



# ECS509U - Probability & Matrices

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*Week 10*



# Week 10: Learning Objectives

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- At the end of week 10 you should be able to:
  - calculate the dot product between vectors
  - compute the cosine of the angle between vectors
  - define vector spaces and subspaces (briefly)
  - examine and understand linear combinations of a set of vectors
  - determine the linear dependence and independence between vectors
  - find spanning sets of vectors



# Dot (or inner) product

- The **dot (or inner) product** between two vectors **u** and **v** is denoted as  **$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$**  and it is **a real number**
  - it is defined only when the vectors are of the same “dimensions”, i.e. have the same number of components
- Let us see the definition for 2 and 3 dimensional vectors:
- Let **u** and **v** be vectors in 3-space:  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ 
  - then the dot product  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3$
- Likewise, if **u** and **v** are vectors in 2-space:  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2)$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ 
  - then the dot product  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2$
- The definition can generalise for vectors in *n*-space



# Examples

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- Calculate the dot products below:
  - $\mathbf{a}=(9,-2)$  and  $\mathbf{b}=(4,18)$   
 $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (9)(4) + (-2)(18) = 0$
  - $\mathbf{u}=(3,-6,6)$  and  $\mathbf{v}=(4,2,0)$   
 $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (3)(4) + (-6)(2) + (6)(0) = 0$
  - $\mathbf{b} = (0, -1, -2)$  and  $\mathbf{c} = (0, 3, -1)$   
 $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} = (0)(0) + (-1)(3) + (-2)(-1) = -3 + 2 = -1$
  - $\mathbf{w}=(2,3,-4)$  and  $\mathbf{a}=(0,-1)$   
 $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{a}$  can not be defined because the vectors have a different number of components
- **Note that the dot product is similar to calculating the matrix product of one row vector (e.g.  $1 \times n$ ) and one column vector ( $n \times 1$ )**



# Properties of the dot product

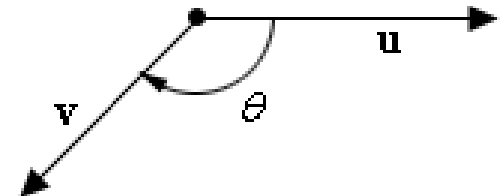
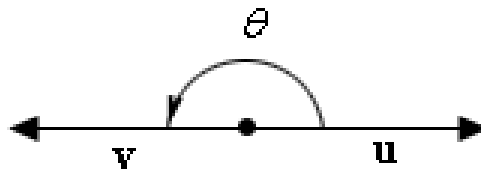
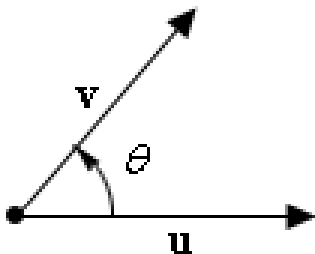
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- For any vectors **u**, **v**, **w**, and any scalar **c**, the following hold:

- $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- $(c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$
- $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \geq 0$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$

# The angle between two vectors

- Suppose that  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  are vectors in 2-space or 3-space, placed so that their initial point is the same
- Then the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is the **angle**  $\theta$  such that  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  ( $0^\circ \leq \theta \leq 180^\circ$ )
- There are always two angles formed by the two vectors - the one we will always choose is the one that satisfies  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$





# The angle between two vectors

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- We can get a simple formula for the **cosine of the angle** between two vectors as follows, assuming that **u** and **v** are non-zero vectors

$$\cos q = \frac{u \cdot v}{\|u\| \|v\|}$$

- Notice that the angle between the two vectors has a physical interpretation
  - It shows the **degree of similarity between the two vectors** (i.e. how close they are) - more on this later



# Examples

- Consider the following pairs of vectors in 3- and 2-space. What is the angle between the two vectors?

a)  $\mathbf{u}=(3,-1,6)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}=(4,2,0)$       b)  $\mathbf{a}=(9,-2)$ ,  $\mathbf{b}=(4,18)$

