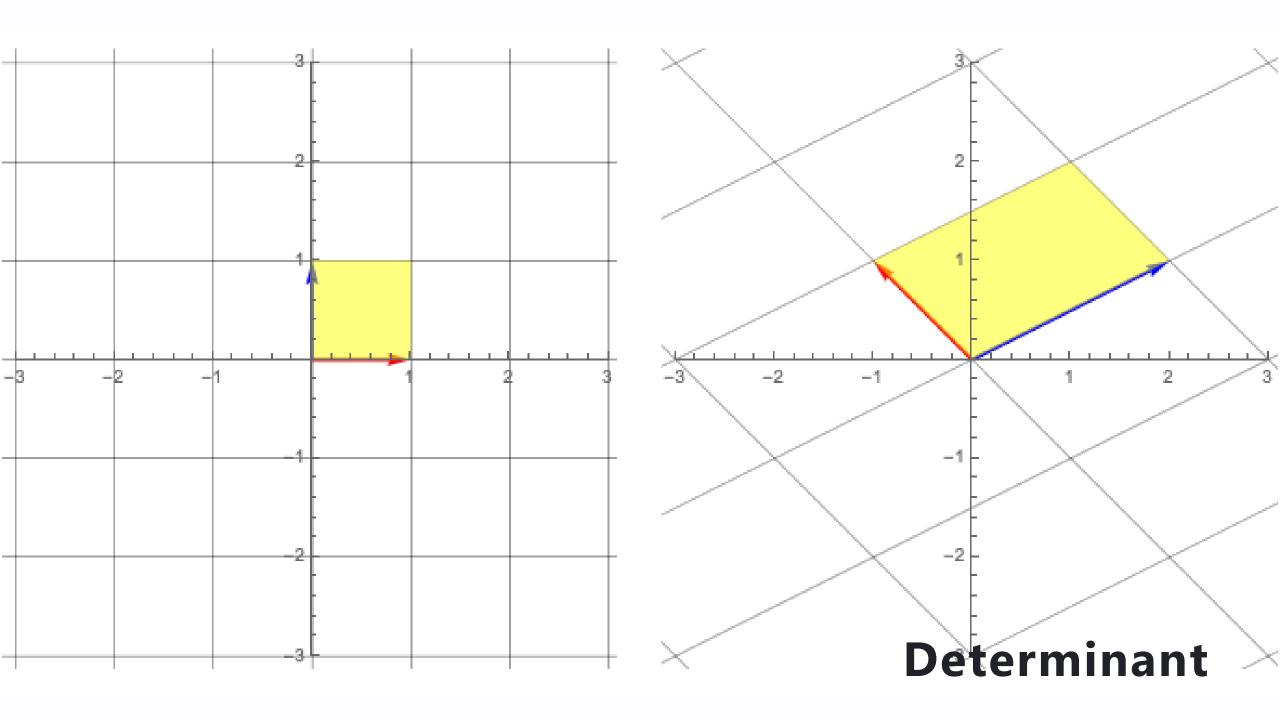






$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

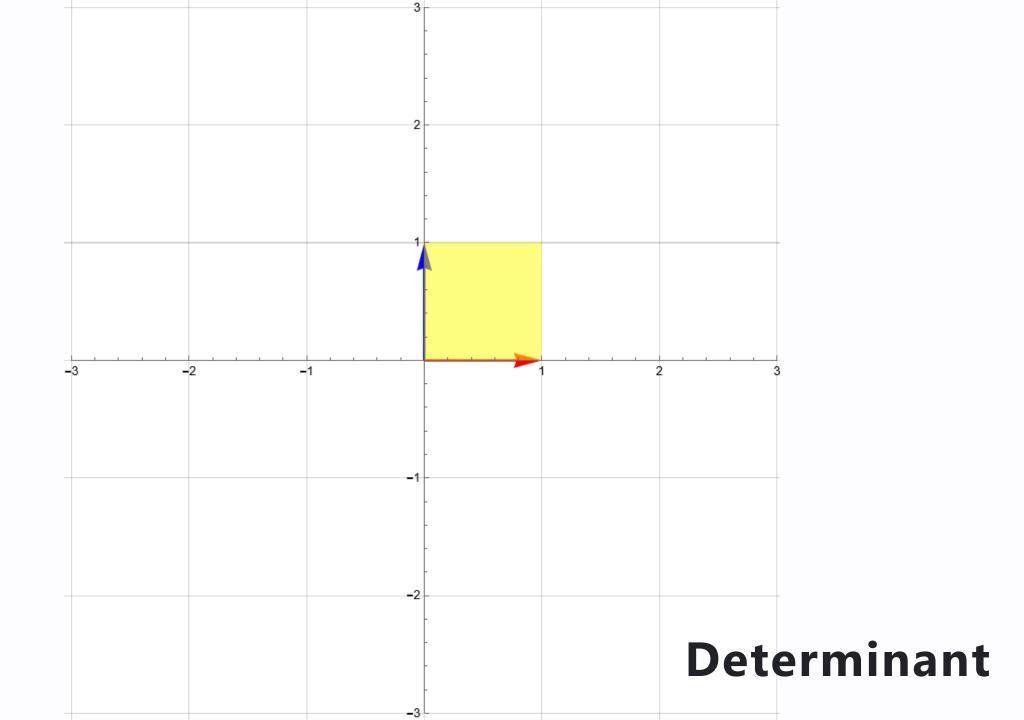
$$= a \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} - b \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + c \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$



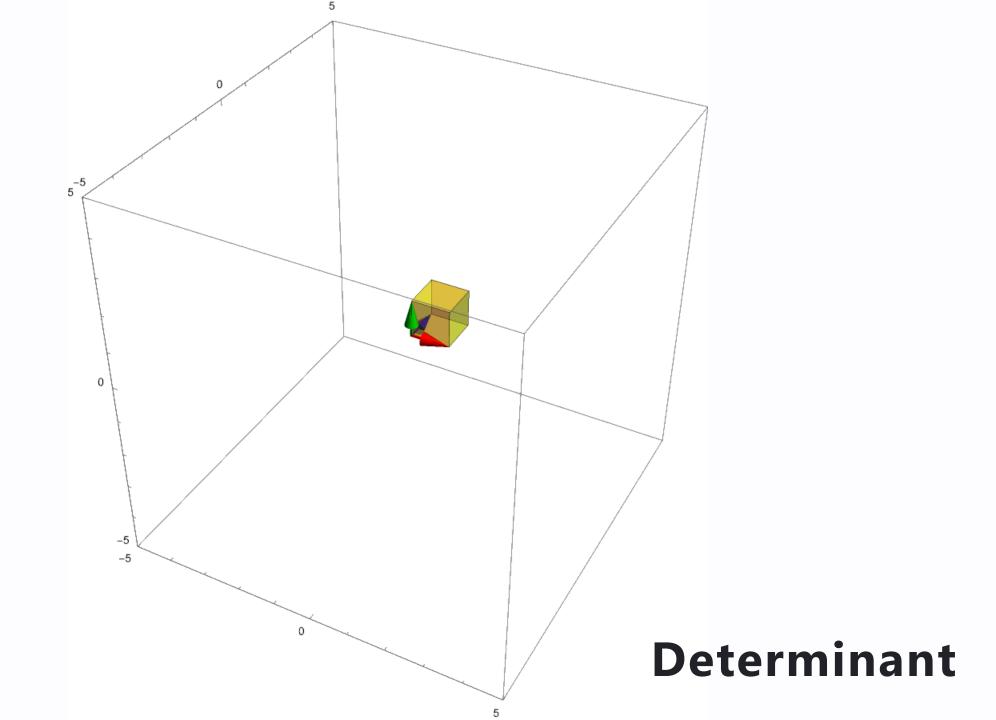
```
egin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
```

