

Vector Spaces

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Looking Back & Forth



Last time: linear systems

- linear operations, linear equation systems
- Gauss elimination, LU decomposition

Repetition: left- vs. right-multiplication

Today: vector spaces

- basis of a vector space
- standard basis
- basis of a sub-space
- coordinates wrt. a basis
- changing the basis
- changing the basis of a mapping
- projections

Repetition: Left-, Right-Multiplication



Matrix multiplication in order to execute an operation:

- left-multiplication of \mathbf{A} with \mathbf{M} , i.e., $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{A}$:
 - matrix \mathbf{M} represents the operation executed on \mathbf{A}
 - \mathbf{M} tells, how \mathbf{A} 's rows are linearly recombined into \mathbf{B} 's rows
 - \mathbf{B} 's row $\#i$ is a linear comb. of \mathbf{A} 's rows, coefficients: \mathbf{M} 's row $\#i$
- right multiplication of \mathbf{A} with \mathbf{M} , i.e., $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{B}$:
 - matrix \mathbf{M} represents the operation executed on \mathbf{A} (as above)
 - \mathbf{M} tells, how \mathbf{A} 's columns are linearly recombined into \mathbf{B} 's cols.
 - \mathbf{B} 's col. $\#i$ is a linear comb. of \mathbf{A} 's cols., coefficients: \mathbf{M} 's col. $\#i$

Illustration

Left-multiplication of M with C , i.e., CM :

– the new row i =

$$\begin{aligned}
 & c_{i,1} \cdot \text{old row 1} \\
 & + c_{i,2} \cdot \text{old row 2} \\
 & + c_{i,m} \cdot \text{old row } m
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \text{new row } i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ c_{i,1} & c_{i,2} & \dots & c_{i,m} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{old row 1} \\ \text{old row 2} \\ \vdots \\ \text{old row } m \end{bmatrix}$$

Right-multiplication of M with C , i.e., MC :

– the new col. i =

$$\begin{aligned}
 & c_{1,i} \cdot \text{old col. 1} \\
 & + c_{2,i} \cdot \text{old col. 2} \\
 & + c_{m,i} \cdot \text{old col. } m
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{old col. 1} & \text{old col. 2} & \dots & \text{old col. } m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dots \\ c_{1,i} \\ c_{2,i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{m,i} \\ \dots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \text{new col. } i & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

Operations: Examples (left-mult.)



Swapping equations (permutation operation)

- operation Π : swapping rows 1 and 4 \Rightarrow left-multiplication with \mathbf{P}

$$\begin{array}{l} \Pi [\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}] \\ \Pi [\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}] = \Pi [\mathbf{b}] \\ \mathbf{P} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{b} \end{array} \quad \left| \quad \mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right. \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{"bring row \#4 here"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"keep row \#2 in place"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"keep row \#3 in place"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"bring row \#1 here"} \end{array}$$

Eliminate a variable (elimination operation)

- operation Λ : use pivot row 2 to ... \Rightarrow left-multiplication with \mathbf{E}

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{A} = \\ \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -6 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \end{array} \quad \left| \quad \mathbf{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right. \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{"keep row \#1 in place"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"keep the pivot row \#2"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"add twice the pivot row"} \\ \rightarrow \text{"add 3* the pivot row"} \end{array}$$

Operations: Examples (left-mult.)

Eliminate a variable (elimination operation)

- operation Λ : use pivot row 2 to ... \Rightarrow left-multiplication with \mathbf{E}

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -6 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

\rightarrow "keep row #1 in place"
 \rightarrow "keep the pivot row #2"
 \rightarrow "add twice the pivot row"
 \rightarrow "add 3* the pivot row"

Update ("undo" elimination operation)

- operation Λ' : compensate $\Lambda \Rightarrow$ left-multiplication with \mathbf{E}'

$$\mathbf{E}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$


\rightarrow "keep row #1 in place"
 \rightarrow "keep the pivot row #2"
 \rightarrow "subtract twice the pivot row"
 \rightarrow "subtract 3* the pivot row"

Operations: Examples (right-mult.)



Do a linear combination of vectors \mathbf{v}_i

- operation $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{c}}$ (coeffs. \mathbf{c}) \Rightarrow right-multiplication with \mathbf{c}

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{c}} \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$


"add col. #1 and twice col. #2"

Vector spaces...

