

Linear Algebra With Computer Science Applications - Exam
 Notes



Exam 1 Notes

 ${\bf Inner\ Product:\ Calculates\ the\ overlap\ between\ two\ vectors}$

$$a^T b = ||a|| ||b|| \cos(\theta).$$

When $\theta = \pi/2$ the vectors are perpendicular and when $\theta = 0$ the vectors are parallel.

Taylor Series: Approximates a differentiable function to a polynomial at a given point of the original function

$$\mathbb{T}(x,a) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(x-a)^n}{n!}$$
$$\hat{f}(x) = f(x,z) + \nabla f(z)^T (x-z)$$
$$\nabla f(x,z) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(z) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(z) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Affine Function: Inner product with an additional scalar value

$$f(x) = a^T x + b.$$

Linear Functions: Linear functions are of the form

Superposition:
$$f(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y)$$

Homogeneity: $f(\alpha x) = \alpha f(x)$
Additivity: $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$.

Superposition is a combination of homogeneity and additivity.

Linear Regression: Models the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables, aiming to estimate coefficients that minimize the error between predicted and observed values

$$\hat{y} = x^T \beta + v$$

where x are the regressors, \hat{y} is the prediction, β is an n-vector and v is a scalar.

Norm Of Vector: Measurement of how large a vector or a collection or vectors are

$$||x|| = x^T x = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$
$$||x + y|| = \sqrt{||x||^2 + 2x^T y + ||y||^2}$$
$$||(a, b, c)|| = \sqrt{||a||^2 + ||b||^2 + ||c||^2}.$$

Triangle Inequality: The norm of a sum of two vectors is no more than the sum of their norms

$$||x + y|| < ||x|| + ||y||.$$

Root Mean Square (RMS): Typical value of $||x_i||$

$$\mathbf{rms}(x) = \frac{\|x\|}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Chebyshev Inequality: Provides an upper bound on the probability that a random variable deviates from its mean by a certain multiple of its standard deviation

$$\frac{k}{n} \le \left(\frac{\mathbf{rms}(x)}{a}\right)^2$$

where k is the number of entries in x with absolute value of at least a.

Distance: Calculates the Euclidean distance between two vectors

$$\mathbf{dist}(a,b) = \|a - b\|.$$

Average: Calculates the average value of a vector

$$\mathbf{avg}(x) = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}.$$

Nearest Neighbor: The vector that is the closest vector to another given vector

$$||x - z_j|| \le ||x - z_i||, i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Standard Deviation: A measure of the dispersion of the values within the vector

$$\mathbf{std}(x) = \frac{\|x - (\mathbf{1}^T x/n)\|}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

J-Clust: J_C is a method of quantifying how good a clustering of data points is for a given cluster

$$J_C = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{N} \min(\|x_i - z_j\|^2)$$

where z_i is calculated by

$$z_j = \frac{1}{|G_j|} \sum_{i \in G_j}^n x_i.$$

K-Means Algorithm: The k-means algorithm clusters data for a given data set into k clusters.

- 1. Partition the vectors into k groups: For each vector i = 1, ..., N, assign x_i to the group associated with the nearest representative
- 2. Update representatives: For each group j = 1, ..., k, set z_j to be the mean of the vectors in group j.

Linear Independence: Linear independence and dependence can be summarized with

$$\beta_1 a_1 + \dots + \beta_k a_k = 0$$

where for a collection of vectors to be linearly independent or dependent one of the following statements must be true.

- 1. Linearly Independent: All values of β must be zero.
- 2. Linearly Dependent: There exists at least one β that is non zero.

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Exam 2 Notes

Matrix Types: Matrix sizes are defined in terms of their rows (m) by columns (n):

- Square Matrix: m = n.
- Tall Matrix: m > n.
- Wide Matrix: m < n.

2D Rotation Matrix: The 2D rotation matrix is:

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

3D Rotation Matrices: The 3D rotation matrices are:

$$R_x(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & 0 & \sin(\theta) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & 0 & \sin(\theta) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Incidence Matrix: An incidence matrix is of the form:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The rows and columns of an incidence matrix represent:

- Columns: Represent the edges of the graph.
- Rows: Represent the vertices of the graph.

The values of the elements indicate:

- 1: Edge j points to node i.
- -1: Edge j points from node i.
- 0: Otherwise.

Dirichlet Energy: Measures the potential differences across edges:

$$\mathcal{D}(v) = ||A^T||^2 = \sum_{(k,l) \in \text{Edges}} (v_l - v_k)^2$$

Matrix Multiplication: Matrix multiplication is performed by:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

The main properties of matrix multiplication are:

- Associativity: (AB)C = A(BC)
- Scalar Multiplication: $\gamma(AB) = (\gamma A)B$
- Distributivity:

$$-A(B+C) = AB + AC$$
$$-(A+B)C = AC + BC$$

• Transpose Product: $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

Some Matrix Representations: Some matrix representations are:

• Column Interpretation:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} Ab_1 & Ab_2 & \dots & Ab_n \end{bmatrix}$$

• Row Interpretation:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (B^T a_1)^T \\ (B^T a_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ (B^T a_m)^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Gram Matrix:

$$G = A^T A$$

QR Factorization:

$$A = QR$$

Matrix Inverses: The rules for if a matrix is invert-

- Matrix must be square.
- The columns are linearly independent.
- The rows are linearly independent.
- The matrix has a left inverse.
- The matrix has a right inverse.

For a 2×2 matrix the inverse is:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

For a 3×3 matrix the inverse is:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{23} & a_{21} \\ a_{33} & a_{31} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a_{13} & a_{12} \\ a_{33} & a_{32} \\ a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a_{13} & a_{12} \\ a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{21} \\ a_{32} & a_{21} \\ a_{32} & a_{31} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{13} & a_{11} \\ a_{23} & a_{21} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

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