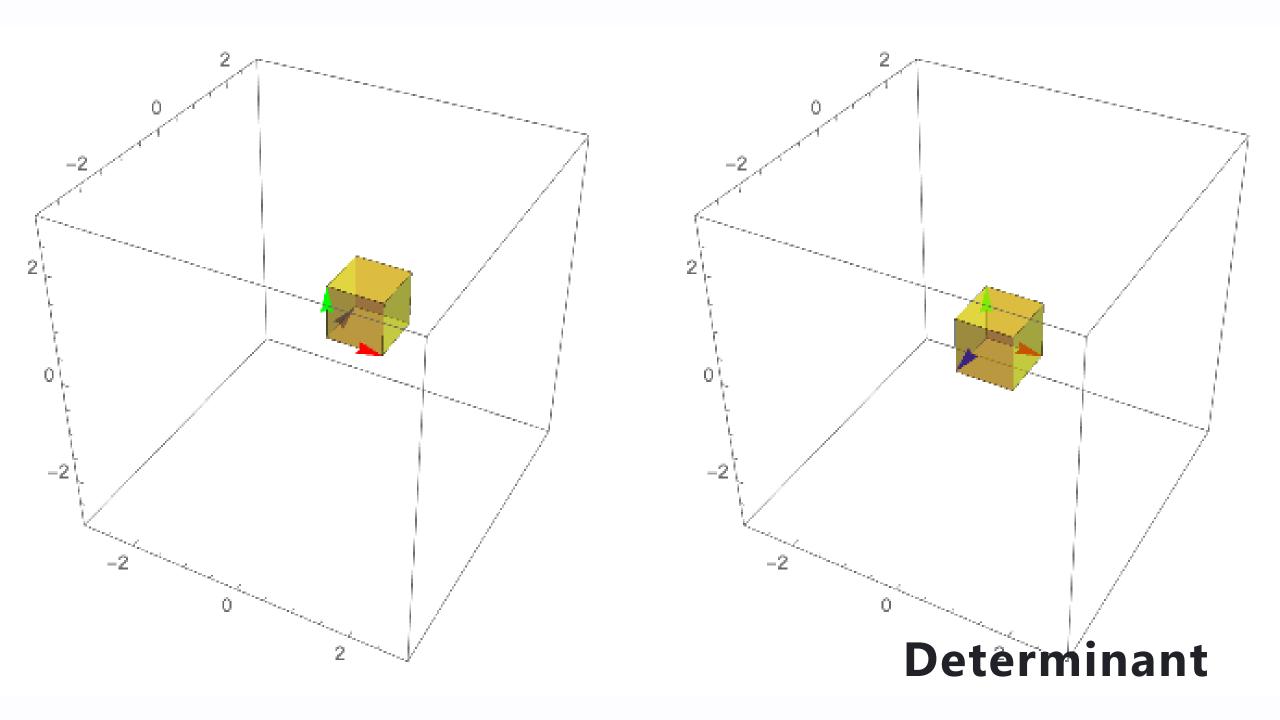
$$\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = -1(1) - 2(1) = -3$$

- ullet This means that the factor of stretching/compression for the transformation is -3
- The **sign** of the determinant has meaning
- If the determinant is negative it means that the space is compressed beyond 0 to the point that the space is flipped.



Flipping space in the 3 dimensions means that the basis vectors cannot follow **right hand rule**.





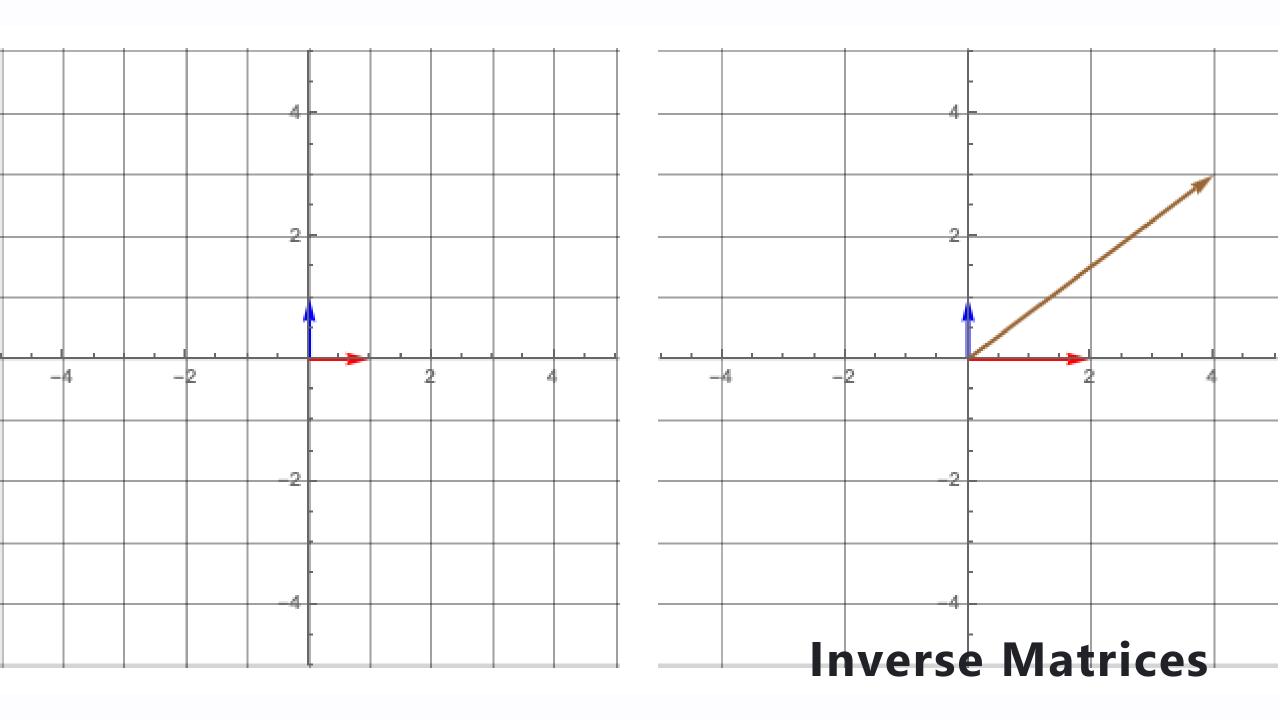
$$2x + 0y = 4$$
$$0x + y = 3$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 4 \ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

You can think of the **coefficients** for x and y as the numbers that make up the **transformation matrix**, T

$$T \vec{v} = \vec{v}'$$

To find the solutions of this system of linear equations, you need to look for the **original value** of \vec{v}' **before** the transformation



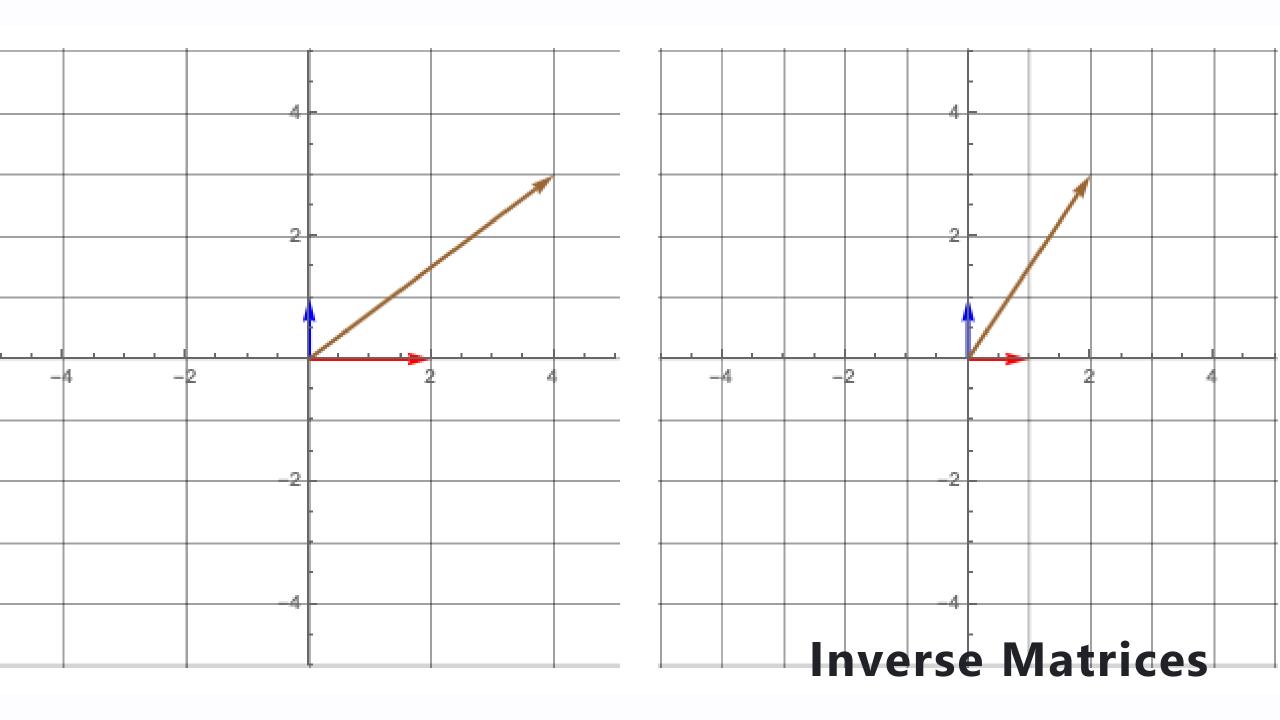
- To do this you need to make use of a special matrix related to the transformation matrix T, called the inverse matrix, T^{-1}
- ullet This matrix serves as the inverse of the transformation T such that, **combining** T **and** T^{-1} results to the original locations of the basis, or the identity matrix

$$T^{-1}T = I$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T^{-1}Tec{v}=T^{-1}ec{v}' \ ec{v}=T^{-1}ec{v}'$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 4 \ 3 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 3 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix}$$



$$egin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ -1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 1. You can change the values of a row by multiplying all of the numbers in the row by a constant
- 2. You can change rows by adding the elements of other rows to it.

