

## *LECTURE 3: Review of Linear Algebra*

---

- **Vector and matrix notation**
- **Vectors**
- **Matrices**
- **Vector spaces**
- **Linear transformations**
- **Eigenvalues and eigenvectors**

# Vector and matrix notation

- A d-dimensional (column) vector  $\mathbf{x}$  and its transpose are written as:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x}^T = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_d]$$

- An  $n \times d$  (rectangular) matrix and its transpose are written as:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1d} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & & a_{nd} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{n2} \\ a_{13} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{n3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1d} & a_{2d} & & a_{nd} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The product of two matrices is

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1d} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & & a_{md} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & \cdots & b_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{d1} & b_{d2} & & b_{dn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} & \cdots & c_{1n} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} & \cdots & c_{2n} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} & \cdots & c_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{m1} & c_{m2} & c_{m3} & & c_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^d a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

# Vectors

- The inner product (a.k.a. *dot product* or *scalar product*) of two vectors is defined by

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y = y^T x = \sum_{k=1}^d x_k y_k$$

- The magnitude of a vector is

$$|x| = \sqrt{x^T x} = \left[ \sum_{k=1}^d x_k x_k \right]^{1/2}$$

- The orthogonal projection of vector  $y$  onto vector  $x$  is

$$\langle y^T u_x \rangle u_x$$

- where vector  $u_x$  has unit magnitude and the same direction as  $x$

- The angle between vectors  $x$  and  $y$  is

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{|x| \cdot |y|}$$

- Two vectors  $x$  and  $y$  are said to be

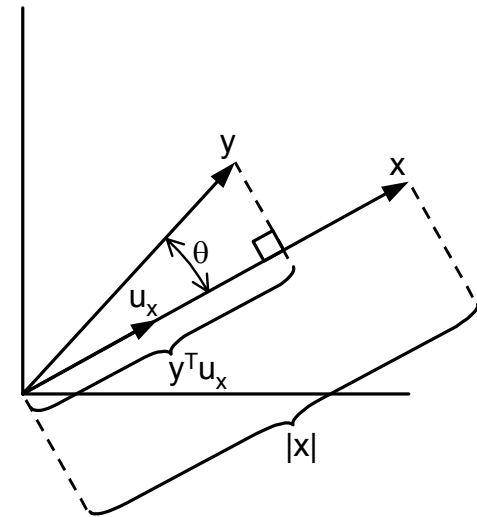
- orthogonal if  $x^T y = 0$
- orthonormal if  $x^T y = 0$  and  $|x| = |y| = 1$

- A set of vectors  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are said to be linearly dependent if there exists a set of coefficients  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  (at least one different than zero) such that

$$a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n = 0$$

- Alternatively, a set of vectors  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are said to be linearly independent if

$$a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n = 0 \Rightarrow a_k = 0 \quad \forall k$$



# Matrices

---

- The determinant of a square matrix  $A_{d \times d}$  is

$$|A| = \sum_{k=1}^d a_{ik} |A_{ik}| (-1)^{k+i}$$

- where  $A_{ik}$  is the minor matrix formed by removing the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row and the  $k^{\text{th}}$  column of  $A$
- NOTE: the determinant of a square matrix and its transpose is the same:  $|A| = |A^T|$

- The trace of a square matrix  $A_{d \times d}$  is the sum of its diagonal elements

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{k=1}^d a_{kk}$$

- The rank of a matrix is the number of linearly independent rows (or columns)
- A square matrix is said to be non-singular if and only if its rank equals the number of rows (or columns)
  - A non-singular matrix has a non-zero determinant
- A square matrix is said to be orthonormal if  $AA^T = A^T A = I$  (more on this later)
- For a square matrix  $A$ 
  - if  $x^T A x > 0$  for all  $x \neq 0$ , then  $A$  is said to be positive-definite (i.e., the covariance matrix)
  - if  $x^T A x \geq 0$  for all  $x \neq 0$ , then  $A$  is said to be positive-semidefinite
- The inverse of a square matrix  $A$  is denoted by  $A^{-1}$  and is such that  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ 
  - The inverse  $A^{-1}$  of a matrix  $A$  exists if and only if  $A$  is non-singular
- The pseudo-inverse matrix  $A^{\dagger}$  is typically used whenever  $A^{-1}$  does not exist (because  $A$  is not square or  $A$  is singular):