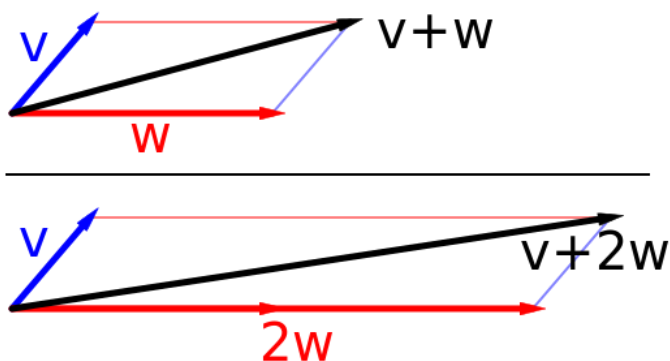
- ... are **omnipresent in visual computing** (and elsewhere!)
 - the 2D / 3D "world" in which objects "live"
 - the camera space in computer graphics
 - etc.
- ... **transformations** (in particular linear transformations) map between spaces
 - affine transformations like rotation, scaling, ...
 - viewing transformation, projection
 - etc.

Vector Spaces



A vector space (a space) is

- a set of vectors such that every possible, specific lin. comb. of them is also in the same space



Properties:

Axiom

Meaning

Associativity of addition

$$\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$$

Commutativity of addition

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$$

Identity element of addition

There exists an element $\mathbf{0} \in V$, called the *zero vector*, such that $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$.

Inverse elements of addition

For every $\mathbf{v} \in V$, there exists an element $-\mathbf{v} \in V$, called the *additive inverse* of \mathbf{v} , such that $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$.

Compatibility of scalar multiplication with field multiplication

$$a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$$

Identity element of scalar multiplication

$1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$, where 1 denotes the *multiplicative identity* in F .

Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to vector addition

$$a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$$

Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to field addition

$$(a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}$$

Vectors Spanning a Vector Space

Given some vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$:

- they *span a vector space*,
encompassing all possible (specific) linear combinations
of them: $c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{v}_n$

Basis of a Vector Space

Vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$:

- form a basis of a vector space Ω ,
 - if they are linearly independent
 - *and* if they span Ω
- such a basis
 - is *orthogonal*, if $\mathbf{v}_i^\top \mathbf{v}_j = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$
 - is *orthonormal*, if $\mathbf{v}_i^\top \mathbf{v}_j = \delta_{ij}$ (Kronecker delta δ_{ij}),
for ex., the *standard basis* $(\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \dots \mathbf{e}_n)$ – more in the following
- any vector \mathbf{v} (in vector space Ω , spanned by $\mathbf{v}_i, i=1\dots n$)
 - can be written as $\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n) \mathbf{c}$
 - with the \mathbf{c} being called the *coordinates* of \mathbf{v}
with respect to basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$
- basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ (set of vectors) vs. basis-matrix $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n)$

Basis – example

Vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1 \ 2)^\top$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (2 \ 1)^\top$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 –

they are linearly independent,

since equation $(\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2) \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$ can only be solved for $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$,

and they span all of \mathbb{R}^2 ,

i.e., equation $(\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2) \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{d}$ can be solved (for \mathbf{c}) for any \mathbf{d}

Not a Basis – example 1

Vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1 \ 2)^\top$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (2 \ 1)^\top$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = (1 \ 1)^\top$
do *not* form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 ,

since the first condition (linear independency of all \mathbf{v}_i)
is violated:

it is possible to find a non-trivial $\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{0}$
such that $(\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \mathbf{v}_3) \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$, for ex. $\mathbf{c}^* = (1 \ 1 \ -3)^\top$:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 - 3\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + 2 - 3 \\ 2 + 1 - 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Not a Basis – example 2

Vector $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1 \ 2)^\top$ does *not* form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 ,
since the second condition (all \mathbf{v}_i must span $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^2$)
is violated:

we can find a vector $\mathbf{d} \in \Omega = \mathbb{R}^2$
that cannot be written as a linear combination of all \mathbf{v}_i ,
for ex. $\mathbf{d}^* = (2 \ 1)^\top$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} c = \mathbf{d}^* = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{cannot be solved for any } c$$

In other words:

**a basis of an n -dimensional vector space
must consist of n vectors**

Standard Basis of \mathbb{R}^n



Often implicitly,
we “per default” assume the standard basis \mathbf{E} (of \mathbb{R}^n):

- the basis vectors \mathbf{e}_i of \mathbf{E} are given as:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- matrix \mathbf{E} , representing \mathbf{E} , is then, of course, the identity matrix \mathbf{I}
- accordingly, the standard basis \mathbf{E} is then also orthonormal, in particular is $\mathbf{E}^{-1} = \mathbf{E}^* = \mathbf{E}$

Basis of a Sub-Space

A basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\}$ with all $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, i=1\dots m$, can span