$$egin{bmatrix} (3) & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ -1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & rac{2}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ -1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & (R_1
ightarrow rac{1}{3} R_1)$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & rac{2}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \ 0 & -2 & rac{4}{3} & -rac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 \ -1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & (R_2
ightarrow -R_1$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & rac{2}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \ 0 & -2 & rac{4}{3} & -rac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 3 & rac{8}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (R_3
ightarrow R_1 + R_3
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_4
ightarrow R_3
ightarrow R_4
ightarrow R_5
ightarrow R_$$

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & rac{2}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & -rac{2}{3} & rac{1}{6} & -rac{1}{2} & 0 \ 0 & 3 & rac{8}{3} & rac{1}{3} & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (R_2
ightarrow -rac{1}{2}R_2)$$

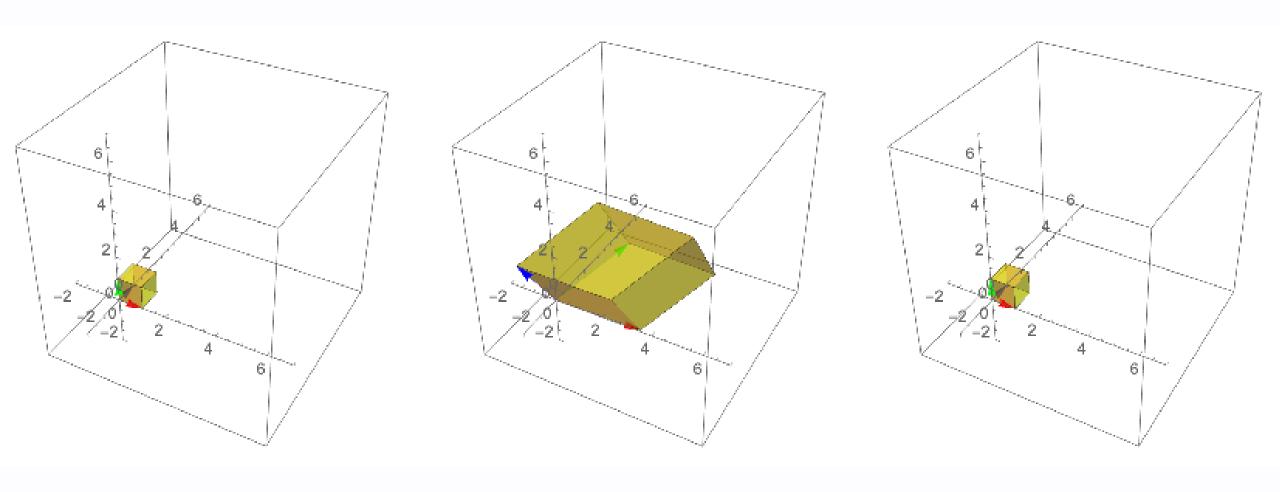
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{14}{3} & -\frac{1}{6} & \frac{3}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix} (R_3 \to -3)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{28} & \frac{9}{28} & \frac{3}{14} \end{bmatrix} \quad (R_3 \to \frac{3}{14}R)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{5}{14} & -\frac{3}{14} & -\frac{1}{7} \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{28} & \frac{9}{28} & \frac{3}{14} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (R₁

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{5}{14} & -\frac{3}{14} & -\frac{1}{7} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} & \frac{1}{7} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{28} & \frac{9}{28} & \frac{3}{14} \end{bmatrix} \quad (R_2 \to \frac{2}{3})$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{5}{14} & -\frac{3}{14} & -\frac{1}{7} \\ \frac{1}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} & \frac{1}{7} \\ -\frac{1}{28} & \frac{9}{28} & \frac{3}{14} \end{bmatrix}$$



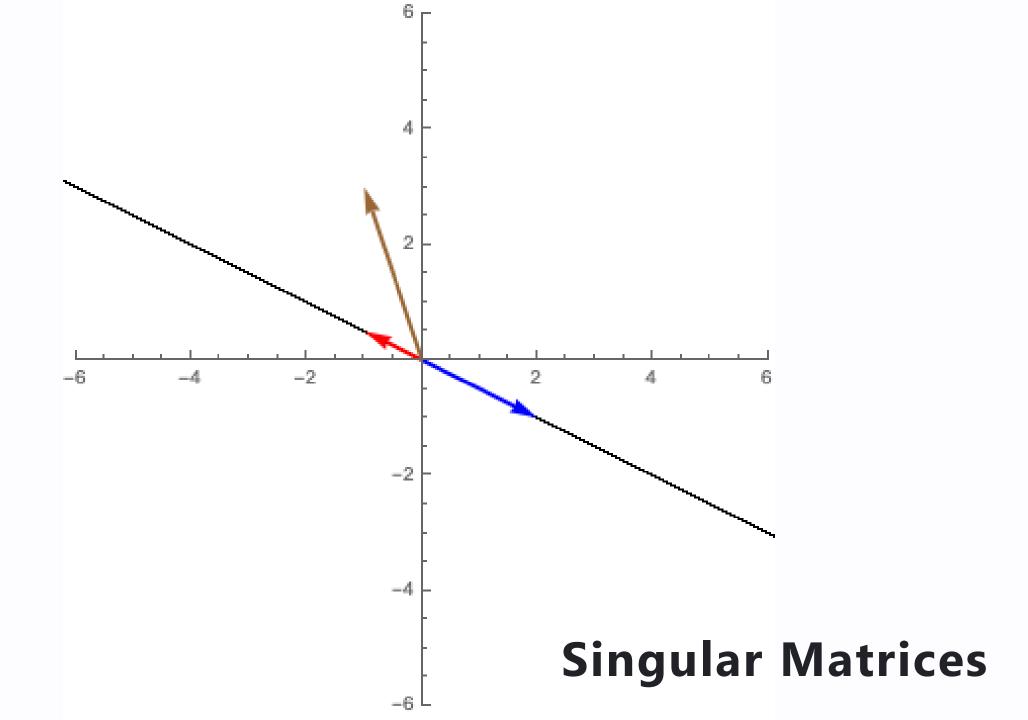
Finding the inverse matrix

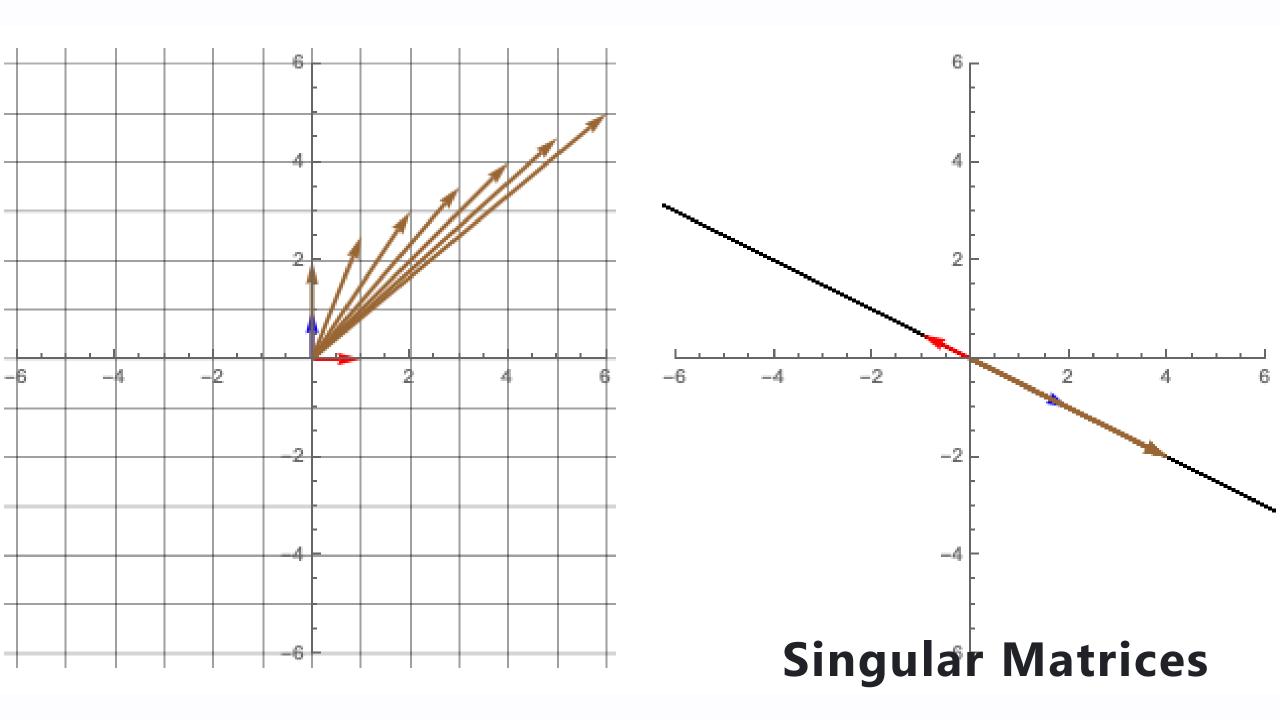
- 1. There is one solution
- 2. There are infinitely many solutions
- 3. There are no solutions

