

Linear Algebra Primer

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Outline

- [Vectors and matrices](#)
 - Basic Matrix Operations
 - Determinants, norms, trace
 - Special Matrices
- [Transformation Matrices](#)
 - Homogeneous coordinates
 - Translation
- [Matrix inverse](#)
- [Matrix rank](#)
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- Matrix Calculus

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Vectors and matrices are just collections of ordered numbers that represent something: movements in space, scaling factors, pixel brightness, etc. We'll define some common uses and standard operations on them.

Vector

- A column vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ where

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

- A row vector $\mathbf{v}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ where

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

T denotes the transpose operation

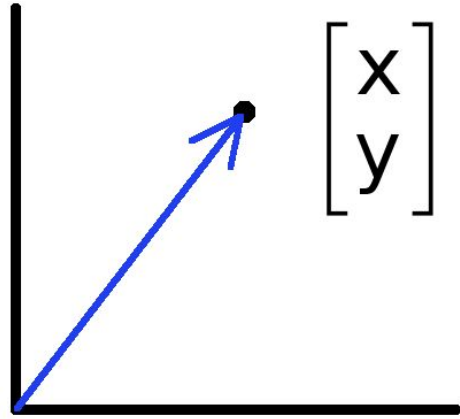
Vector

- We'll default to column vectors in this class

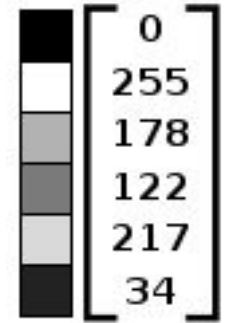
$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- You'll want to keep track of the orientation of your vectors when programming in python
- You can transpose a vector V in python by writing $\mathbf{V.t}$. (But in class materials, we will **always** use V^T to indicate transpose, and we will use V' to mean "V prime")

Vectors have two main uses



- Vectors can represent an offset in 2D or 3D space.
- Points are just vectors from the origin.
- Data (pixels, gradients at an image keypoint, etc) can also be treated as a vector.
- Such vectors don't have a geometric interpretation, but calculations like "distance" can still have value.



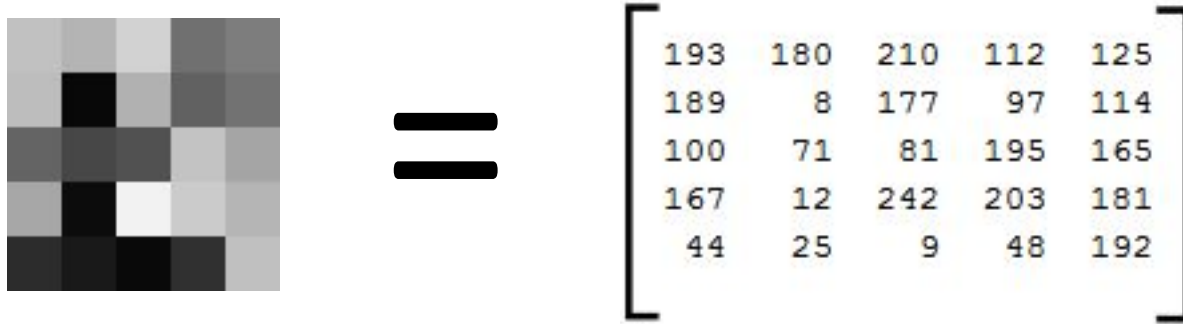
Matrix

- A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is an array of numbers with size m by n , i.e. m rows and n columns.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

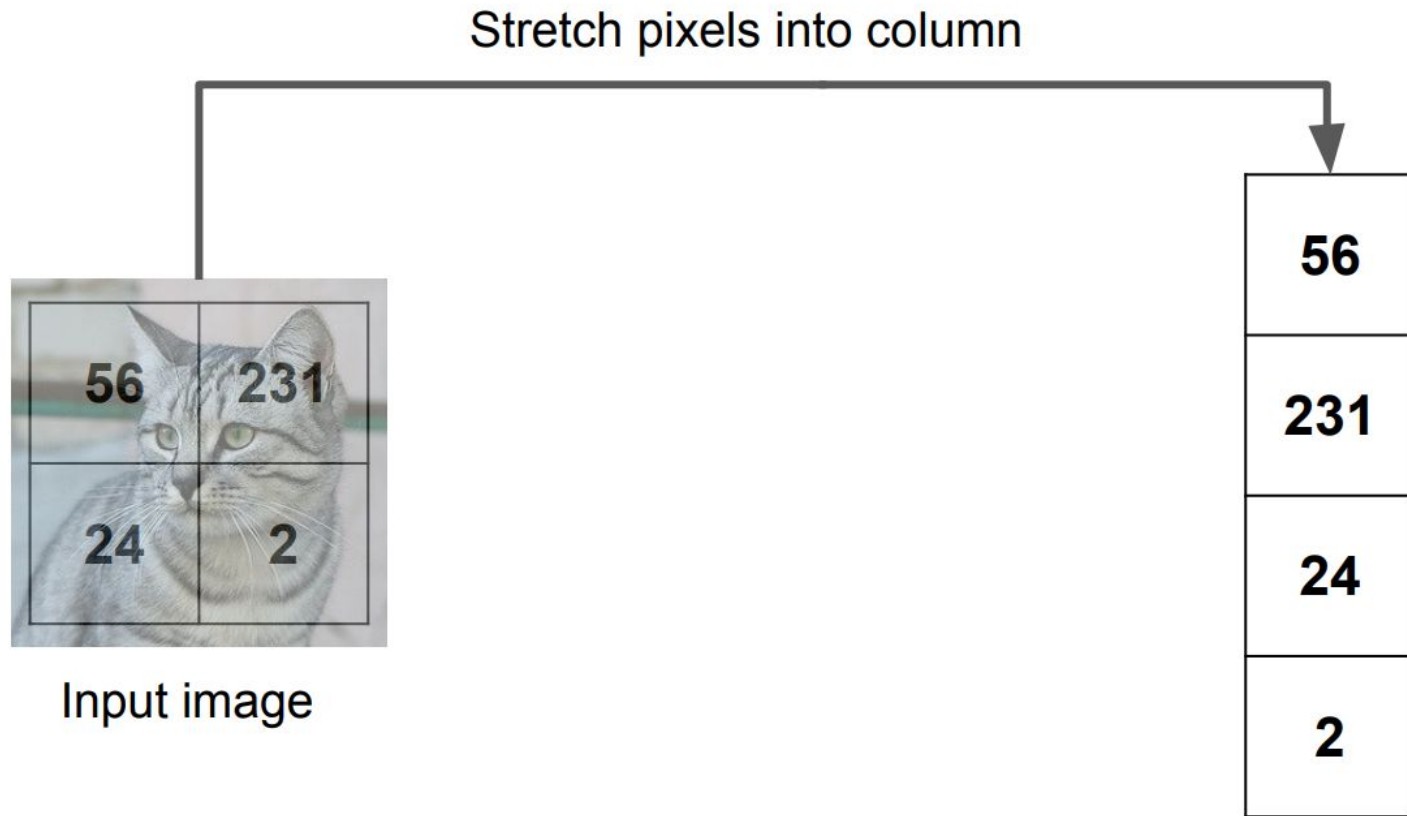
- If $m = n$, we say that \mathbf{A} is square.

Images



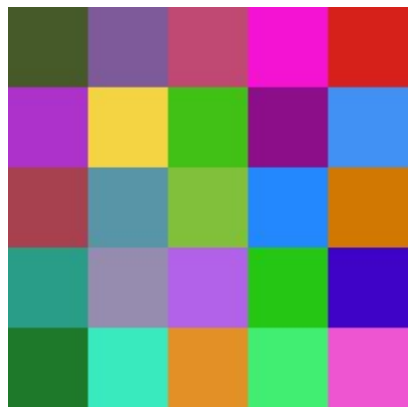
- Python represents an image as a matrix of pixel brightnesses
- Note that the upper left corner is $[y,x] = (0,0)$

Images as both a **matrix** as well as a **vector**

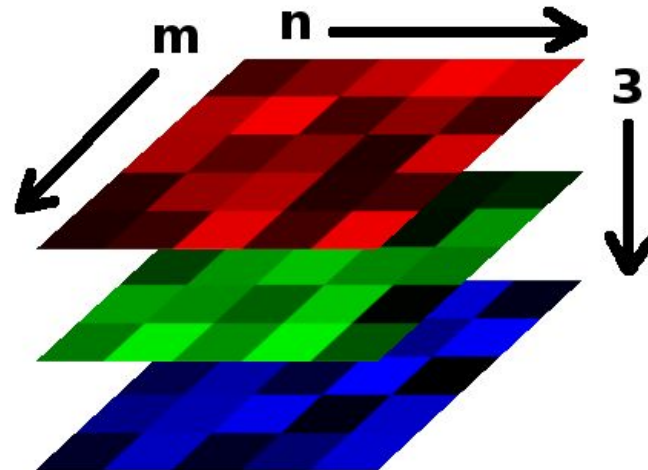


Color Images

- Grayscale images have one number per pixel, and are stored as an $m \times n$ matrix.
- Color images have 3 numbers per pixel – red, green, and blue brightnesses (RGB)
- Stored as an $m \times n \times 3$ matrix



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Basic Matrix Operations

- We will discuss:
 - Addition
 - Scaling
 - Dot product
 - Multiplication
 - Transpose
 - Inverse / pseudoinverse
 - Determinant / trace

Matrix Operations

- Addition

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a + 1 & b + 2 \\ c + 3 & d + 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Can only add a matrix with matching dimensions, or a scalar.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + 7 = \begin{bmatrix} a + 7 & b + 7 \\ c + 7 & d + 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scaling