$$A^{\dagger} = [A^T A]^{-1} A^T \quad \text{with} \quad A^{\dagger} A = I \quad \left( \text{assuming } A^T A \text{ is non-singular, note that } AA^{\dagger} \neq I \text{ in general} \right)$$

# Vector spaces

- The  $n$ -dimensional space in which all the  $n$ -dimensional vectors reside is called a vector space
- A set of vectors  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  is said to form a basis for a vector space if any arbitrary vector  $x$  can be represented by a linear combination of the  $\{u_i\}$

$$x = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_n u_n$$

- The coefficients  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  are called the components of vector  $x$  with respect to the basis  $\{u_i\}$
- In order to form a basis, it is necessary and sufficient that the  $\{u_i\}$  vectors be linearly independent

- A basis  $\{u_i\}$  is said to be orthogonal if

$$u_i^T u_j = \begin{cases} \neq 0 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

- A basis  $\{u_i\}$  is said to be orthonormal if

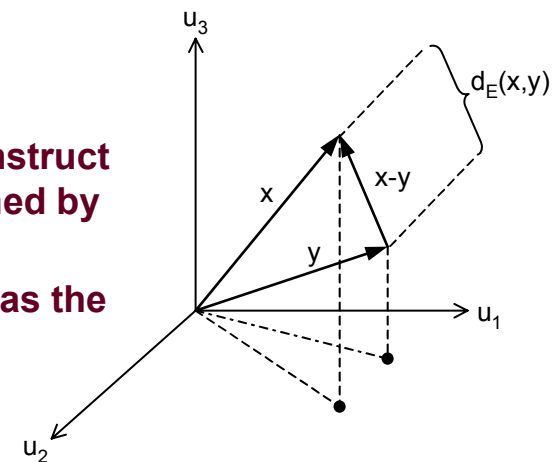
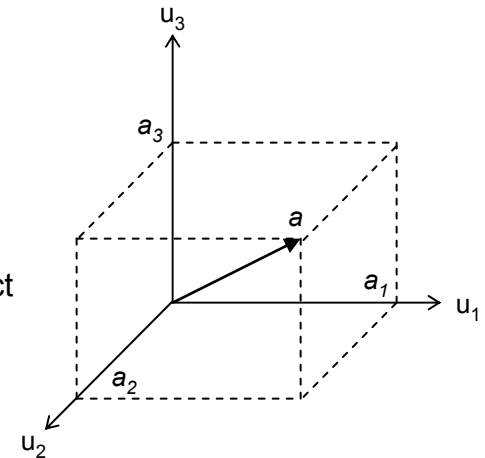
$$u_i^T u_j = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

- As an example, the Cartesian coordinate base is an orthonormal base

- Given  $n$  linearly independent vectors  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ , we can construct an orthonormal base  $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n\}$  for the vector space spanned by  $\{x_i\}$  with the Gram-Schmidt Orthonormalization Procedure
- The distance between two points in a vector space is defined as the magnitude of the vector difference between the points

$$d_E(x, y) = |x - y| = \left[ \sum_{k=1}^d (x_k - y_k)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

- This is also called the Euclidean distance



# Linear transformations

- A linear transformation is a mapping from a vector space  $X^N$  onto a vector space  $Y^M$ , and is represented by a matrix

- Given vector  $x \in X^N$ , the corresponding vector  $y$  on  $Y^M$  is computed as

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_M \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{M1} & a_{M2} & a_{M3} & \cdots & a_{MN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- Notice that the dimensionality of the two spaces does not need to be the same.
- For pattern recognition we typically have  $M < N$  (project onto a lower-dimensionality space)