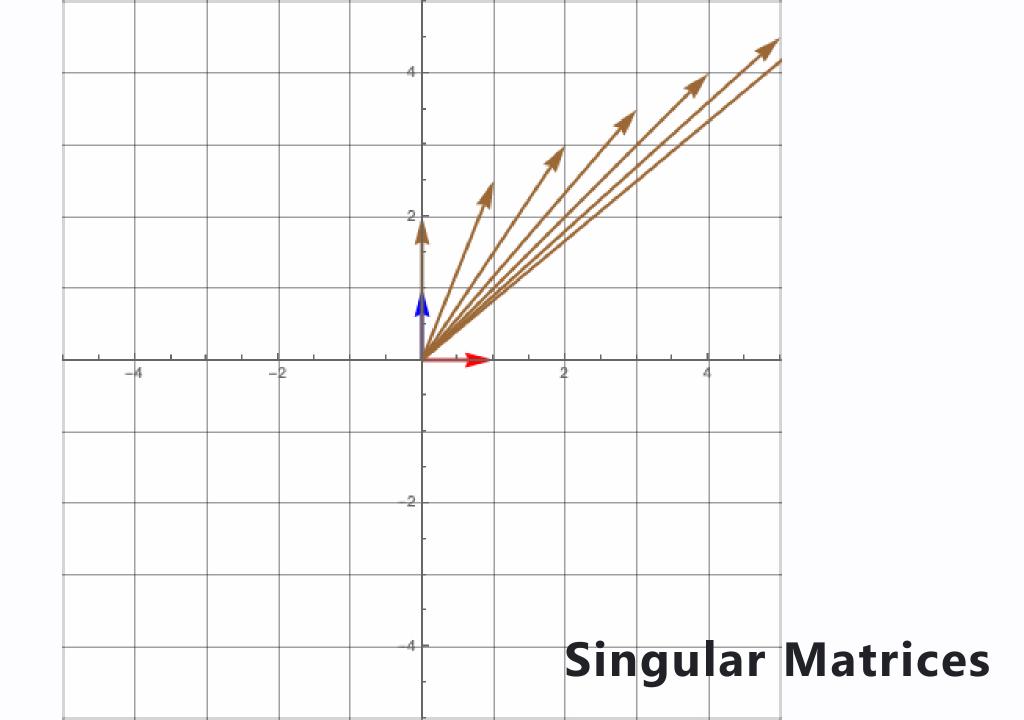
These happen when the span of the transformed basis vectors (also called **column space**) has reduced dimension

$$T = egin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \ 0.5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$egin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \ 0.5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} x \ y \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} -1 \ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$







We call non-invertible matrices such as the transformation above, **singular**.

Matrices in the Perspective of Linear Algebra

- The main thesis of this series of lectures should not just be on the definitions of matrices and their concepts
- The focus of this lecture is the essence of these concepts both numerically and visually

Matrices in the Perspective of Linear Algebra

- A **vector** an arbitrary member of some vector space, presented as an arrow from origin to a corresponding point in some n-dimensional space.
- An *n*-dimensional **square matrix** defines some linear transformation, its values correspond to the new location of the basis vectors after the transformation.

Matrices in the Perspective of Linear Algebra

- matrix multiplication composition of linear transformations. The product summarizes the linear transformations into one.
- **determinant** the factor of scaling of the vector space during a transformation
- matrix inverse the functional inverse of a matrix, reverses the transformation

Let's talk about a class of matrices we haven't talked about before, a **non-square matrix**:

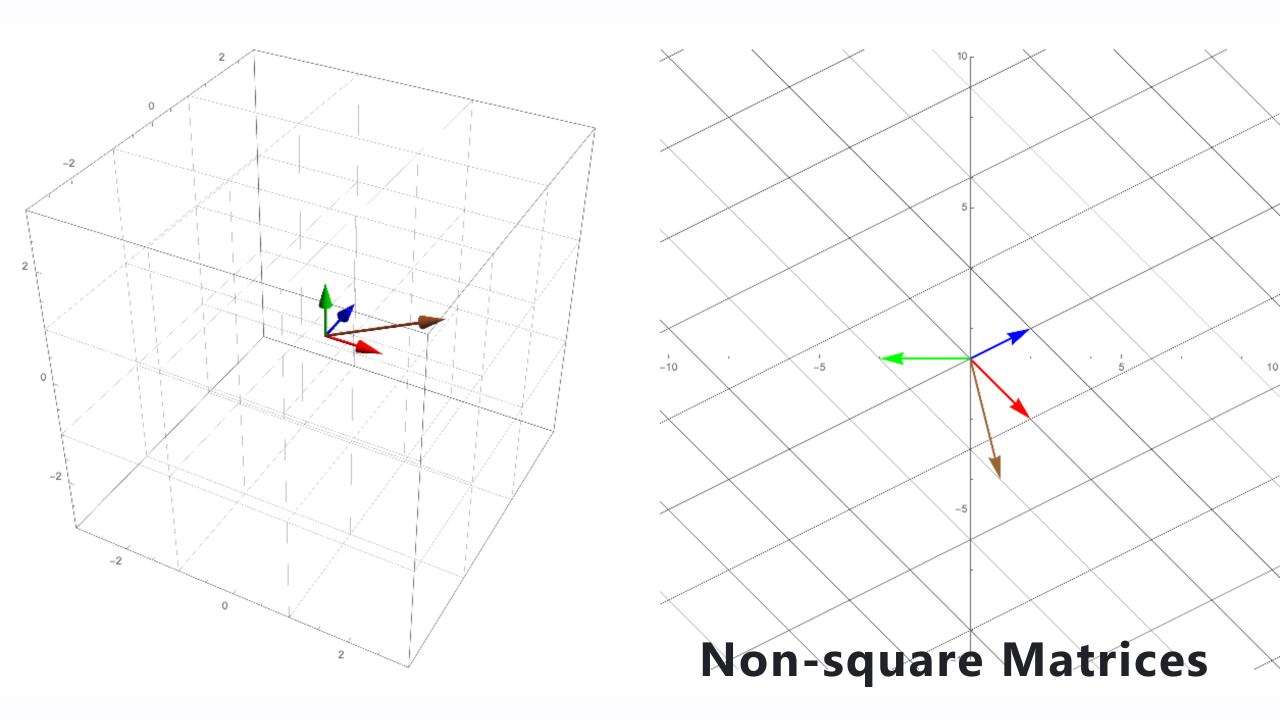
$$egin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -3 \ -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- But the closest related concept for these matrices are linear transformations
- If these are indeed linear transformations, these matrices are meant to be **multiplied** to other vectors to apply some transformation.

$$egin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -3 \ -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} ec{v} = ec{v}'$$