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \times 3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3a & 3b \\ 3c & 3d \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors

• **Norm** $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}.$

- More formally, a norm is any function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies 4 properties:
- **Non-negativity:** For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) \geq 0$
- **Definiteness:** $f(x) = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$.
- **Homogeneity:** For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(tx) = |t| f(x)$
- **Triangle inequality:** For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x + y) \leq f(x) + f(y)$

Norms

- **Example Norms**

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|.$$

- General ℓ_p norms:

$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

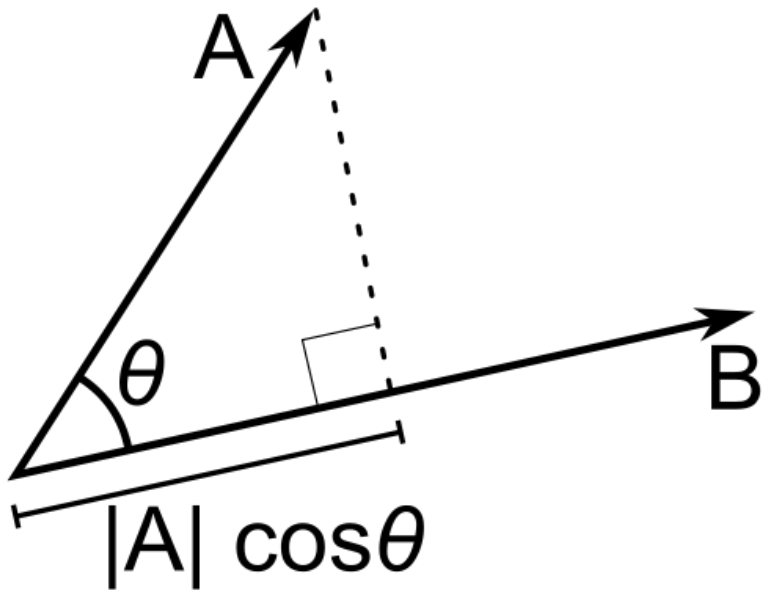
Matrix Operations

- Inner product (dot product) of vectors
 - Multiply corresponding entries of two vectors and add up the result
 - $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ is also $|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| \cos(\text{the angle between } \mathbf{x} \text{ and } \mathbf{y})$

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad (\text{scalar})$$

Matrix Operations

- Inner product (dot product) of vectors
 - If B is a unit vector, then $A \cdot B$ gives the length of A which lies in the direction of B



Matrix Operations

- The product of two matrices

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$$

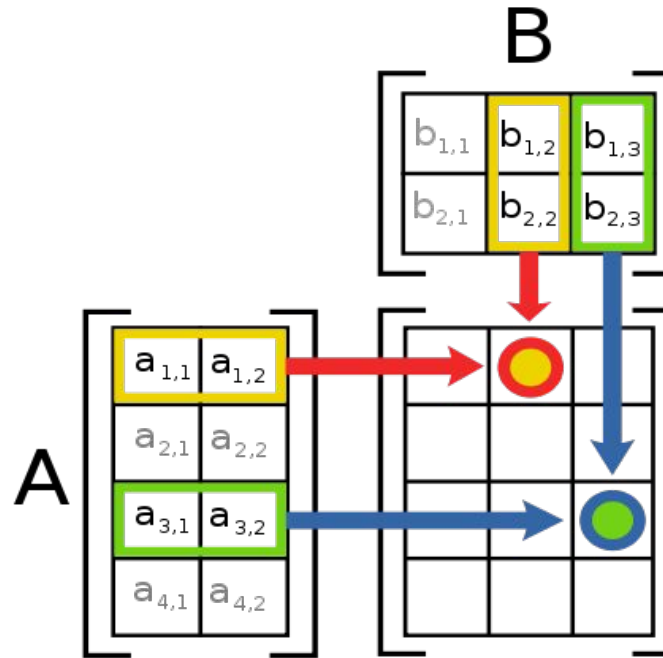
$$C = AB \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & a_1^T & \text{---} \\ \text{---} & a_2^T & \text{---} \\ & \vdots & \\ \text{---} & a_m^T & \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_p \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T b_1 & a_1^T b_2 & \cdots & a_1^T b_p \\ a_2^T b_1 & a_2^T b_2 & \cdots & a_2^T b_p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_m^T b_1 & a_m^T b_2 & \cdots & a_m^T b_p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Matrix Operations

- Multiplication
- The product AB is:



- Each entry in the result is (that row of A) dot product with (that column of B)
- Many uses, which will be covered later

Matrix Operations

- Multiplication example:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \times & B \\ \downarrow & & \nearrow \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix} & & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

- Each entry of the matrix product is made by taking the dot product of the corresponding row in the left matrix, with the corresponding column in the right one.

$$0 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 7 = 14$$

Matrix Operations

- The product of two matrices

Matrix multiplication is associative: $(AB)C = A(BC)$.

Matrix multiplication is distributive: $A(B + C) = AB + AC$.

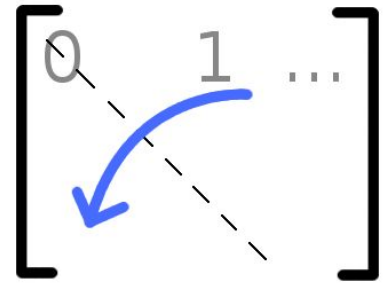
Matrix multiplication is, in general, *not* commutative; that is, it can be the case that $AB \neq BA$. (For example, if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$, the matrix product BA does not even exist if m and q are not equal!)

Matrix Operations

- Powers
 - By convention, we can refer to the matrix product AA as A^2 , and AAA as A^3 , etc.
 - Obviously only square matrices can be multiplied that way

Matrix Operations

- Transpose – flip matrix, so row 1 becomes column 1


$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots \\ 2 & 3 & \\ 4 & 5 & \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A useful identity:

$$(ABC)^T = C^T B^T A^T$$

Matrix Operations

- **Determinant**

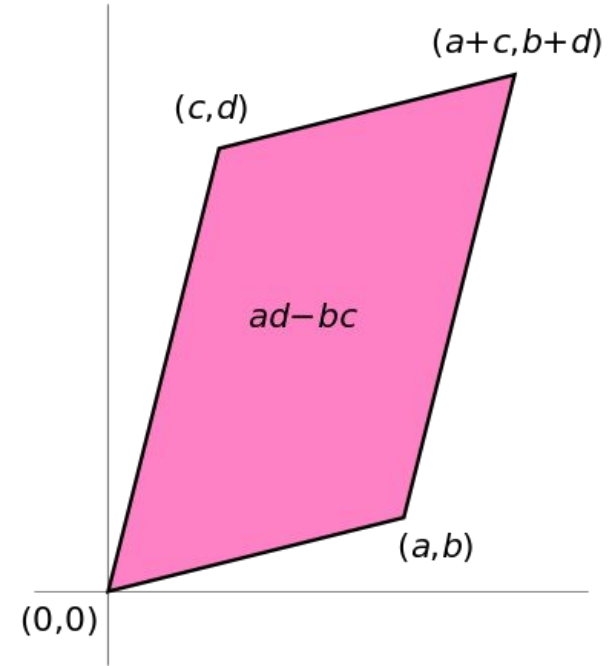
- $\det(\mathbf{A})$ returns a scalar
- Represents area (or volume) of the parallelogram described by the vectors in the rows of the matrix
- For $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, $\det(\mathbf{A}) = ad - bc$
- Properties:

$$\det(\mathbf{AB}) = \det(\mathbf{BA})$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^T) = \det(\mathbf{A})$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A} \text{ is singular}$$



Matrix Operations

- **Trace**

$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{sum of diagonal elements}$

$$\text{tr}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\right) = 1 + 7 = 8$$

- Invariant to a lot of transformations, so it's used sometimes in proofs. (Rarely in this class though.)
- Properties:

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BA})$$

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{B})$$

Matrix Operations

- **Vector Norms**

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$$

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

- **Matrix norms:** Norms can also be defined for matrices, such as

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^T A)}.$$

Special Matrices

- Identity matrix \mathbf{I}
 - Square matrix, 1's along diagonal, 0's elsewhere
 - $\mathbf{I} \cdot [\text{another matrix}] = [\text{that matrix}]$

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

- Diagonal matrix
 - Square matrix with numbers along diagonal, 0's elsewhere
 - A diagonal \cdot [another matrix] scales the rows of that matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special Matrices

- Symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \\ 5 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Skew-symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{A}^T = -\mathbf{A}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 & -5 \\ 2 & 0 & -7 \\ 5 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- **Transformation Matrices**
 - Homogeneous coordinates
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- Matrix inverse
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Matrix multiplication can be used to transform vectors. A matrix used in this way is called a transformation matrix.