- either all of \mathbb{R}^n – then $m=n$
- or a sub-space of \mathbb{R}^n which is m -dimensional ($m < n$), including the origin ($\mathbf{0}$)

Examples

- standard basis $\mathbf{E}_n = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ spans all of \mathbb{R}^n
- the basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ with

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

spans a two-dimensional sub-space of \mathbb{R}^3 , i.e., a plane in 3D

Coordinates wrt. a Basis

Given a basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of a vector space Ω

- and its according matrix $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n)$,
- we can write any $\mathbf{v} \in \Omega$ as $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{c}$
- with \mathbf{c}
being \mathbf{v} 's **coordinates** *wrt. basis B*

[see MATLAB example 2b_A]

Coordinates – example 1



Whenever we write a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ in coordinate form, i.e., as $\mathbf{v} = (v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n)^\top$,

we implicitly assume that the v_i are the n coordinates of \mathbf{v} wrt. the standard basis \mathcal{E} with $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ and $\mathbf{E} = (\mathbf{e}_1 \ \mathbf{e}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{e}_n) = \mathbf{I}_n$.

Then, clearly, \mathbf{v} can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{I} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{E} \mathbf{v} &= (\mathbf{e}_1 \quad \mathbf{e}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_n) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= v_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + v_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + \dots + v_n \mathbf{e}_n \end{aligned}$$

Coordinates – example 2 (a)

Given two linearly independent, three-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1 \ 1 \ 1)^\top$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (2 \ 1 \ 0)^\top$, they form a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ of a plane Π in 3D ($\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2)$).

Any vector \mathbf{v} in plane Π can then be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2) \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2$$

with $\mathbf{c} = (c_1 \ c_2)^\top$ being the (2D) coordinates of \mathbf{v} wrt. basis \mathcal{B} .

Coordinates – example 2 (b)

Any vector \mathbf{v} in plane Π can then be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2) \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{v}_2$$

with $\mathbf{c} = (c_1 \ c_2)^\top$ being the (2D) coordinates of \mathbf{v} wrt. basis \mathcal{B} .

Considering vector $\mathbf{v} = (4 \ 3 \ 2)^\top \in \Pi$,

\mathbf{v} can be written

- either wrt. the standard basis $\mathcal{E}_3 = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$
- or wrt. basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{I}_3 \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notation for “wrt. to basis B ”

When working with a particular basis (B)

- it seems appropriate to indicate this explicitly (otherwise, it can be *very* confusing very easily!)
- one notation to do so, is to use subscripts to indicate with respect to which basis the coordinates are to be interpreted:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}_3} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- ! Note that we are only considering one vector \mathbf{v} here –
 - just with *different coordinates* wrt. two *different bases*

Changing the Basis (1)

We can change the basis of a vector \mathbf{v} :

- we need to know, how to get
 - from \mathbf{v} 's coordinates wrt. basis \mathbf{B} , i.e., $(c_i)_{\mathbf{B}}$
 - to \mathbf{v} 's coordinates wrt. basis \mathbf{C} , i.e., $(d_i)_{\mathbf{C}}$, so that $(c_i)_{\mathbf{B}} = (d_i)_{\mathbf{C}}$
- by now,
we know, how to get from basis \mathbf{B} to the standard basis \mathbf{E} :

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}_n} = \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- this means:
if we know \mathbf{v} 's coordinates wrt. \mathbf{B} (and matrix \mathbf{B} , of course),
we can get \mathbf{v} 's standard coordinates

Changing the Basis (2a)



Of course, we also need to get back (from \mathbf{E} to \mathbf{B}), if possible:

– let's start with an example:

Again, we consider the plane $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^3$,
spanned by $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1 \ 1 \ 1)^\top$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (2 \ 1 \ 0)^\top$, as above.

We now consider a vector \mathbf{v} in this plane with the following
standard coordinates: $\mathbf{v} = (5 \ 3 \ 1)^\top$.

What are \mathbf{v} 's coordinates $(c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$ wrt. basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$?

Changing the Basis (2b)



Of course, we also need to get back (from \mathbf{E} to \mathbf{B}), if possible:

– let's start with an example:

What are \mathbf{v} 's coordinates $(c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$ wrt. basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$?

We know that $(v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$.