(a) We know that:  $\cos q = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{(3)(4) + (-1)(2) + (6)(0)}{\sqrt{3^2 + (-1)^2 + 6^2} \sqrt{4^2 + 2^2 + 0^2}} =$

$$\frac{10}{\sqrt{46} \sqrt{20}} = 0.3296902$$

From this we can calculate that the angle  $q = 70.75^\circ$  (note that we need a calculator for this and this is an optional step unless specifically asked by an exercise)

(b) Similarly, we find that  $\cos q = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|} = \frac{(9)(4) + (-2)(18)}{\sqrt{85} \sqrt{340}} = \frac{0}{\sqrt{85} \sqrt{340}} = 0$

and from this we know (without calculator) that  $q = 90^\circ$





# Some important properties

- We (should) know that  $-1 \leq \cos\theta \leq 1$
- This holds in the vector case because someone (someone called Schwarz) has proven that:

$$-1 \leq \frac{u \cdot v}{\|u\| \|v\|} \leq 1 \quad \textbf{Schwarz inequality}$$

- **Orthogonal vectors:** Two non-zero vectors  $u$ ,  $v$  are called orthogonal if and only if **their dot product is equal to zero:  $u \cdot v = 0$** 
  - note that if  $u \cdot v = 0$  then  $\cos\theta=0$  which means that the angle  $\theta$  between them will be  $90^\circ$