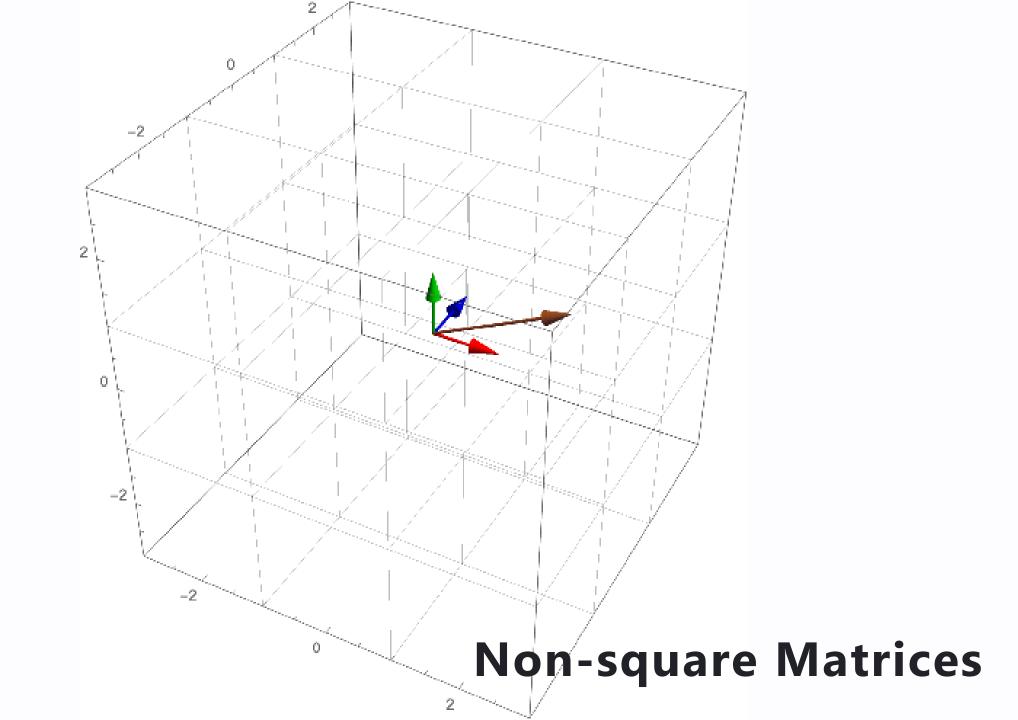
- ullet Since this is a 2 imes 3 matrix, you can only multiply these with vectors of size 3 imes 1
- ullet But the interesting thing about this transformation is that it produces a vector of size 2 imes 1.

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



It is also a linear transformation, but it is specifically a transformation that **changes** the number of dimensions of the vector space

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



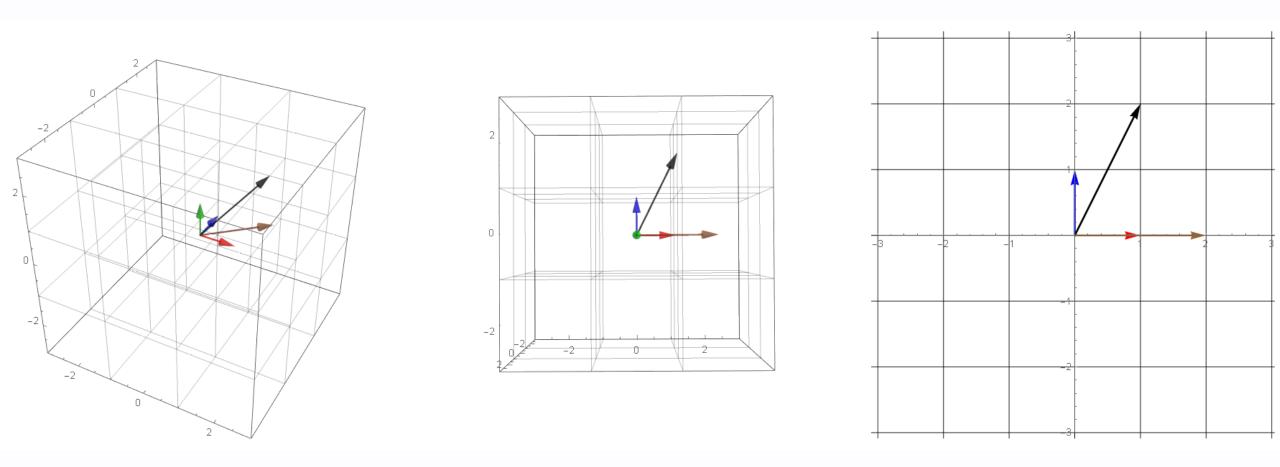
$$egin{bmatrix} 1 \ -4 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

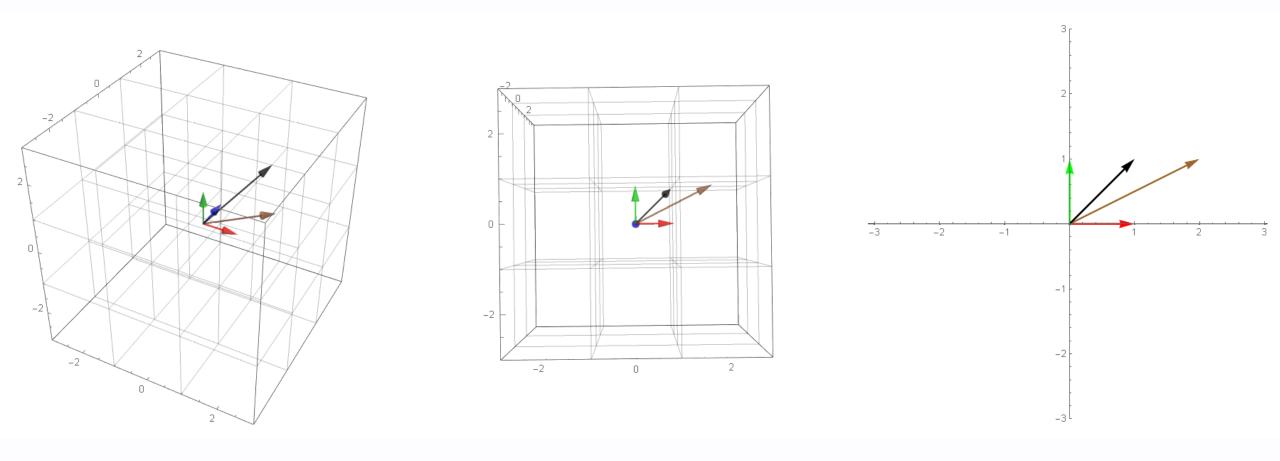
$$egin{bmatrix} 1 \ -4 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}
eq egin{bmatrix} 1 \ -4 \ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The transformation of any n-dimensional vector to less than n-dimensional space, is similar to producing the **projection** or shadow of the vector

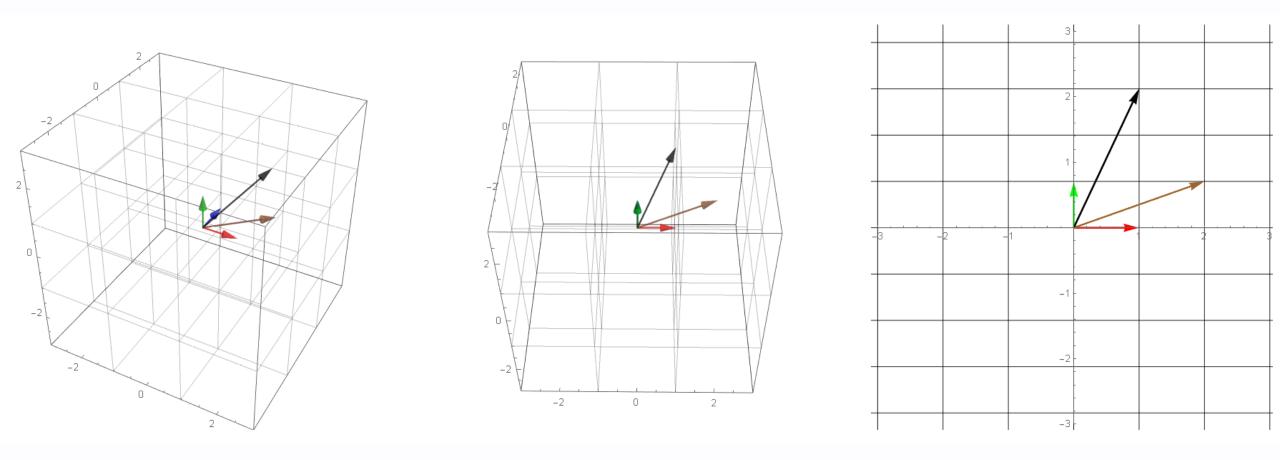
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