Accordingly, we can solve $(v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$ for the c_j :
(it's a system of linear equations, after all)

Changing the Basis (2c)

Of course, we also need to get back (from **E** to **B**), if possible:

– let's start with an example:

Accordingly, we can solve $(v_i)_E = \mathbf{B} (c_j)_B$ for the c_j :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_E = \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

leading to the augmented matrix

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

Changing the Basis (2d)



Of course, we also need to get back (from ***E*** to ***B***), if possible:

– let's start with an example:

Gaussian elimination leads to

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & -4 \end{array} \right)$$

first, and then to

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Changing the Basis (2e)

Of course, we also need to get back (from ***E*** to ***B***), if possible:

– let's start with an example:

first, and then to

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Accordingly,

$-c_2 = -2$ ($\Rightarrow c_2 = 2$) and $c_1 + 2c_2 = 5$ ($\Rightarrow c_1 = 1$),
giving $(c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$ from $(v_i)_{\mathcal{E}}$.

double-check and compute **B** (1 2)^T!

Changing the Basis (3)

If $n = m$, i.e., if the n -dim. basis vectors \mathbf{v}_i span all of \mathbb{R}^n , we can use the inverse of $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n)$, i.e., \mathbf{B}^{-1} , to convert standard coordinates to \mathcal{B} -coordinates:

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{B}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

If basis \mathcal{B} is orthonormal (as \mathcal{E}), then $\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^*$, which makes going back and forth even easier:

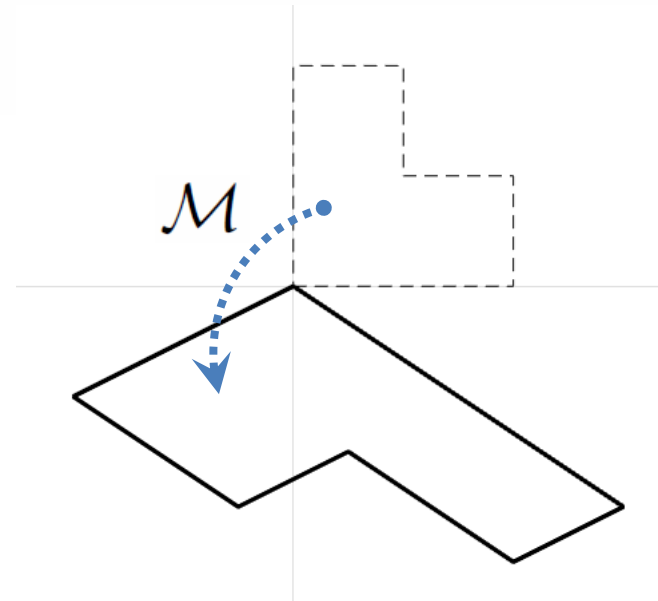
$$(v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \text{and} \quad (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{B}^* (v_i)_{\mathcal{E}}$$

Changing the Basis of Mappings (1)



Assume we have a linear mapping \mathcal{M} from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m , i.e., $\mathcal{M} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}$ (in standard coordinates).

The left-multiplication with which matrix \mathbf{D} performs the same transformation $\mathcal{M} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, if we consider \mathbf{v} in terms of \mathcal{B} -coordinates instead of standard coordinates?



note that the mapping stays the same irrespective of which coordinates are used

Changing the Basis of Mappings (2)



Using the above solution for a change of the basis, we can achieve the same mapping \mathcal{M} by first changing the basis (back) to the standard basis, before then using \mathbf{A} to do the transformation:

$$(v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$$

leading to

$$\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} (v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{D} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Changing the Basis of Mappings (3)



If we wish to consider $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})$ in terms of another basis \mathcal{G} , we can use the other solution to convert $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})_{\mathcal{E}}$ into $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})_{\mathcal{G}}$:

$$(c_j)_{\mathcal{G}} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} (v_i)_{\mathcal{E}}$$

leading to

$$\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})_{\mathcal{G}} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{D} (c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Realizing $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})$, based on considering \mathbf{v} in \mathcal{B} -coordinates and the result, $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{v})$, in \mathcal{G} -coords., $\mathcal{M}((c_j)_{\mathcal{B}})_{\mathcal{G}}$ amounts to the left-multiplication of $(c_j)_{\mathcal{B}}$ with $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}$.

Changing the Basis of Mappings (4)



Accordingly, we can also do it the other way 'round:

We could first consider \mathbf{v} in \mathcal{B} -coordinates,
then applying a linear mapping (by left-multiplying with \mathbf{D})
to end up at a result in \mathcal{G} -coordinates,
before reverting to standard coordinates from there.

This means that we can then write

$$\mathcal{M}((v_i)_{\mathcal{E}})_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{A} (v_i)_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}^{-1} (v_i)_{\mathcal{E}}$$

and we read it in the following way:

first, we change the basis of \mathbb{R}^n (to \mathcal{B} -coordinates),
then, we left-multiply with \mathbf{D} ,
giving a result in \mathbb{R}^m (in \mathcal{G} -coordinates),
before we eventually change back to standard coordinates.