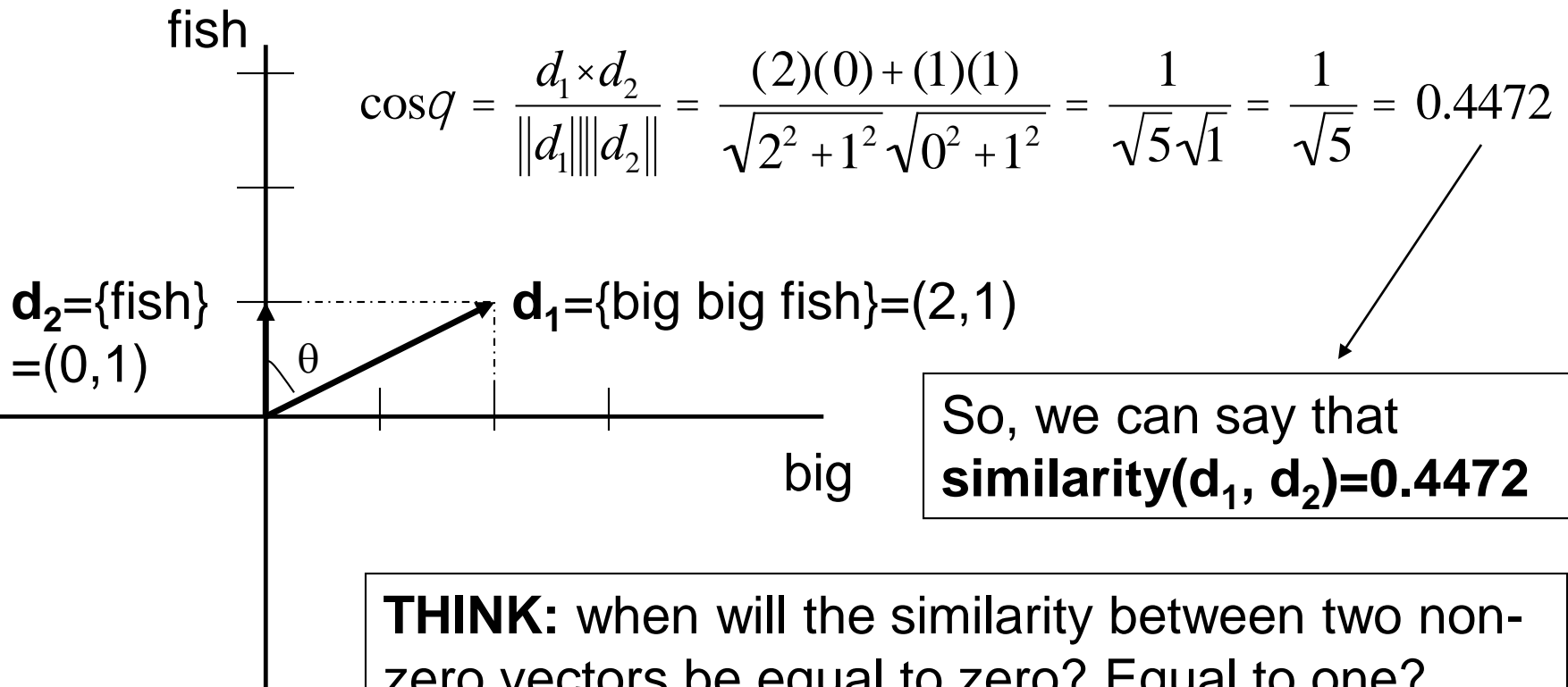


# A different example

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- Consider a very very very small language vocabulary with only two words: *big* and *fish*  
Consider two very very very small documents from that language:  
Document  $\mathbf{d}_1$  contains: {big big fish} and  
document  $\mathbf{d}_2$  contains: {fish}  
a) Represent the two documents graphically in a two-dimensional space, where the axis are the words of the vocabulary  
b) Find how similar  $\mathbf{d}_1$  is to  $\mathbf{d}_2$

# Example continued



**THINK:** when will the similarity between two non-zero vectors be equal to zero? Equal to one?

**zero:** when there is nothing in common between the two vectors

**one:** when the two vectors are identical



# The cosine as a similarity measure

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- We can use the cosine of the angle between two vectors to **measure their similarity**
  - **a similarity of 1** will mean that the two vectors are identical
  - **a similarity of 0** will mean that the two vectors have nothing in common (when we only use positive values for components like in the previous example)
- **Important properties** of similarity between objects ( $\text{similarity}(u,v) = \cos\theta$ ) :
  - **$\text{similarity}(u,v) = \text{similarity}(v,u)$**
  - **$\text{similarity}(u,u)=1$**  (a vector is always identical to itself)



# The cosine as a similarity measure

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- The cosine as a similarity measure is called the **cosine coefficient**
- The cosine coefficient is a very popular **measure of similarity** between objects in multi-dimensional spaces
  - Think of customers of an e-commerce system and their ratings of e.g. films (dimensions: number of films)
  - Think of a set of web pages and the terms they contain (dimensions: number of terms)
  - Many more applications in bioinformatics, image processing and analysis, etc. etc.



# The heart of Linear Algebra

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- This part of the module goes in the heart of Linear Algebra, and will eventually draw the link between matrices and vectors
- We will talk about:
  - Vector spaces and subspaces (**only briefly**)
  - **Linear combinations of vectors**
  - **Linear dependence and independence** between vectors
  - **Spanning sets, basis** and **dimension** of vector spaces and subspaces, and **changing the basis** of spaces
- We will start today and conclude this material in Week 11



# Vector spaces

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- What are **Vector Spaces**?
  - We have already seen some in our examples:  $\mathbf{R}^2$  and  $\mathbf{R}^3$
  - In fact, the most important vector spaces are denoted by  $\mathbf{R}^1$ ,  $\mathbf{R}^2$ ,  $\mathbf{R}^3$ , ....  $\mathbf{R}^n$  - there is one for every positive integer
  - For example the space  $\mathbf{R}^2$  consists of all vectors on the x-y plane where the components of the vectors are the x-y coordinates
- So vector spaces are spaces where we have a set of vectors, and where we can:
  - **add** any two vectors together
  - **multiply** vectors **by scalars** (real numbers)and where the result will still be a vector in the same space
- So, **vector spaces are closed under addition and scalar multiplication**



# Vector spaces

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- We know how to do these operations, we learnt this in Week 9
- Formally, a real vector space is a set of vectors as defined previously, **together with rules for vector addition and scalar multiplication** (we saw these rules in week 9)
- Normally our vectors will belong in one of the vectors  $\mathbf{R}^n$ 
  - we will start seeing them as **column vectors**
- However, the formal definition of vector spaces allows us to see other ‘things’ as vectors
  - for example, the space of any  $n \times m$  matrices