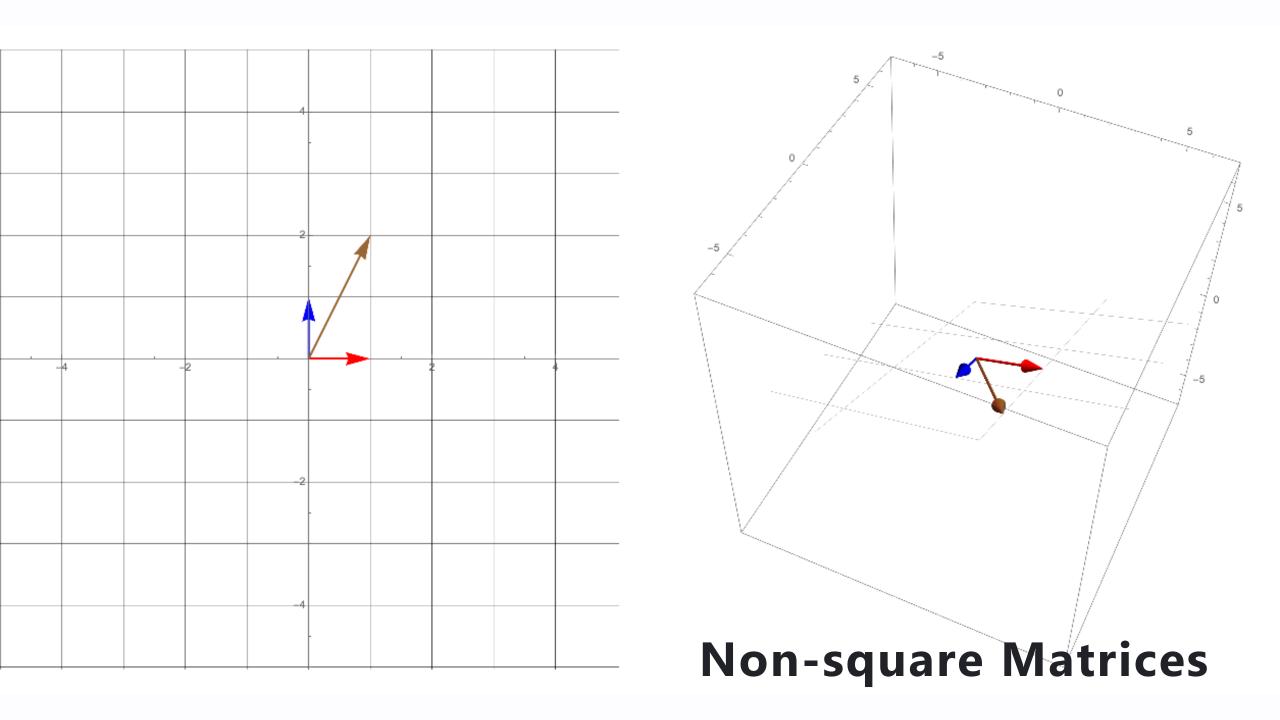
$$T = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$



Non-square Matrices

You can also transform a **2-dimensional** vector into a **3-dimensional vector**, to do this you need a 3×2 transformation matrix.

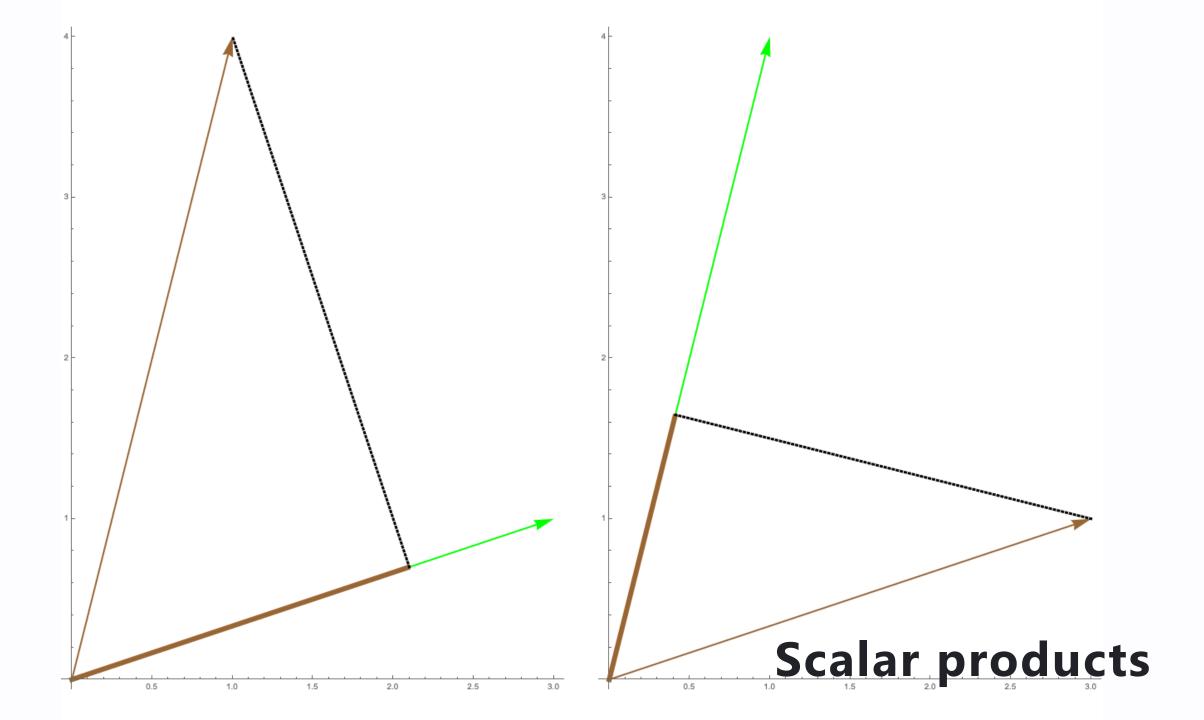
$$egin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \ -1 & -2 \ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 3 \ -5 \ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$



- the span that the basis vectors produce is still 2 dimensional
- This is because there is no way for the vectors to be transformed with extra dimensionality.

As a general rule, you can think of any $m \times n$ matrix as a transformation that transforms an n-dimensional vector into an m-dimensional vector.

The scalar product of \vec{a} and \vec{b} , denoted by $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$ is the product of the magnitude of \vec{a} and the magnitude of the projected version of \vec{b} onto \vec{a} .

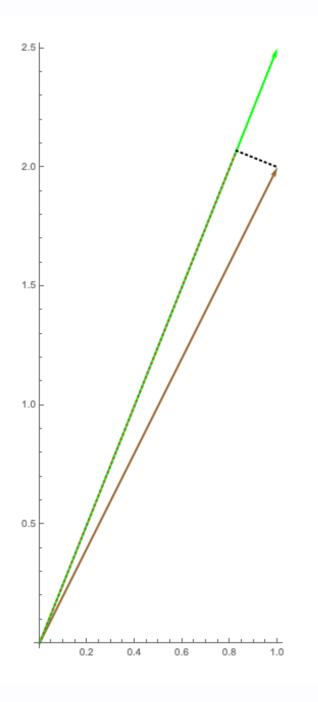


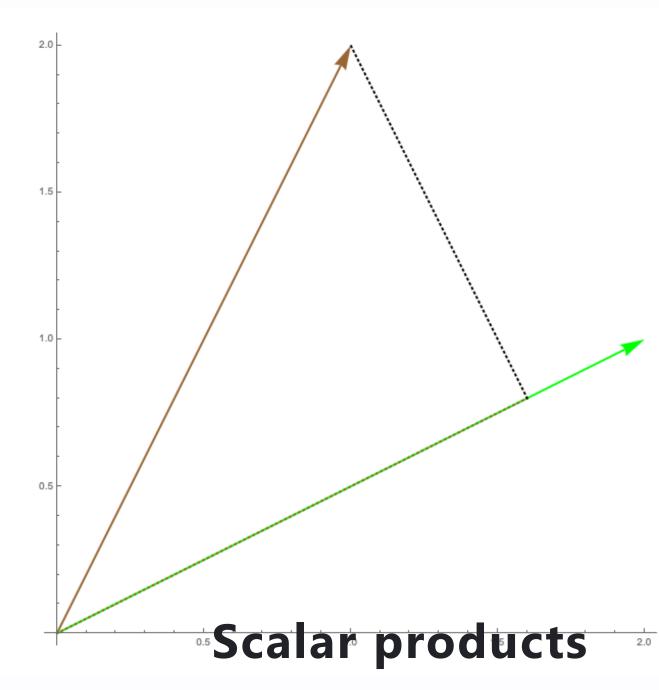
$$egin{bmatrix} a \ b \ \vdots \ c \end{bmatrix} \cdot egin{bmatrix} x \ y \ \vdots \ z \end{bmatrix} = ax + by + \cdots + cz$$

It is the measure of **similarity** between two vectors, For example, given three vectors,

$$ec{a} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \end{bmatrix}, ec{b} = egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}, ec{c} = egin{bmatrix} 2 \ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is \vec{a} more similar to \vec{b} or to \vec{c} ?