Illustration (1)

T maps from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m ... $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}$ in std. coords. E_n, E_m

... \mathbf{B}_n : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^n , ergo $[\mathbf{v}]_{E_n} = \mathbf{B}_n [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{B}_n}$

\mathbf{B}_m : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^m , ergo $[\mathbf{v}]_{E_m} = \mathbf{B}_m [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{B}_m}$

$$\Rightarrow [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v})]_{E_m} = \mathbf{B}_m \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}_n^{-1} [\mathbf{v}]_{E_n}$$



Illustration (2)

T maps from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m ... **T(v) = A v** in std. coords. E_n, E_m

... B_n : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^n , ergo $[v]_{E_n} = B_n [v]_{B_n}$

B_m : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^m , ergo $[T(v)]_{E_m} = B_m [T(v)]_{B_m}$

$$\Rightarrow [T(v)]_{E_m} = B_m D B_n^{-1} [v]_{E_n}$$

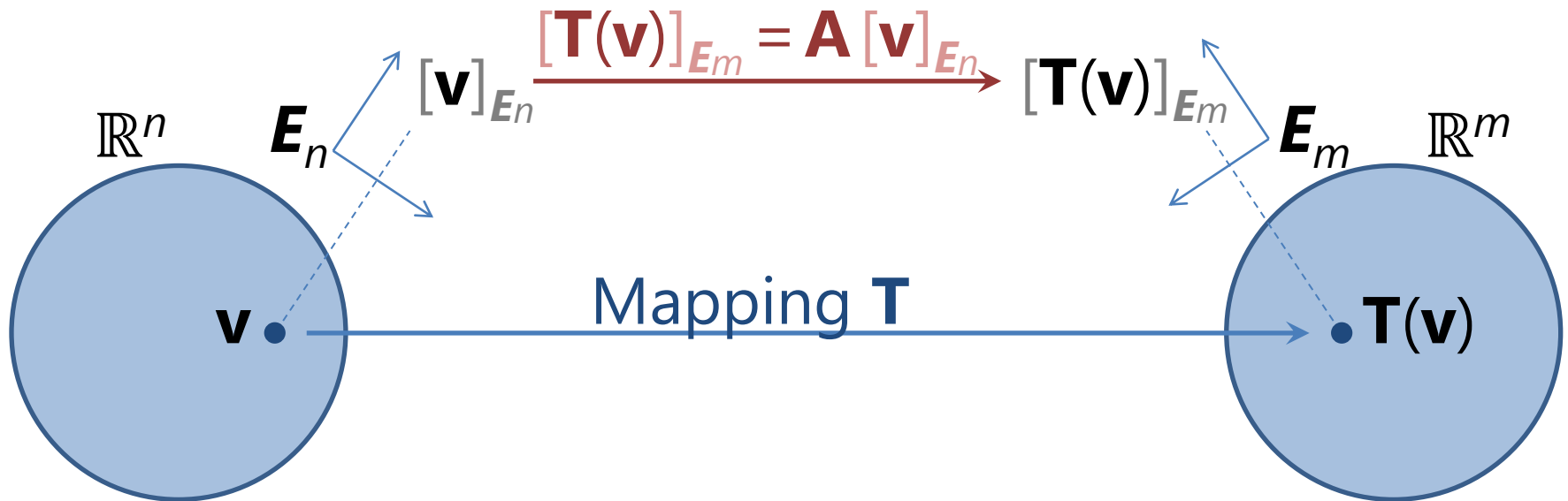


Illustration (3)

T maps from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m ... **T(v) = A v** in std. coords. E_n, E_m

... B_n : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^n , ergo $[v]_{E_n} = B_n [v]_{B_n}$

B_m : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^m , ergo $[T(v)]_{E_m} = B_m [T(v)]_{B_m}$