Transformation

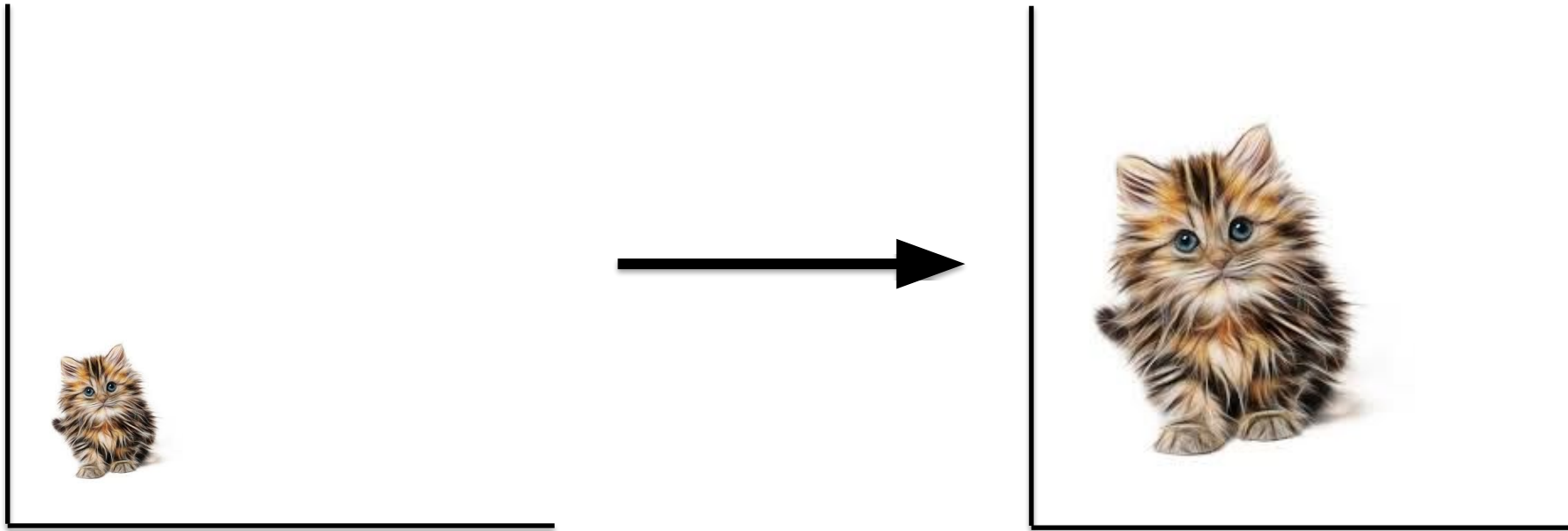
- Matrices can be used to transform vectors in useful ways, through multiplication: $x' = Ax$
- Simplest is scaling:

$$\begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 \\ 0 & s_y \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x \\ s_y y \end{bmatrix}$$

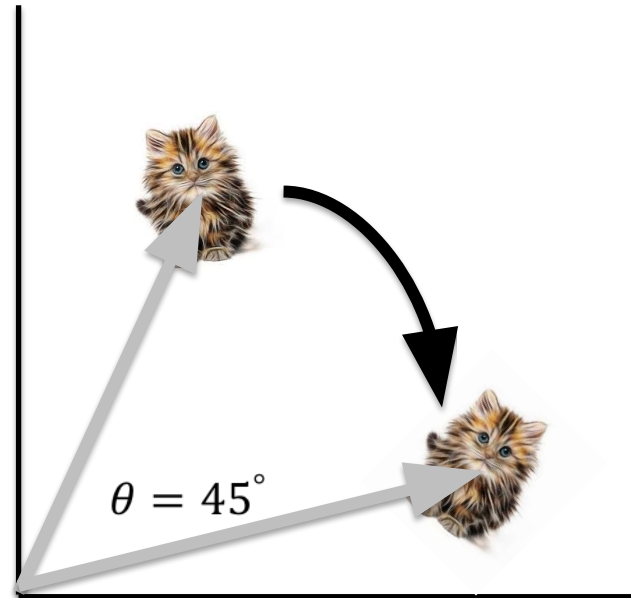
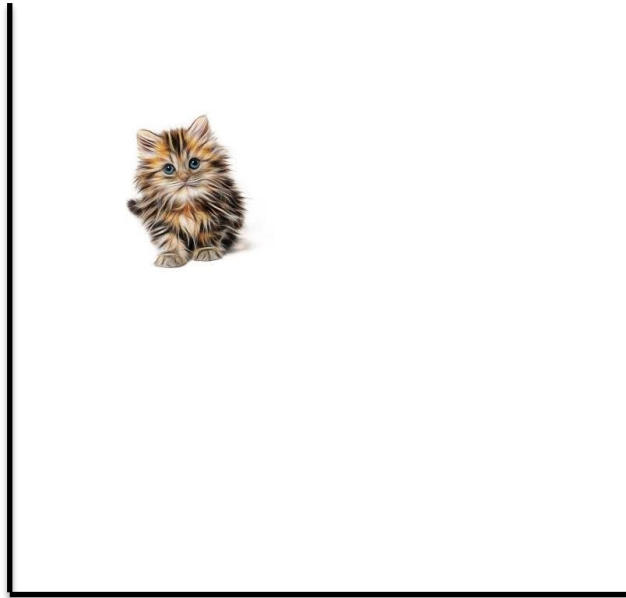
(Verify to yourself that the matrix multiplication works out this way)

Transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 \\ 0 & s_y \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x \\ s_y y \end{bmatrix}$$

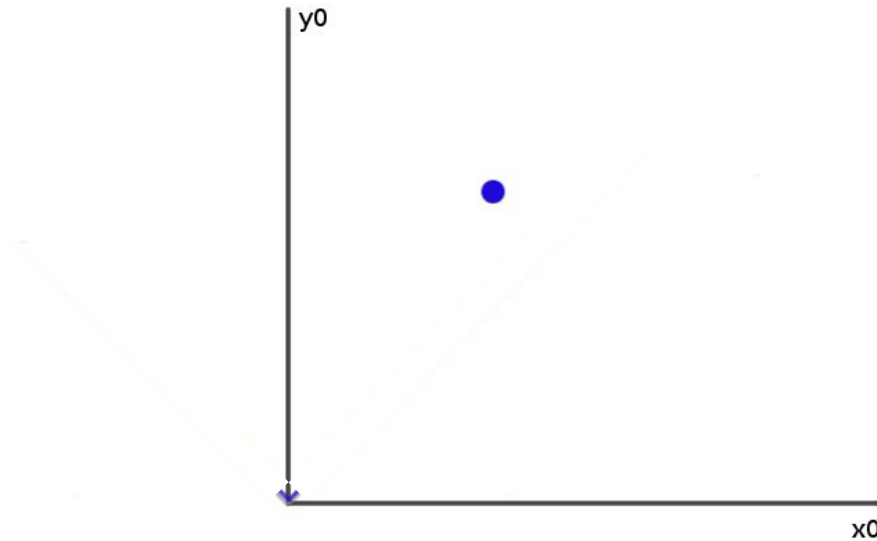


Rotation



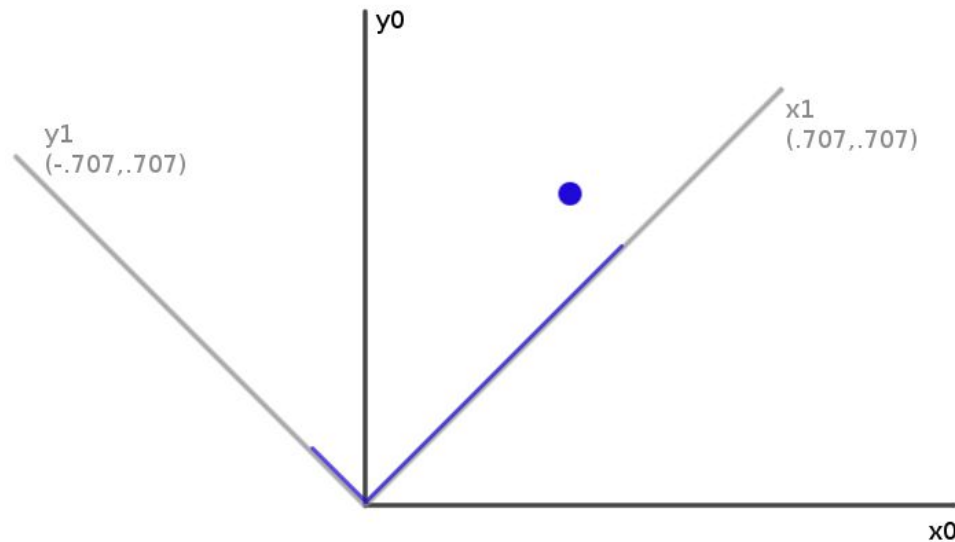
Rotation

- How can you convert a vector represented in frame “0” to a new, rotated coordinate frame “1”?



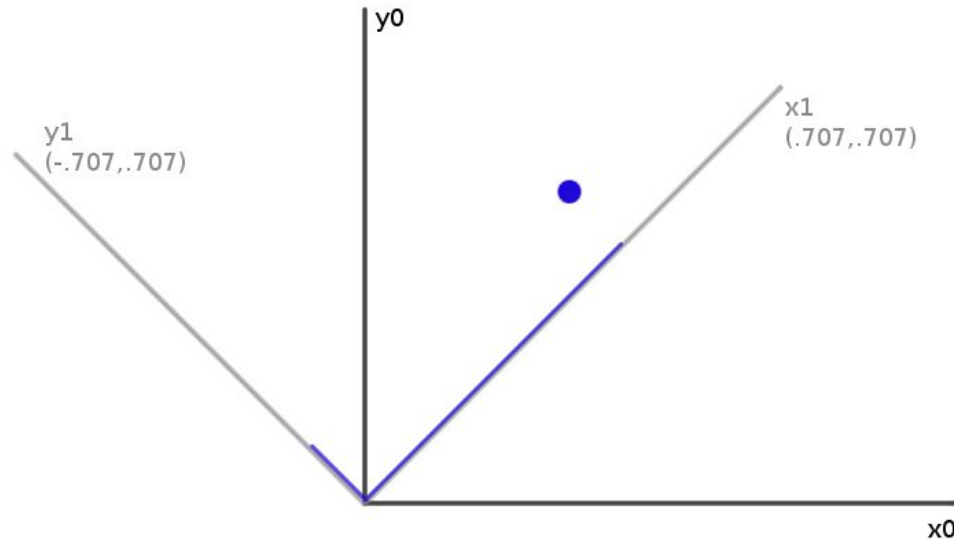
Rotation

- How can you convert a vector represented in frame “0” to a new, rotated coordinate frame “1”?
- Remember what a vector is:
[component in direction of the frame’s x axis, component in direction of y axis]