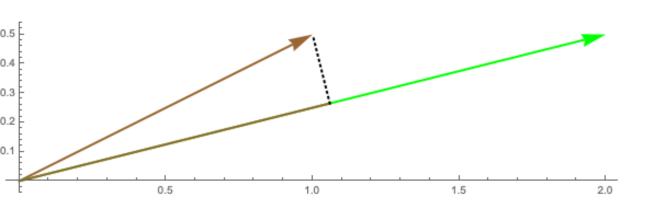


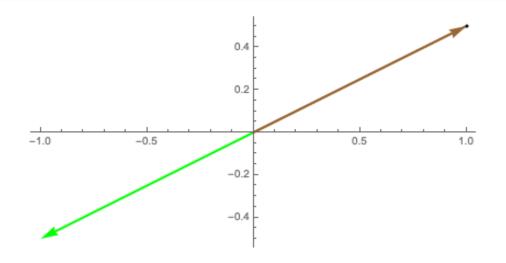


$$\vec{a}\cdot\vec{b}=6$$

$$ec{a}\cdotec{c}=4$$

This means that two vectors perpendicular to each other will have a scalar product of **zero** and two vectors pointing in the opposite direction will have a **negative** scalar product:





How does the scalar product relate to **linear transformations**?

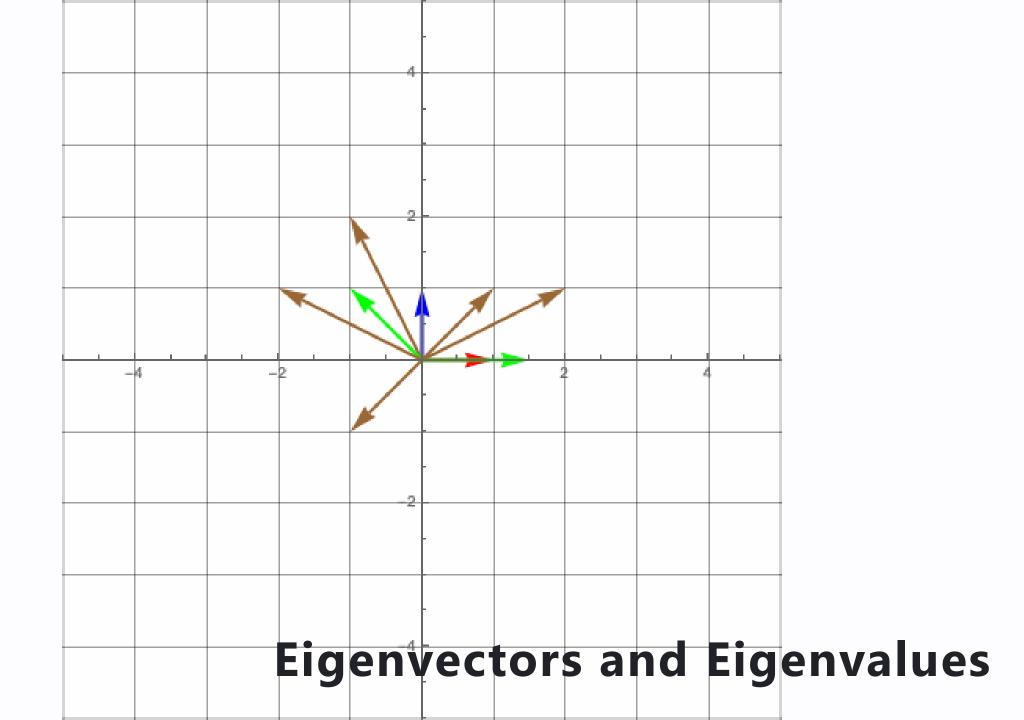
And it turns out, a scalar product is merely a transformation of any vector to **one-dimensional space**:

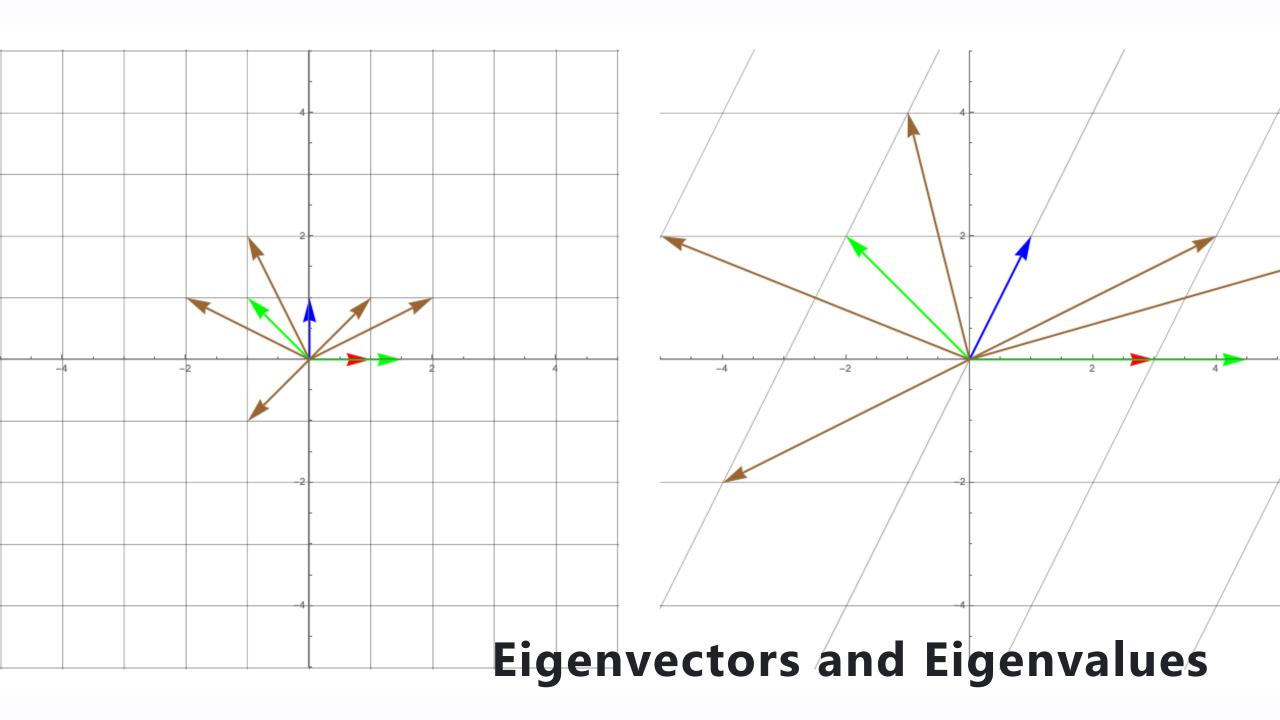
$$egin{bmatrix} u_x \ u_y \end{bmatrix} \cdot egin{bmatrix} a \ b \end{bmatrix} = u_x a + u_y b$$

$$egin{bmatrix} [u_x & u_y] egin{bmatrix} a \ b \end{bmatrix} = u_x a + u_y b \ \end{bmatrix}$$

When looking at, the scalar product of two $n \times 1$ vectors, you can imagine that one vector is **reduced** into the **one dimensional vector space**