$$\Rightarrow [T(v)]_{E_m} = B_m D B_n^{-1} [v]_{E_n}$$

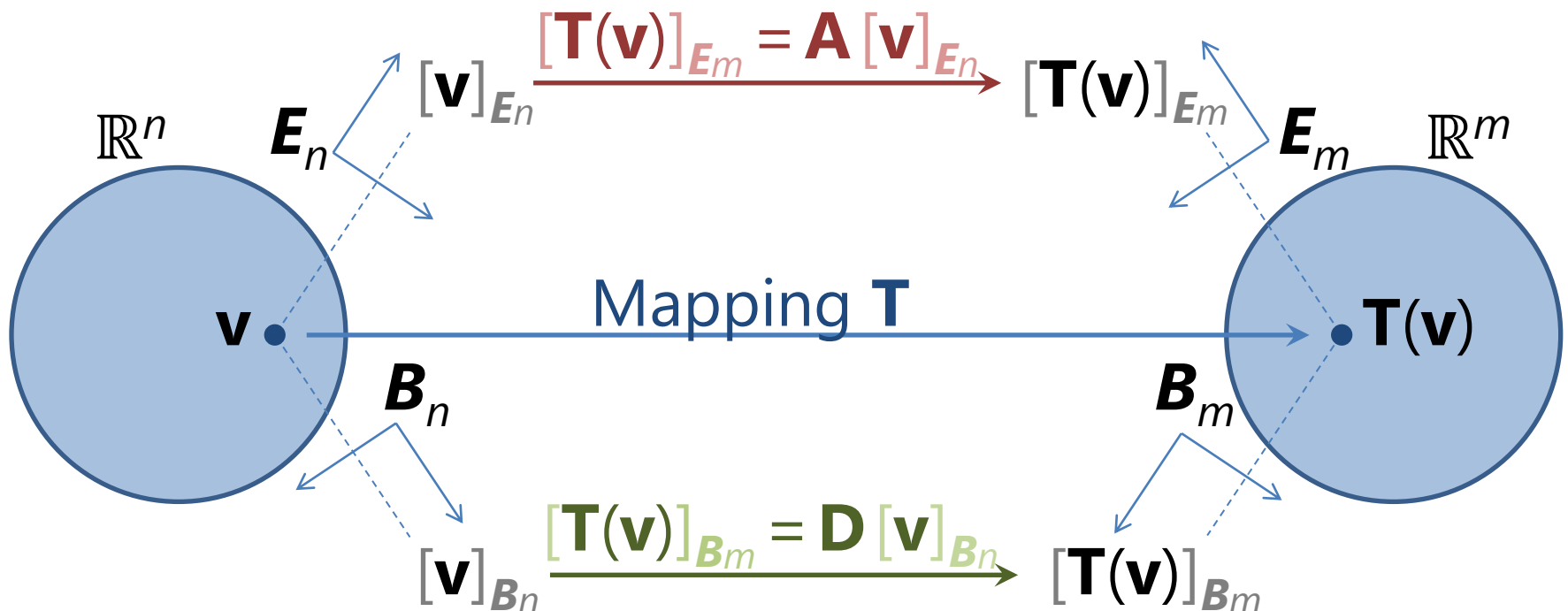


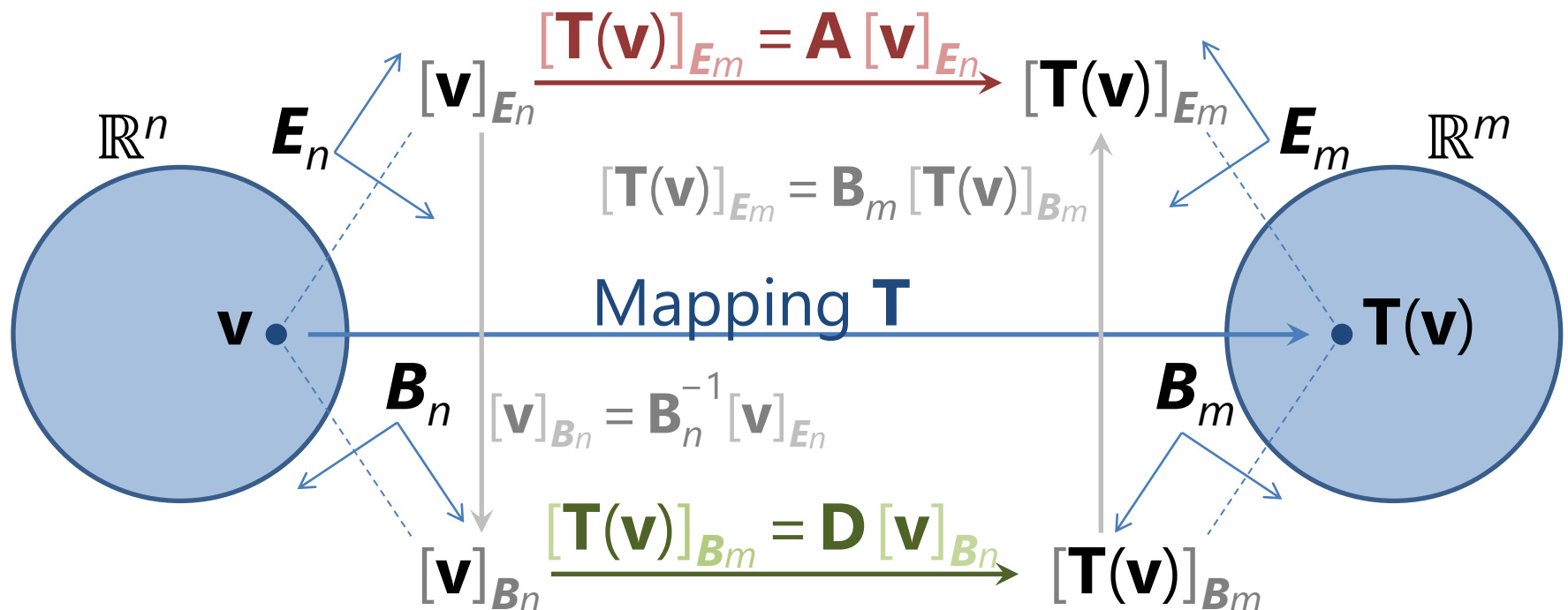
Illustration (4)