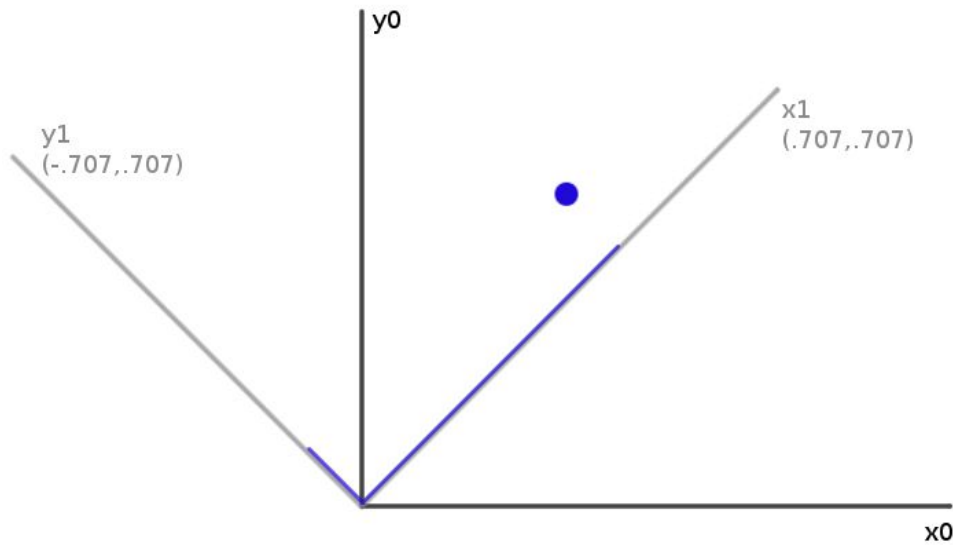
Rotation

- So to rotate it we must produce this vector:
[component in direction of **new** x axis, component in direction of **new** y axis]
- We can do this easily with dot products!
- New x coordinate is [original vector] **dot** [the new x axis]
- New y coordinate is [original vector] **dot** [the new y axis]



Rotation

- Insight: this is what happens in a matrix*vector multiplication
 - Result x coordinate is:
[original vector] dot [matrix row 1]
 - So matrix multiplication can rotate a vector

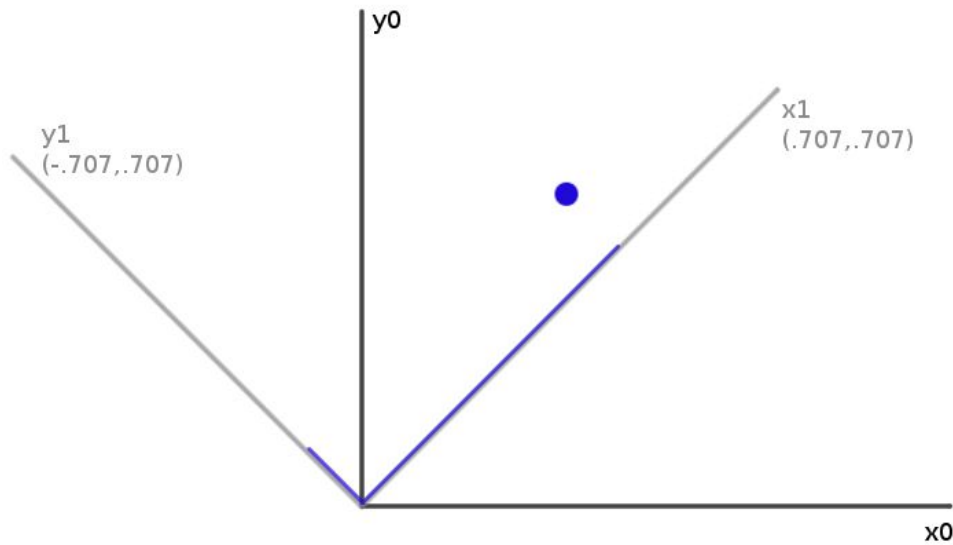


$$R \times p = \text{rotated } p'$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} .707 & .707 \\ -.707 & .707 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} px \\ py \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} px' \\ py' \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation

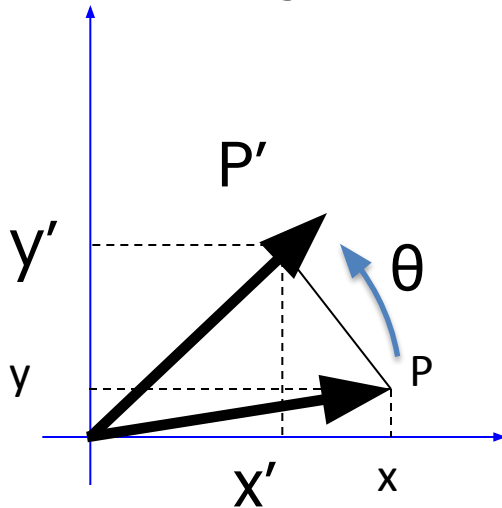
- Suppose we express a point in the new coordinate system which is rotated left
- If we plot the result in the **original** coordinate system, we have rotated the point right



– Thus, rotation matrices can be used to rotate vectors. We'll usually think of them in that sense-- as operators to rotate vectors

2D Rotation Matrix Formula

Counter-clockwise rotation by an angle θ



$$x' = \cos \theta \, x - \sin \theta \, y$$

$$y' = \cos \theta \, y + \sin \theta \, x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P'} = \mathbf{R} \, \mathbf{P}$$

Transformation Matrices

- Multiple transformation matrices can be used to transform a point:

$$p' = R_2 R_1 S p$$

- The effect of this is to apply their transformations one after the other, from **right to left**.

- In the example above, the result is

$$(R_2 (R_1 (S p)))$$

- The result is exactly the same if we multiply the matrices first, to form a single transformation matrix:

$$p' = (R_2 R_1 S) p$$

Homogeneous system

- In general, a matrix multiplication lets us linearly combine components of a vector

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

- This is sufficient for scale, rotate, skew transformations.
- But notice, we can't add a constant! 😞

Homogeneous system

- The (somewhat hacky) solution? Stick a “1” at the end of every vector:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by + c \\ dx + ey + f \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Now we can rotate, scale, and skew like before, **AND translate** (note how the multiplication works out, above)
- This is called “homogeneous coordinates”

Homogeneous system

- In homogeneous coordinates, the multiplication works out so the rightmost column of the matrix is a vector that gets added.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by + c \\ dx + ey + f \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

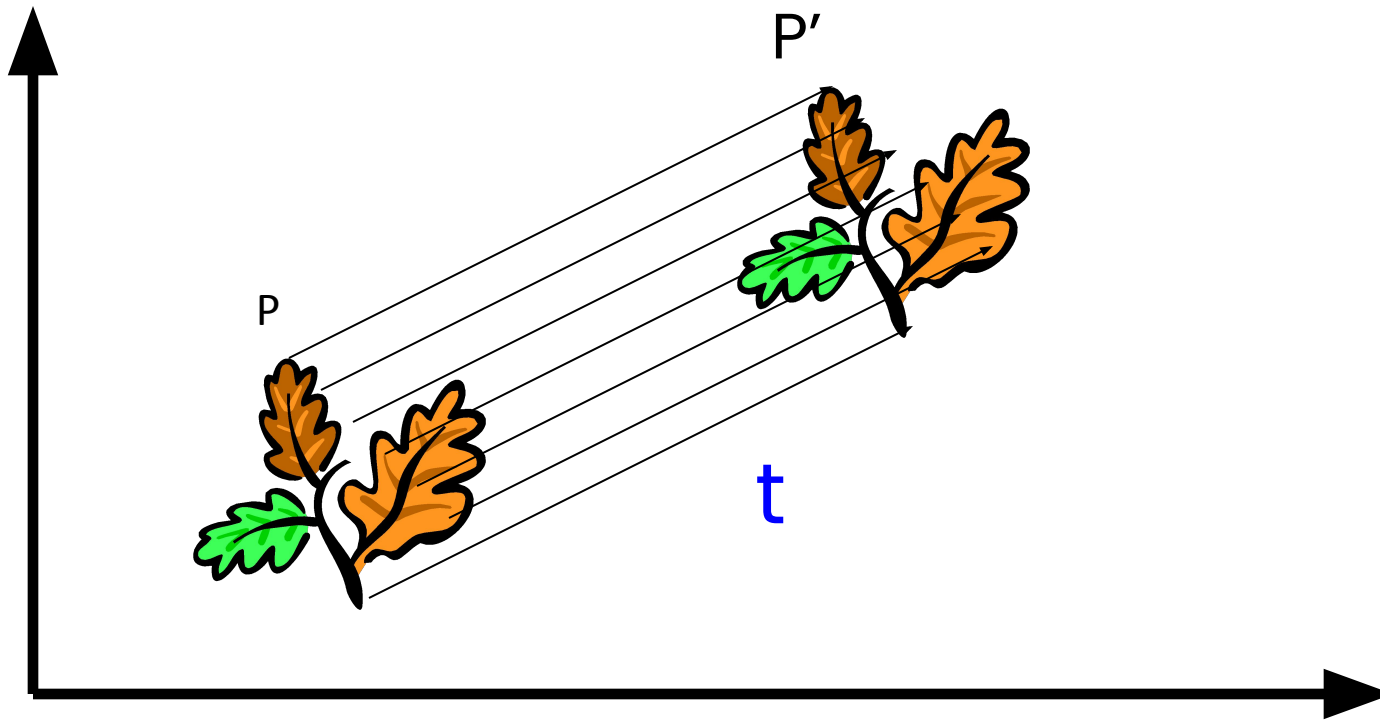
- Generally, a homogeneous transformation matrix will have a bottom row of $[0 \ 0 \ 1]$, so that the result has a “1” at the bottom too.