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

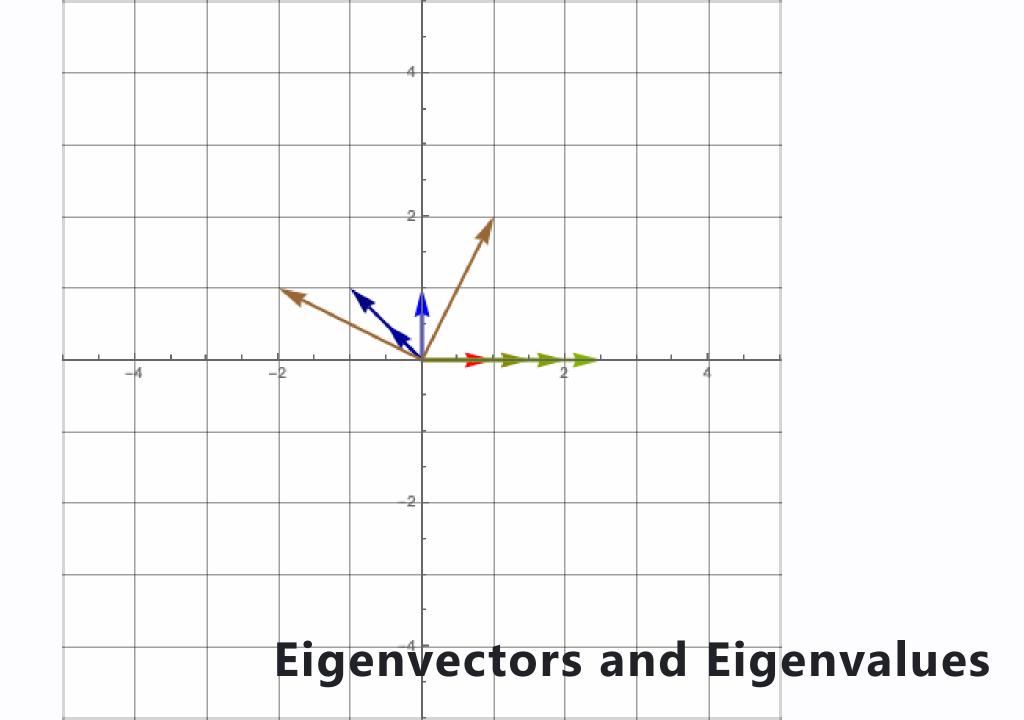


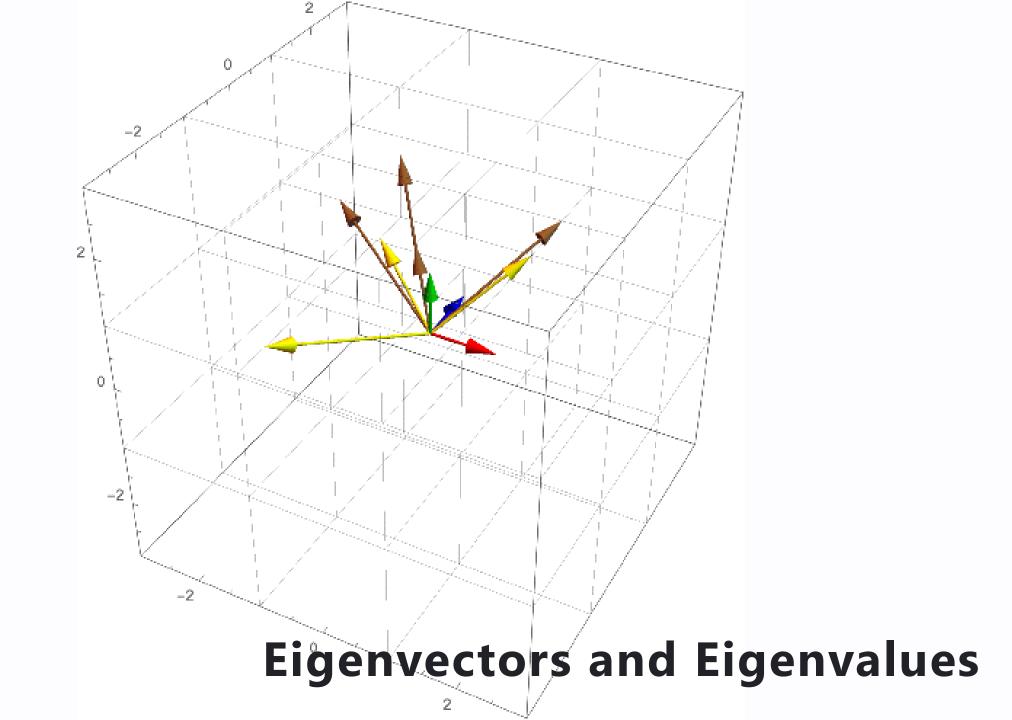


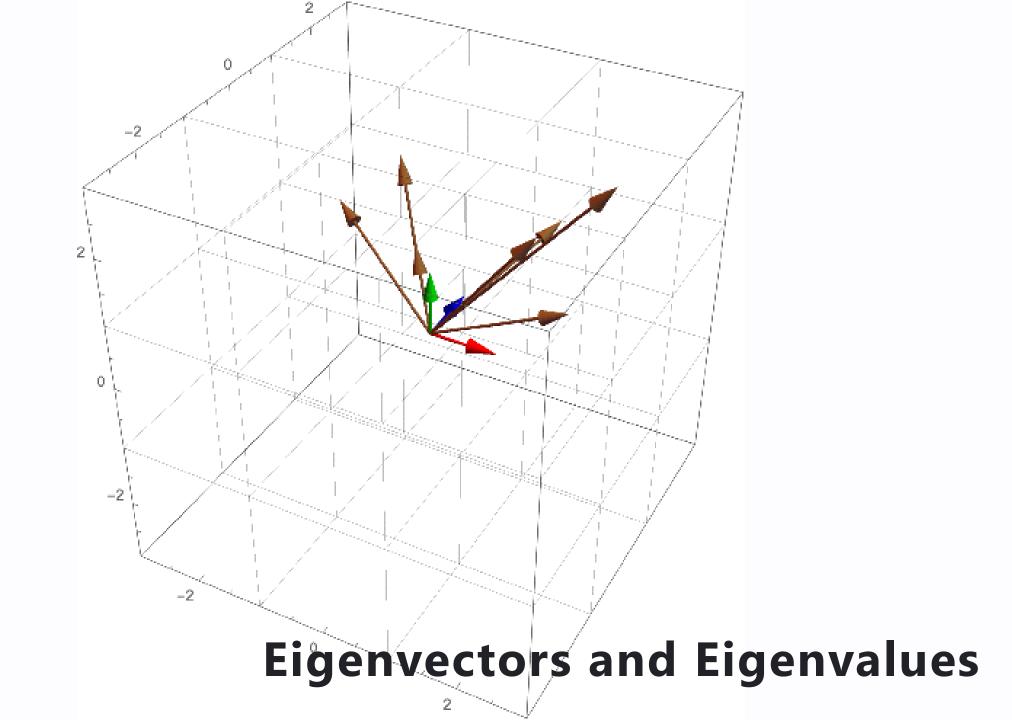
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4.5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- These special vectors are called eigenvectors
- Each eigenvector is always accompanied by special scalar values called **eigenvalues**, which correspond to the factor of scaling for the transformation.

In fact all the vectors along the span of the green vectors are eigenvectors as well.







- Since eigenvectors are vectors that are **only** scaled as a result of the transformation, we can solve for \vec{e} in the following equality
- ullet The scalar value λ refers to the unknown eigenvalue.

$$T\vec{e} = \lambda \vec{e}$$

- Scalar times vector multiplication $\lambda \vec{e}$ can be written as a **linear transformation** instead
- ullet multiplying λI to $ec{e}$

```
egin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & \cdots & 0 \ 0 & \lambda & \cdots & 0 \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda \end{bmatrix} ec{e}
```

To solve for the unknowns, we can rewrite $T\vec{e}=\lambda\vec{e}$ into a solution from zero:

$$Tec{e}=\lambda Iec{e}$$
 $Tec{e}-\lambda Iec{e}=ec{0}$ $(T-\lambda I)ec{e}=ec{0}$

- If you recall, a non-zero vector can only be transformed to zero if and only if the whole vector space has been squished to zero itself
- And this can only happen when the **determinant** of transformation is **zero**.

$$\det(T-\lambda I) = \det(egin{bmatrix} t_{11}-\lambda & t_{12} & \cdots & t_{1n} \ t_{21} & t_{22}-\lambda & \cdots & t_{2n} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ t_{n1} & t_{n2} & \cdots & t_{nn}-\lambda \end{bmatrix}) = 0$$

This means that we can find the eigenvalues of any transformation by finding the **lambdas** that reduces the determinant to 0

$$\det (\begin{bmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ c & d - \lambda \end{bmatrix}) = 0$$
 $(a - \lambda)(d - \lambda) - bc = 0$

$$\det(egin{bmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 1 \ 0 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}) = 0$$
 $(3 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) - (1)(0) = 0$
 $(3 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) = 0$

$$\lambda = 2$$
 $\lambda = 3$

$$egin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} ec{e} = 2ec{e} \ egin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \ 0 & 2 \end{matrix} ec{e} = 3ec{e} \ \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvectors for
$$\lambda=2$$
 $3x+y=2x$ $2y=2y$ $x+y=0$ $x=-y$

Eigenvectors for
$$\lambda=3$$
 $3x+y=3x$ $2y=3y$ $y=0$ $\begin{bmatrix} v \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

As you can see, the solutions for \vec{e} is infinitely many, any vector of the form $\begin{bmatrix} u \\ -u \end{bmatrix}$ and any vector of the form $\begin{bmatrix} v \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.