T maps from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m ... $\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}$ in std. coords. $\mathbf{E}_n, \mathbf{E}_m$

... \mathbf{B}_n : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^n , ergo $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{E}_n} = \mathbf{B}_n [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{B}_n}$

\mathbf{B}_m : alternative basis of \mathbb{R}^m , ergo $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{E}_m} = \mathbf{B}_m [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{B}_m}$

$$\Rightarrow [\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v})]_{\mathbf{E}_m} = \mathbf{B}_m \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}_n^{-1} [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathbf{E}_n}$$

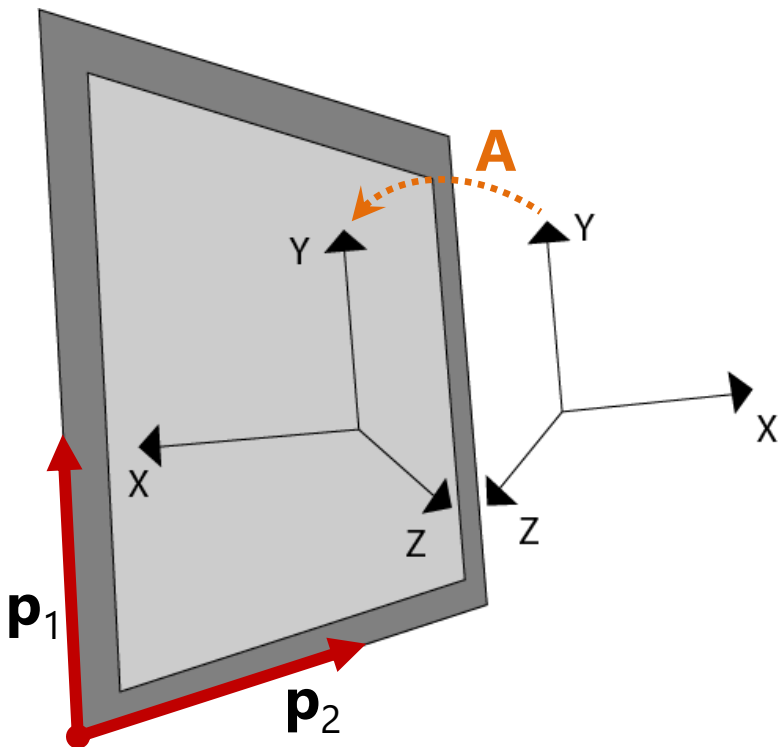


Mapping Example (1)

Assume a plane p with basis p_1 and p_2 in 3D:

- assume further that the left-multiplication with \mathbf{A} (in std. coords.) should amount to mirroring 3D-vectors \mathbf{v} about plane p :
- now find \mathbf{A}

$$p_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



es this straight-forward!

³ (with matrix \mathbf{B}) that is "aligned" with p ,
 \mathbf{b}_3 orthogonal to \mathbf{b}_1 and \mathbf{b}_2

of \mathbf{B} ,

$$\mathbf{b}_3 = \mathbf{b}_1 \times \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

nd \mathbf{B} -coordinate!

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Mapping Example (1)

Assume a plane \mathbf{p} with basis \mathbf{p}_1 and \mathbf{p}_2 in 3D:

- assume further that the left-multiplication with \mathbf{A} (in std. coords.) should amount to mirroring 3D-vectors \mathbf{v} about plane \mathbf{p} :
 $\mathbf{p}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{p}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- now find \mathbf{A}

A change of the basis makes this straight-forward!