Homogeneous system

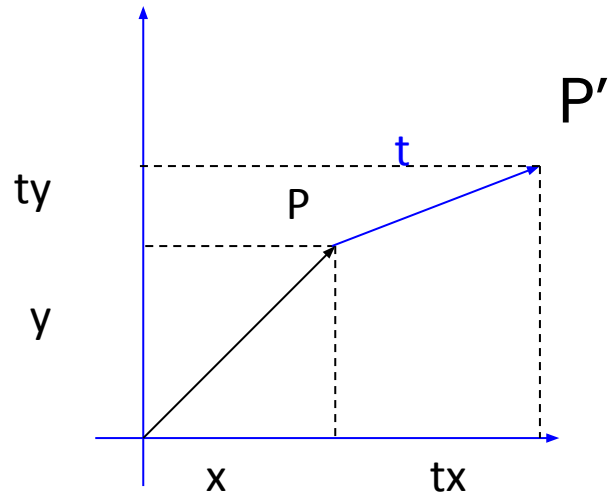
- One more thing we might want: to divide the result by something
 - For example, we may want to divide by a coordinate, to make things scale down as they get farther away in a camera image
 - Matrix multiplication can't actually divide
 - So, **by convention**, in homogeneous coordinates, we'll divide the result by its last coordinate after doing a matrix multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x/7 \\ y/7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2D Translation



2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates

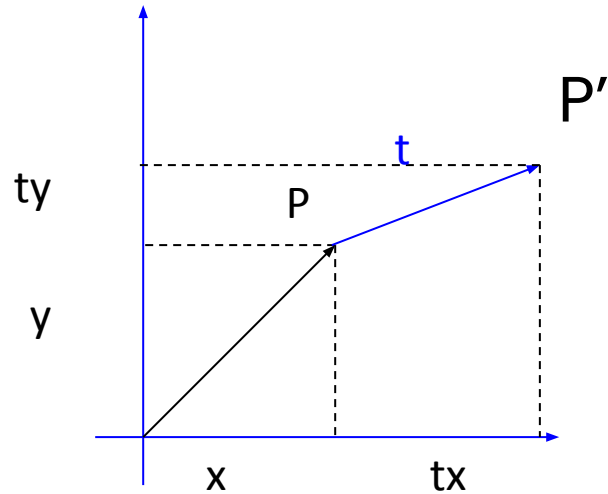


$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates



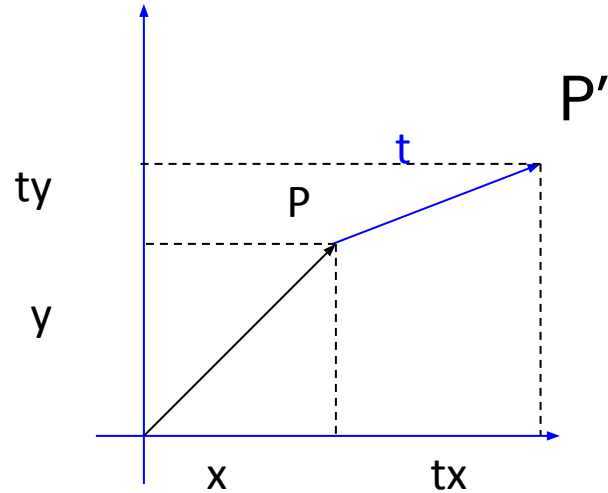
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$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagram shows the matrix multiplication for 2D translation. The translation matrix is a 3x3 matrix with 1s on the diagonal and 0s elsewhere. The point P is represented as a column vector [x, y, 1]^T. The resulting point P' is the product of the matrix and the vector. A dashed blue box highlights the x and y components of the resulting vector, and an arrow points to the label P above the vector.

2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates



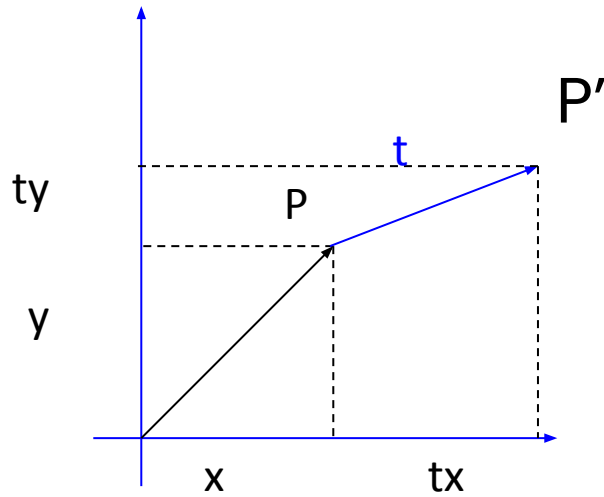
$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagram shows the matrix multiplication for 2D translation. The translation vector t is represented by the third column of the transformation matrix. The point P is represented by the third column of the point vector. The resulting point P' is the product of the transformation matrix and the point vector. A blue dashed box highlights the third column of the point vector, and a blue arrow points to it from the label P.

2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates



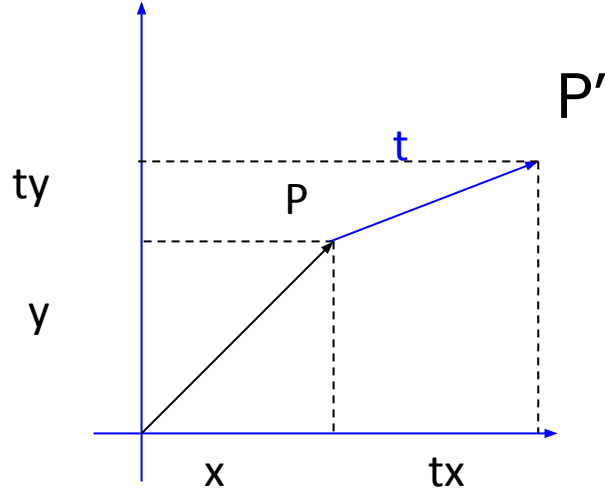
$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

\mathbf{P}

2D Translation using Homogeneous Coordinates



$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

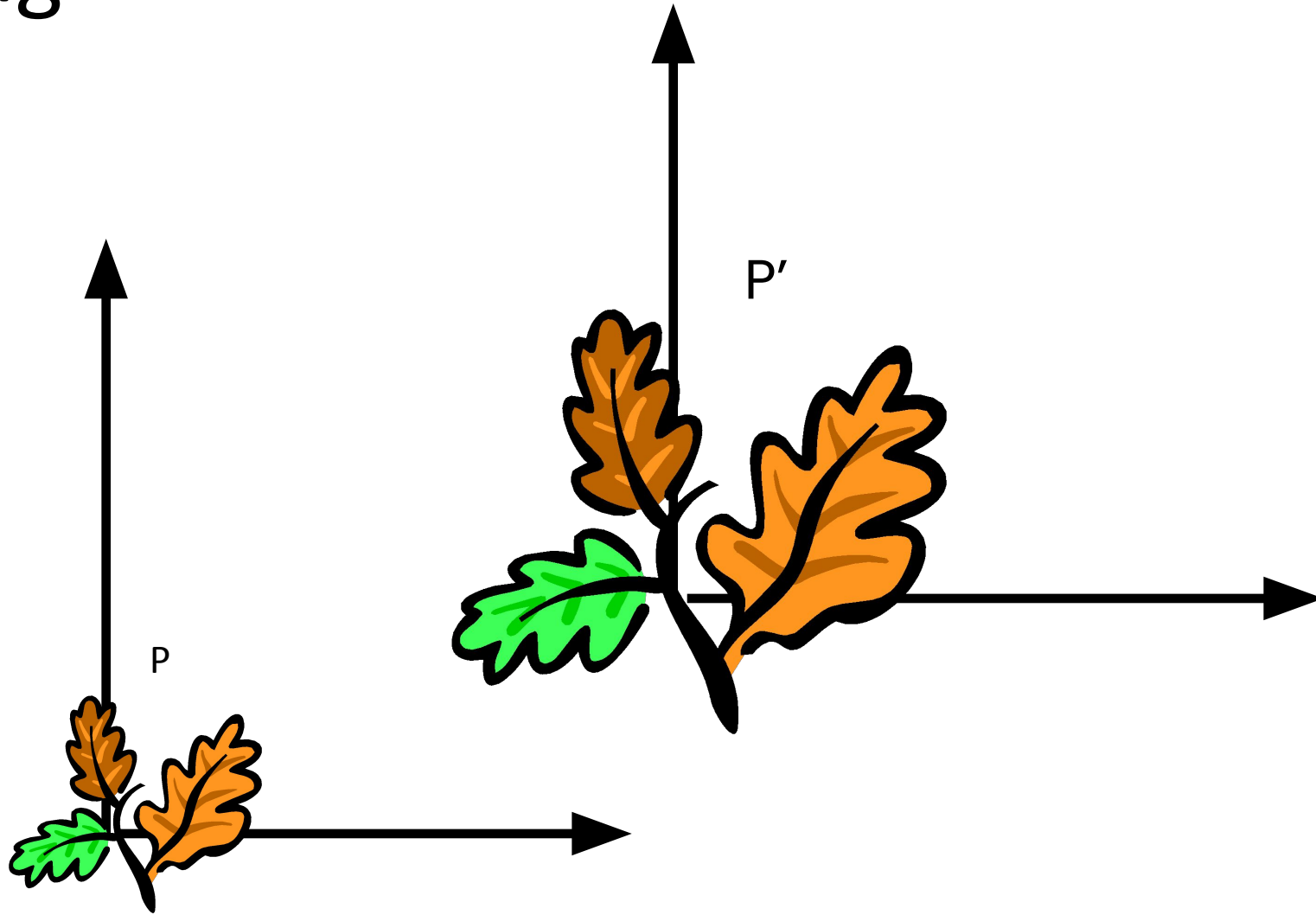
$$\mathbf{t} = (t_x, t_y) \rightarrow (t_x, t_y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x + t_x \\ y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