- A linear transformation represented by a square matrix  $A$  is said to be orthonormal when  $AA^T = A^T A = I$

- This implies that  $A^T = A^{-1}$
- An orthonormal transformation has the property of preserving the magnitude of the vectors:

$$|y| = \sqrt{y^T y} = \sqrt{(Ax)^T (Ax)} = \sqrt{x^T A^T A x} = \sqrt{x^T x} = |x|$$

- An orthonormal matrix can be thought of as a rotation of the reference frame
- The **row vectors** of an orthonormal transformation form a set of orthonormal basis vectors

$$y_{M \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} \leftarrow a_1 \rightarrow \\ \leftarrow a_2 \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ \leftarrow a_N \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} x_{N \times 1} \quad \text{with} \quad a_i^T a_j = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$$

# Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- Given a matrix  $A_{N \times N}$ , we say that  $v$  is an eigenvector\* if there exists a scalar  $\lambda$  (the eigenvalue) such that

$$Av = \lambda v \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v \text{ is an eigenvector} \\ \lambda \text{ is the corresponding eigenvalue} \end{cases}$$

- Computation of the eigenvalues

$$Av = \lambda v \Rightarrow Av - \lambda v = 0 \Rightarrow (A - \lambda I)v = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} v = 0 & \text{trivial solution} \\ (A - \lambda I) = 0 & \text{non-trivial solution} \end{cases}$$

$$(A - \lambda I) = 0 \Rightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0 \Rightarrow \underbrace{\lambda^N + a_1 \lambda^{N-1} + \dots + a_{N-1} \lambda + a_0 = 0}_{\text{Characteristic Equation}}$$

- The matrix formed by the column eigenvectors is called the modal matrix  $M$ .

- Matrix  $\Lambda$  is the canonical form of  $A$ : a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues on the main diagonal

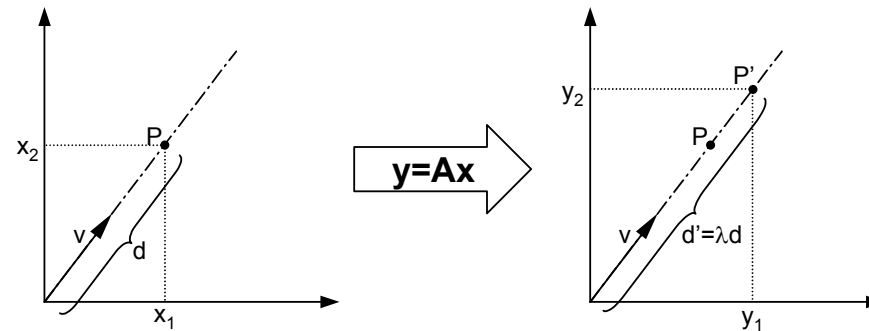
$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & \dots & v_N \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & \lambda_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- Properties

- If  $A$  is non-singular
  - All eigenvalues are non-zero
- If  $A$  is real and symmetric
  - All eigenvalues are real
  - The eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal
- If  $A$  is positive definite
  - All eigenvalues are positive

# Interpretation of eigenvectors and eigenvalues (1)

- If we view matrix **A** as a linear transformation, an eigenvector represents an invariant direction in the vector space
  - When transformed by **A**, any point lying on the direction defined by **v** will remain on that direction, and its magnitude will be multiplied by the corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$



- For example, the transformation which rotates 3-d vectors about the Z axis has vector  $[0 \ 0 \ 1]^T$  as its only eigenvector and 1 as the corresponding eigenvalue

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\beta & -\sin\beta & 0 \\ \sin\beta & \cos\beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \iff \begin{array}{c} \text{3D coordinate system with axes } x, y, z \\ \text{Rotation about the } z\text{-axis} \\ \text{Eigenvector } v = [0 \ 0 \ 1]^T \end{array}$$