# Vector subspaces

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- A **vector subspace** of a vector space, is a nonempty subset of the vector space that satisfies two requirements:
  - **If we add any two vectors** in the subspace, their sum is still in the subspace
  - **If we multiply any vector in the subspace by a scalar**, the result is still in the subspace
- In other words, the subspace is a **subset of the vector space** that is **also “closed”** under **addition and scalar multiplication**



# Linear combinations of vectors

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- We say that a vector  $\mathbf{w}$  in some vector space  $V$  is a **linear combination** of the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ , all from the same vector space  $V$ , if there are scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  so that  $\mathbf{w}$  can be written as:

$$\mathbf{w} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n$$

Note that in linear combinations the operations involved are **vector addition** and **scalar multiplication**

- You can think of this as ‘mixing’ vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  in the ‘right proportions’ in order to get vector  $\mathbf{w}$ 
  - the ‘right proportions’ are given by the values of the scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$



# Example

- Is  $\mathbf{w}=(-12,20)$  a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1=(-1,2)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2=(4,-6)$ ?

If it is a linear combination, then it means that it can be expressed as:  $\mathbf{w} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2$ , so

$$(-12,20) = c_1(-1,2) + c_2(4,-6)$$

We then arrive at a 2x2 system of equations:

$$-c_1 + 4c_2 = -12$$

$$2c_1 - 6c_2 = 20$$

If the system is consistent (i.e. it has at least one solution) then  $\mathbf{w}$  can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$

You can verify that the system has a unique solution:  $c_1=4$ ,  $c_2=-2$ , so  $\mathbf{w}$  is a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$



# Another view of the same example

- We can express the linear combination from the previous example also in terms of column vectors:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} c_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix} c_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -12 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Equivalent to:}} \boxed{\begin{array}{l} -c_1 + 4c_2 = -12 \\ 2c_1 - 6c_2 = 20 \end{array}}$$

- This is another way to express systems of linear equations, of **any** size
- We will use this notation quite a lot from now on



# Spanning sets

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- Now assume that we have a set of vectors  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  in a vector space, and we **take all of their possible linear combinations**
- The set of all the linear combinations  $W$  is called **the spanning set of  $S$** :  $W = \text{span}(S)$ , or  $W = \text{span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n)$

We can also say that vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  **span  $W$**



# Example

- Describe the span of the following set of vectors:  
 $\mathbf{v}_1=(1,0,0)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2=(0,1,0)$

The span of this set of vectors, is the set of all their linear combinations, and we can write down a general linear combination for these two vectors as:

$$a\mathbf{v}_1+b\mathbf{v}_2 = (a,0,0)+(0,b,0) = (a,b,0)$$

So it looks like the span of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2$  will be the set of vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^3$  of the form  $(a,b,0)$  for **any** values of  $a, b$  (for any real numbers  $a, b$ )

## Spanning sets example no. 2

- Consider the following three vectors:  $\mathbf{v}_1=(1,2,-1)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2=(3,-1,1)$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_3=(-3,8,-5)$ . Determine if these three vectors will span  $\mathbf{R}^3$ .

If they span  $\mathbf{R}^3$ , then if we pick a random vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{u}=(a,b,c)$  it can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_3$ . So essentially we need to determine whether we can find scalars  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3$  such that:  $\mathbf{u} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3\mathbf{v}_3 \Rightarrow (a,b,c) = c_1(1,2,-1) + c_2(3,-1,1) + c_3(-3,8,-5) \Rightarrow (a,b,c) = (c_1, 2c_1, -c_1) + (3c_2, -c_2, c_2) + (-3c_3, 8c_3, -5c_3) \Rightarrow (a,b,c) = (c_1+3c_2-3c_3, 2c_1-c_2+8c_3, -c_1+c_2-5c_3)$ . From here we get a 3x3 system of equations, where the unknowns are  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3$ :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} c_1 + 3c_2 - 3c_3 = a \\ 2c_1 - c_2 + 8c_3 = b \\ -c_1 + c_2 - 5c_3 = c \end{array} \right\} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 \\ 2 & -1 & 8 \\ -1 & 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

If we calculate the determinant of the coefficient matrix in this system, we will find that it is zero, so the system will not have a unique solution.