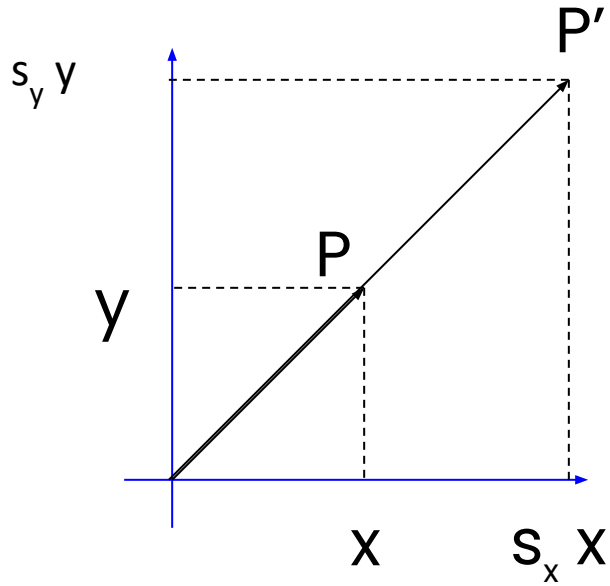
$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{t} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P}$

The diagram includes blue dashed boxes around the translation vector components t_x and t_y in the transformation matrix, and around the original point coordinates x and y in the point vector. Arrows labeled **t** and **P** point to these respective components.

Scaling



Scaling Equation

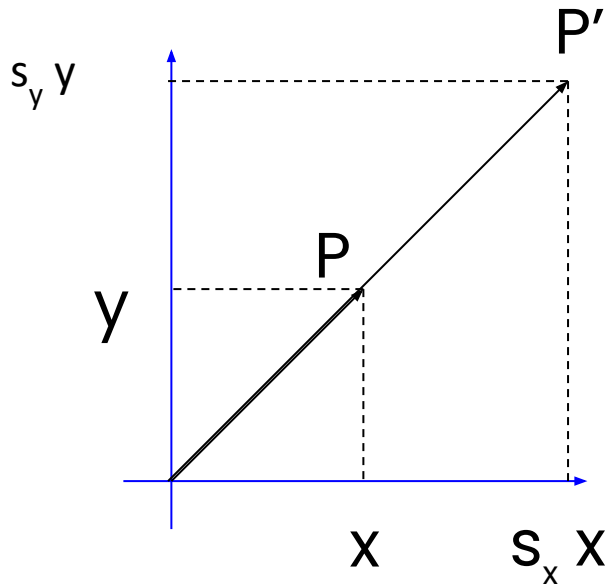


$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow \mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y)$$

$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y) \rightarrow (s_x x, s_y y, 1)$$

Scaling Equation



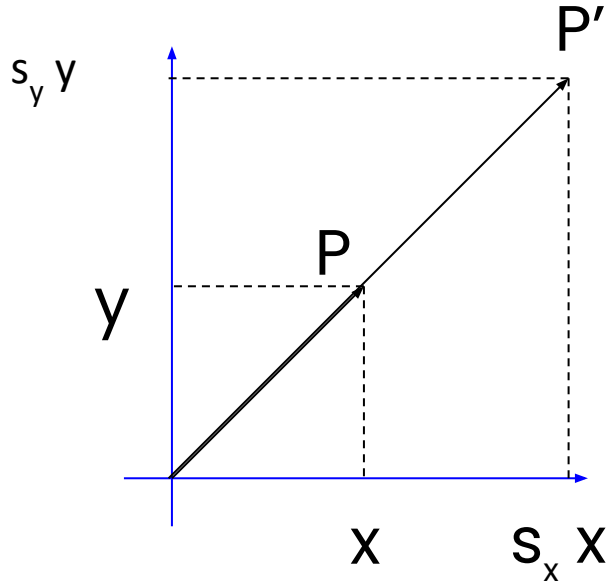
$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow \mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y)$$

$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y) \rightarrow (s_x x, s_y y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} s_x x \\ s_y y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x \\ s_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling Equation



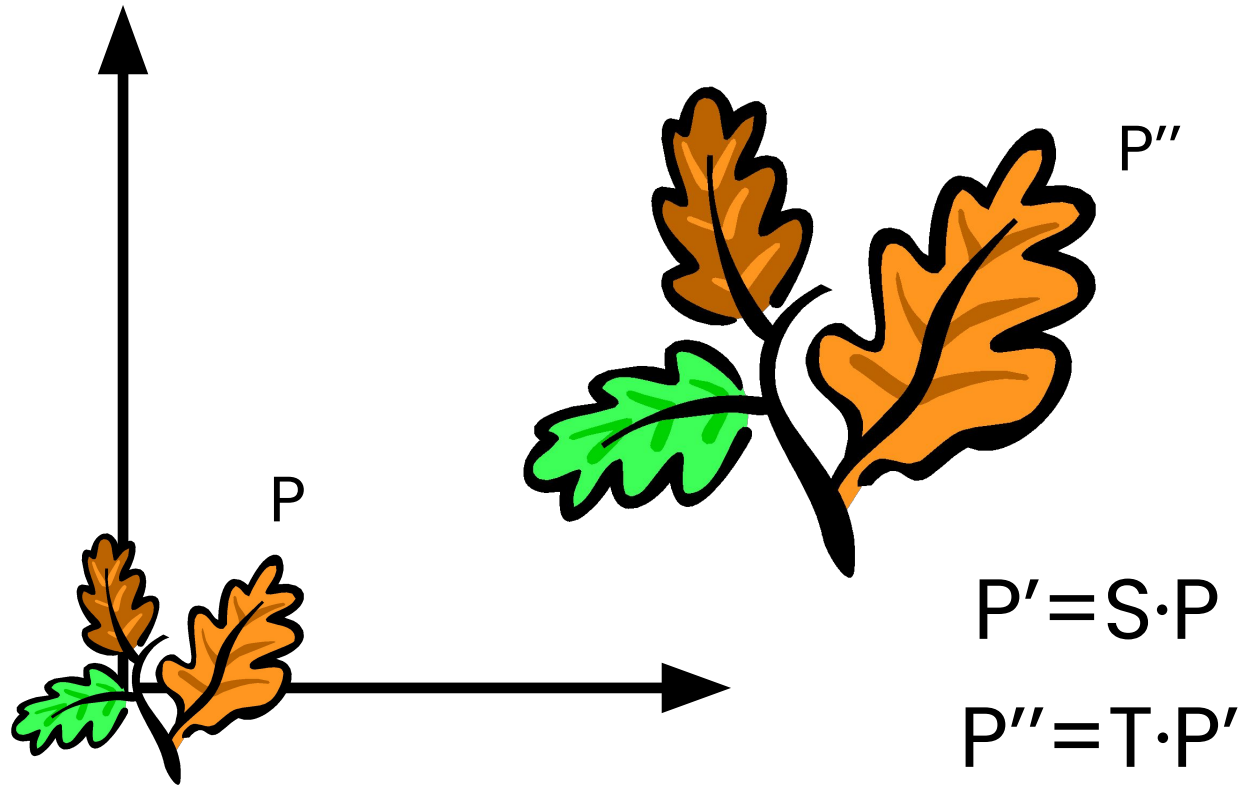
$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow \mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y)$$

$$\mathbf{P} = (x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = (s_x x, s_y y) \rightarrow (s_x x, s_y y, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}' \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} s_x x \\ s_y y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S}' & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P}$$

Scaling & Translating



$$P'' = T \cdot P' = T \cdot (S \cdot P) = T \cdot S \cdot P$$

Scaling & Translating

$$\mathbf{P}'' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling & Translating

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}'' &= \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & s_y & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + t_x \\ s_y y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Translating & Scaling != Scaling & Translating

$$\mathbf{P}''' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & s_y & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + t_x \\ s_y y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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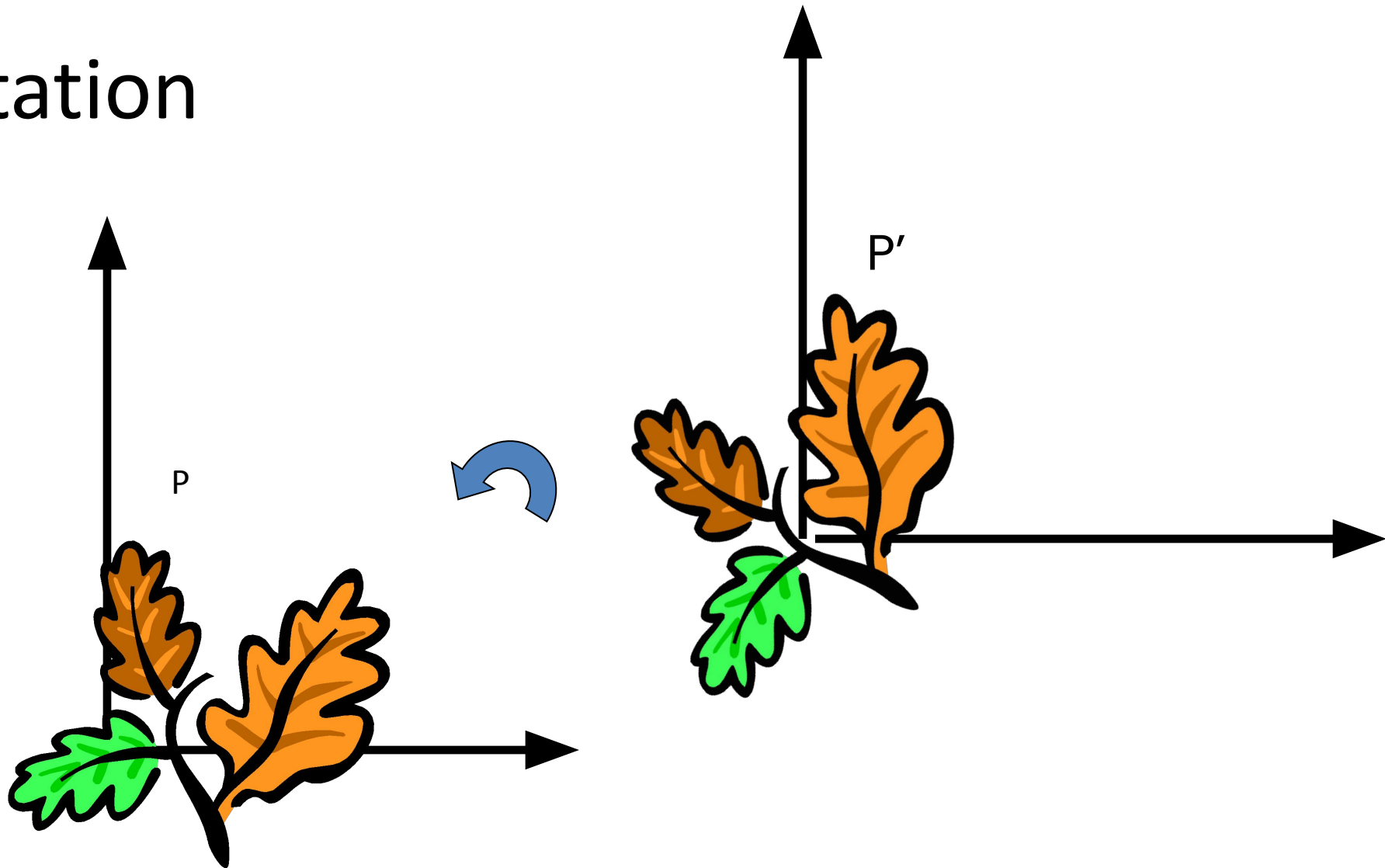
$$\mathbf{P}''' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

Translating & Scaling != Scaling & Translating

$$\mathbf{P}''' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & s_y & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + t_x \\ s_y y + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

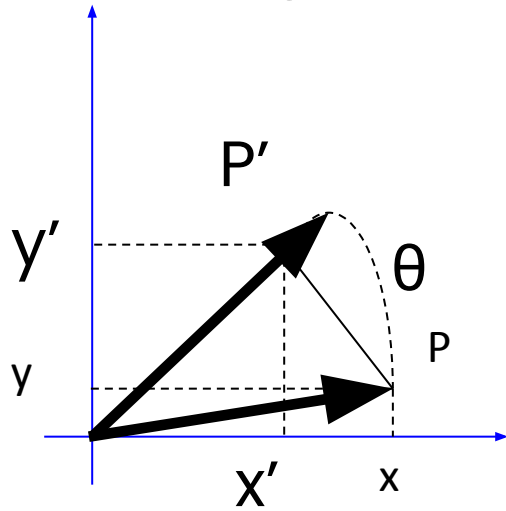
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}''' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{P} &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & s_x t_x \\ 0 & s_y & s_y t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x x + s_x t_x \\ s_y y + s_y t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Rotation



Rotation Equations

Counter-clockwise rotation by an angle θ



$$x' = \cos \theta \, x - \sin \theta \, y$$

$$y' = \cos \theta \, y + \sin \theta \, x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{R} \, \mathbf{P}$$

Rotation Matrix Properties

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

A 2D rotation matrix is 2x2

Note: \mathbf{R} belongs to the category of *normal* matrices
and satisfies many interesting properties:

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{R}) = 1$$

Rotation Matrix Properties

- Transpose of a rotation matrix produces a rotation in the opposite direction

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{R}) = 1$$

- The rows of a rotation matrix are always mutually perpendicular (a.k.a. orthogonal) unit vectors
 - (and so are its columns)

Scaling + Rotation + Translation


$$\mathbf{P}' = (\mathbf{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{S}) \mathbf{P}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & t_x \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} S & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} R & S & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the form of the
general-purpose
transformation matrix



Outline

- Vectors and matrices
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- **Matrix inverse**
- Matrix rank
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- Matrix Calculate



The inverse of a transformation matrix reverses its effect

Inverse

- Given a matrix \mathbf{A} , its inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1} is a matrix such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$
- E.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$
- Inverse does not always exist. If \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists, \mathbf{A} is *invertible* or *non-singular*. Otherwise, it's *singular*.
- Useful identities, for matrices that are invertible:

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-T} \triangleq (\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T$$

Matrix Operations

- Pseudoinverse
 - Fortunately, there are workarounds to solve $AX=B$ in these situations. And python can do them!
 - Instead of taking an inverse, directly ask python to solve for X in $AX=B$, by typing **`np.linalg.solve(A, B)`**
 - Python will try several appropriate numerical methods (including the pseudoinverse if the inverse doesn't exist)
 - Python will return the value of X which solves the equation
 - If there is no exact solution, it will return the closest one
 - If there are many solutions, it will return the smallest one

Matrix Operations

- Python example:

$$AX = B$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
>> import numpy as np
>> x = np.linalg.solve(A,B)
x =
    1.0000
   -0.5000
```

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The rank of a transformation matrix tells you how many dimensions it transforms a vector to.



Linear independence

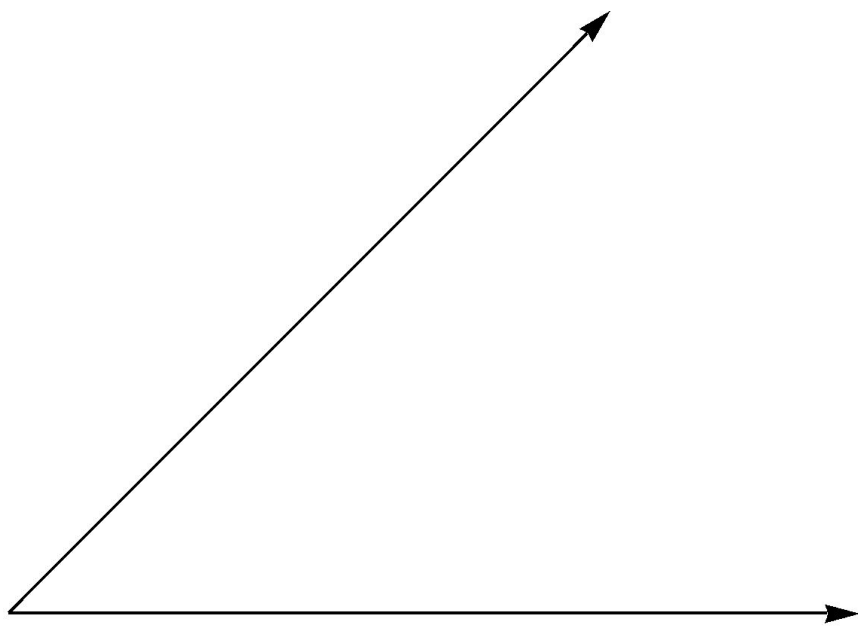
- Suppose we have a set of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$
- If we can express \mathbf{v}_1 as a linear combination of the other vectors $\mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n$, then \mathbf{v}_1 is linearly *dependent* on the other vectors.
 - The direction \mathbf{v}_1 can be expressed as a combination of the directions $\mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n$. (E.g. $\mathbf{v}_1 = .7 \mathbf{v}_2 - .7 \mathbf{v}_4$)

Linear independence

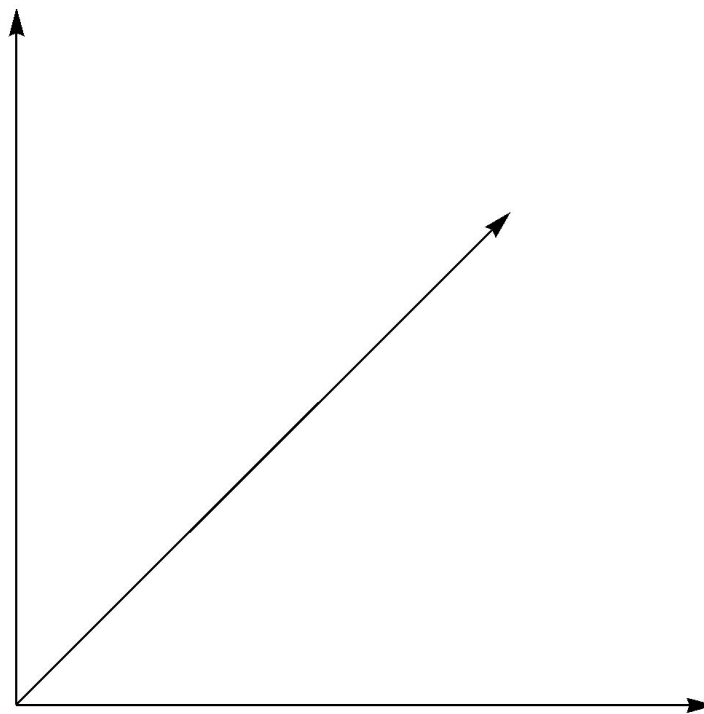
- Suppose we have a set of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$
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 - The direction \mathbf{v}_1 can be expressed as a combination of the directions $\mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n$. (E.g. $\mathbf{v}_1 = .7 \mathbf{v}_2 - .7 \mathbf{v}_4$)
- If no vector is linearly dependent on the rest of the set, the set is linearly *independent*.
 - Common case: a set of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ is always linearly independent if each vector is perpendicular to every other vector (and non-zero)

Linear independence

Linearly independent set



Not linearly independent



Matrix rank

- Column/row rank



- Column rank always equals row rank

- Matrix rank

$$\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) \triangleq \text{col-rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{row-rank}(\mathbf{A})$$

Matrix rank

- For transformation matrices, the rank tells you the dimensions of the output
- E.g. if rank of **A** is 1, then the transformation

$$\mathbf{p}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}$$

maps points onto a line.

- Here's a matrix with rank 1:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + y \\ 2x + 2y \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{All points get mapped to the line } y=2x$$

Matrix rank

- If an $m \times m$ matrix is rank m , we say it's "full rank"
 - Maps an $m \times 1$ vector uniquely to another $m \times 1$ vector
 - An inverse matrix can be found
- If rank $< m$, we say it's "singular"
 - At least one dimension is getting collapsed. No way to look at the result and tell what the input was
 - Inverse does not exist
- Inverse also doesn't exist for non-square matrices

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Eigenvector and Eigenvalue

- An eigenvector \mathbf{x} of a linear transformation A is a non-zero vector that, when A is applied to it, does not change direction.

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad x \neq 0.$$

Eigenvector and Eigenvalue

- An eigenvector \mathbf{x} of a linear transformation A is a non-zero vector that, when A is applied to it, does not change direction.
- Applying A to the eigenvector only scales the eigenvector by the scalar value λ , called an eigenvalue.

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad x \neq 0.$$

Eigenvector and Eigenvalue

- We want to find all the eigenvalues of A:

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad x \neq 0.$$

- Which can we written as:

$$Ax = (\lambda I)x \quad x \neq 0.$$

- Therefore:

$$(\lambda I - A)x = 0, \quad x \neq 0.$$

Eigenvector and Eigenvalue

- We can solve for eigenvalues by solving:

$$(\lambda I - A)x = 0, \quad x \neq 0.$$

- Since we are looking for non-zero \mathbf{x} , we can instead solve the above equation as:

$$|(\lambda I - A)| = 0.$$

Properties

- The trace of a A is equal to the sum of its eigenvalues:

$$\text{tr}A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i.$$

- The determinant of A is equal to the product of its eigenvalues

$$|A| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i.$$

- The rank of A is equal to the number of non-zero eigenvalues of A .
- The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ are just the diagonal entries d_1, \dots, d_n

Spectral theory

- We call an eigenvalue λ and an associated eigenvector an **eigenpair**.
- The space of vectors where $(A - \lambda I) = 0$ is often called the **eigenspace** of A associated with the eigenvalue λ .
- The set of all eigenvalues of A is called its **spectrum**:

$$\sigma(A) = \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : \lambda I - A \text{ is singular}\}.$$

Spectral theory

- The magnitude of the largest eigenvalue (in magnitude) is called the spectral radius

$$\rho(A) = \max \{|\lambda_1|, \dots, |\lambda_n|\}$$

- Where C is the space of all eigenvalues of A

Spectral theory

- The spectral radius is bounded by infinity norm of a matrix:

$$\rho(A) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|A^k\|^{1/k}$$

- Proof: Turn to a partner and prove this!

Spectral theory

- The spectral radius is bounded by infinity norm of a matrix:

$$\rho(A) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|A^k\|^{1/k}$$

- Proof: Let λ and \mathbf{v} be an eigenpair of A :

$$|\lambda|^k \|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\lambda^k \mathbf{v}\| = \|A^k \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|A^k\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

and since $\mathbf{v} \neq 0$ we have

$$|\lambda|^k \leq \|A^k\|$$

and therefore

$$\rho(A) \leq \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}}.$$

Diagonalization

- An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- Most square matrices (in a sense that can be made mathematically rigorous) are diagonalizable:
 - Normal matrices are diagonalizable
 - Matrices with n distinct eigenvalues are diagonalizable

Lemma: Eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

Diagonalization

- An $n \times n$ matrix A is diagonalizable if it has n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- Most square matrices are diagonalizable:
 - Normal matrices are diagonalizable
 - Matrices with n distinct eigenvalues are diagonalizable

Lemma: Eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

Diagonalization

- Eigenvalue equation:

$$AV = VD$$

$$A = VDV^{-1}$$

- Where D is a diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonalization

- Eigenvalue equation:

$$AV = VD$$
$$A = VDV^{-1}$$

- Assuming all λ_i 's are unique:

$$A = VDV^T$$

- Remember that the inverse of an orthogonal matrix is just its transpose and the eigenvectors are orthogonal

Symmetric matrices

- Properties:
 - For a symmetric matrix A , all the eigenvalues are real.
 - The eigenvectors of A are orthonormal.

$$A = V D V^T$$

Symmetric matrices

- Therefore:

$$x^T A x = x^T V D V^T x = y^T D y = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i^2$$

– where $y = V^T x$

- So, what can you say about the vector x that satisfies the following optimization? $\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} x^T A x$ subject to $\|x\|_2^2 = 1$

Symmetric matrices

- Therefore:

$$x^T A x = x^T V D V^T x = y^T D y = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i^2$$

– where $y = V^T x$

- So, what can you say about the vector x that satisfies the following optimization? $\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} x^T A x$ subject to $\|x\|_2^2 = 1$
 - Is the same as finding the eigenvector that corresponds to the largest eigenvalue of A .

Some applications of Eigenvalues

- PageRank
 - Schrodinger's equation
 - PCA
-
- We are going to use it to compress images in future classes

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Matrix Calculus – The Gradient

- Let a function $f : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ take as input a matrix A of size $m \times n$ and return a real value.
- Then the **gradient** of **f**:

$$\nabla_A f(A) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{11}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{1n}} \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{21}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{22}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{2n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{m1}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{m2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{mn}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Calculus – The Gradient

- Every entry in the matrix is: $\nabla_A f(A))_{ij} = \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{ij}}$.
- the size of $\nabla_A f(A)$ is always the same as the size of A. So if A is just a vector x:

$$\nabla_x f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise

- Example:

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f(x) = b^T x$ for some known vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$f(x) = [b_1 \quad b_2 \quad \dots \quad b_n]^T \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find:

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = ?$$

$$\nabla_x f(x) = ?$$

Exercise

- Example:

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f(x) = b^T x$ for some known vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i = b_k.$$

- From this we can conclude that:

$$\nabla_x b^T x = b.$$

Matrix Calculus – The Gradient

- Properties

- $\nabla_x(f(x) + g(x)) = \nabla_x f(x) + \nabla_x g(x).$
- For $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $\nabla_x(t f(x)) = t \nabla_x f(x).$

Matrix Calculus – The Hessian

- The Hessian matrix with respect to x , written $\nabla_x^2 f(x)$ or simply as H :

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The Hessian of n -dimensional vector is the $n \times n$ matrix.

Matrix Calculus – The Hessian

- Each entry can be written as: $\nabla_x^2 f(x))_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$.
- Exercise: Why is the Hessian always symmetric?

Matrix Calculus – The Hessian

- Each entry can be written as: $\nabla_x^2 f(x))_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$,

- The Hessian is always symmetric, because

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}.$$

- This is known as Schwarz's theorem: The order of partial derivatives don't matter as long as the second derivative exists and is continuous.

Matrix Calculus – The Hessian

- Note that the hessian is not the gradient of whole gradient of a vector (this is not defined). It is actually the gradient of **every entry** of the gradient of the vector.

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Calculus – The Hessian

- Eg, the first column is the gradient of $\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1}$

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise

- Example:

consider the quadratic function $f(x) = x^T A x$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Exercise

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Exercise

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j \neq k} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_k x_j + A_{kk} x_k^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

Divide the summation into 3 parts depending on whether:

- $i == k$ or
- $j == k$

Exercise

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j \\&= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j \neq k} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_k x_j + A_{kk} x_k^2 \right] \\&= \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_j + 2A_{kk} x_k\end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j \\&= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j \neq k} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_k x_j + A_{kk} x_k^2 \right] \\&= \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_j + 2A_{kk} x_k\end{aligned}$$

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Exercise

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Exercise

$$f(x) = x^T A x$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_\ell} \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n A_{\ell i} x_i \right]$$

Exercise

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$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_\ell} \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n A_{\ell i} x_i \right] \\ &= 2A_{\ell k} = 2A_{k\ell}. \end{aligned}$$

Exercise

$$f(x) = x^T A x$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_\ell} \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n 2A_{\ell i} x_i \right] \\ &= 2A_{\ell k} = 2A_{k\ell}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) = 2A$$

What we have learned

- [Vectors and matrices](#)
 - Basic Matrix Operations
 - Special Matrices
- [Transformation Matrices](#)
 - Homogeneous coordinates
 - Translation
- [Matrix inverse](#)
- [Matrix rank](#)
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- Matrix Calculate