# Spanning sets example no. 2 cntd.

So our system can have infinite solutions, or it can have no solutions. But we want to know that there will be a solution for EVERY choice of  $(a,b,c)$  on the right hand side. However with the determinant at zero, we now know that there will be at least one combination of  $(a,b,c)$  that will make our system unsolvable. Let's see how far we can get with Gauss, trying to solve the system via the augmented matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 & a \\ 2 & -1 & 8 & b \\ -1 & 1 & -5 & c \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{row operations ...}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 & a \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & b+2c \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a-4b-7c \end{bmatrix}$$

Look at the last row of the matrix : it says that  $0c_1+0c_2+0c_3 = a-4b-7c$ .

So, if there is even one set of  $a,b,c$  that makes  $a-4b-7c$  be not equal to zero, the system will have no solution (because the last row will say  $0=\text{not-zero}$ ). We can clearly find such a set of  $a,b,c$  (e.g. 1, -2, 1). So there is at least one set of  $a,b,c$  (i.e. there is at least one vector in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ ) that makes the system not solvable (i.e. that it is not a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ ). So  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$  DO NOT span  $\mathbf{R}^3$





# Linear (in)dependence

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- Suppose  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is a non-empty set of vectors, and form the equation ( $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are scalars):

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

This equation will always have at least one solution (the trivial solution for  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_n = 0$ )

- **If the trivial solution is the only solution** to this equation, then the vectors in the set  $S$  are called **linearly independent** and the set is called a linearly independent set
- **If there is another solution**, then the vectors in the set  $S$  are called **linearly dependent** and the set is called a linearly dependent set



# Example

- Determine if the following sets of vectors are linearly dependent or independent:  $\mathbf{u}=(3, -1)$  and  $\mathbf{v}=(-2, 2)$

We take  $c_1\mathbf{u}+c_2\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{0}$ , which means:

$(3c_1 - 2c_2, -c_1 + 2c_2)=\mathbf{0}$ , where the right part is the zero vector, so  $(3c_1 - 2c_2, -c_1 + 2c_2) = (0,0)$

from where we get a  $2 \times 2$  homogeneous system of equations:

$$3c_1 - 2c_2 = 0$$

$$-c_1 + 2c_2 = 0$$

Solving this (do it as an exercise), will give you only the unique solution  $c_1=0, c_2=0$  (the trivial solution), and so the two vectors are linearly independent



# Example

- Do the same for the vectors:  
 $\mathbf{v}_1=(2,-2,4)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_2=(3,-5,4)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_3=(0,1,1)$

We follow the same procedure as in the previous example, and reach the following expression:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} c_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} c_2 + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} c_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ Solving this we will get } c_1 = -3/4t, c_2 = 1/2t, c_3 = t \text{ where}$$

$t$  is any real number

We have more than the trivial solution here, so the three vectors are linearly dependent

Notice that if we choose  $t=1$  then we have:  $-3/4\mathbf{v}_1 + 1/2\mathbf{v}_2 + \mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$  from where we get for example that:  $\mathbf{v}_3 = 3/4\mathbf{v}_1 - 1/2\mathbf{v}_2$ . The same could be done for any  $t$

So, any one of the dependent vectors can be expressed as a linear combination of the others (i.e. we could also express  $\mathbf{v}_2$  in terms of  $\mathbf{v}_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_3$ , etc.)

**You could also just find the determinant of the coefficient matrix = 0.**



# Three important points

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- A finite set of vectors that contains the zero vector will be linearly dependent
- Suppose that  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$  is a set of vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . If  $k > n$ , then the vectors in  $S$  will be linearly dependent
  - for example, any 3 vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^2$  will be linearly dependent, any 4 in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ , etc.
- If a set of vectors is linearly dependent, it means that at least one of the vectors can be expressed as a linear combination of the others (see previous example) - **extremely important !!!**



# Summary of lecture

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- In Week 10 we covered:
  - Dot product between vectors, angle between vectors
  - Vector spaces (very briefly)
  - Linear combinations of vectors, spans of sets of vectors
  - Linear dependence and independence
- For Friday's tutorial:
  - Come to the tutorial having attempted the week's exercises