- let's assume a basis \mathbf{B} of \mathbb{R}^3 (with matrix \mathbf{B}) that is "aligned" with \mathbf{p} , i.e., $\mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{p}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \mathbf{p}_2$, and \mathbf{b}_3 orthogonal to \mathbf{b}_1 and \mathbf{b}_2
- given vectors \mathbf{v} in terms of \mathbf{B} , mirroring about plane \mathbf{p} is equal to negating the 3rd \mathbf{B} -coordinate!
 $\mathbf{b}_3 = \mathbf{b}_1 \times \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$
- thus $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1}$ with
$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Mapping Example (2, computing B^{-1})



$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{aug}} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ 5 & -1 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -11 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -16 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 11 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -27 & -5 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 11 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5/27 & -1/27 & -1/27 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2/27 & 5/27 & 5/27 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1/27 & -16/27 & 11/27 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5/27 & -1/27 & -1/27 \end{array} \right)$$



Mapping Example (3, computing \mathbf{A} , etc.)



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ 5 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finding \mathbf{A} was easier via \mathbf{B}

we "test" \mathbf{A} with $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2$:

$$\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2+0 \\ 4-1 \\ 6+1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

think first – what to expect?

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{next, we "check" } \mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ 6 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

$$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ -5 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} -23 & 10 & 10 \\ 10 & 25 & -2 \\ 10 & -2 & 25 \end{pmatrix}$$

Mapping Example (3, computing **A**, etc.)



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ 5 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finding **A was easier via **B****

we "test" **A** with $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2$:

$$\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2+0 \\ 4-1 \\ 6+1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{next, we "check" } \mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

$$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ -5 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} -23 & 10 & 10 \\ 10 & 25 & -2 \\ 10 & -2 & 25 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ 6 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

think again – what to expect?

Mapping Example (3, computing \mathbf{A} , etc.)



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ 5 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finding \mathbf{A} was easier via \mathbf{B}

we "test" \mathbf{A} with $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2$:

$$\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2+0 \\ 4-1 \\ 6+1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{next, we "check" } \mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ 6 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

$$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 5 \\ -1 & -16 & 11 \\ -5 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \frac{1}{27} \begin{pmatrix} -23 & 10 & 10 \\ 10 & 25 & -2 \\ 10 & -2 & 25 \end{pmatrix}$$

Projection

Projecting some data \mathbf{D} onto some (sub)space Ω ...

... means to “talk about \mathbf{D} in terms (coordinates) of Ω (only)” — obviously, this reminds us of bases and the change of a basis!

Formal definition of projection

- a projection \mathbf{P} is a linear operation that fulfills $\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}$, i.e., if applied a 2nd time, nothing changes anymore

Example:

- projection onto a line with \mathbf{u} as a unit vector: $\mathbf{P}_u = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^T$

$$\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{u} \ \mathbf{u}_\perp) \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & c_2 \end{pmatrix}^T \quad \mathbf{P}_u \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{P}_u (c_1 \mathbf{u} + c_2 \mathbf{u}_\perp) = \mathbf{P}_u c_1 \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{P}_u c_2 \mathbf{u}_\perp =$$

express \mathbf{v} in terms of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{u}_\perp

- generalizes, accordingly:

given orthonormal $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_k)$ defines a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then

$\mathbf{P}_A = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$ projects from \mathbb{R}^n onto \mathbf{A}

$$c_1 \mathbf{P}_u \mathbf{u} + c_2 \mathbf{P}_u \mathbf{u}_\perp = c_1 \mathbf{u} \underbrace{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u} \underbrace{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}_\perp}_0 =$$

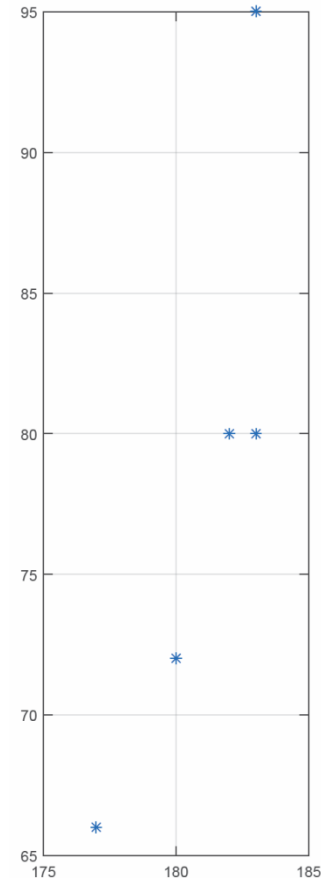
$$c_1 \mathbf{u}$$

outer product

Projection Example (1)

Assume, we are in \mathbb{R}^2 :

- assume further, we have vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^2$,
given also a matrix $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n)$ – ex.: $\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 180 & 183 & 183 & 182 & 177 \\ 72 & 95 & 80 & 80 & 66 \end{pmatrix}$



[see MATLAB example 2b_B]

Projection Example (2)

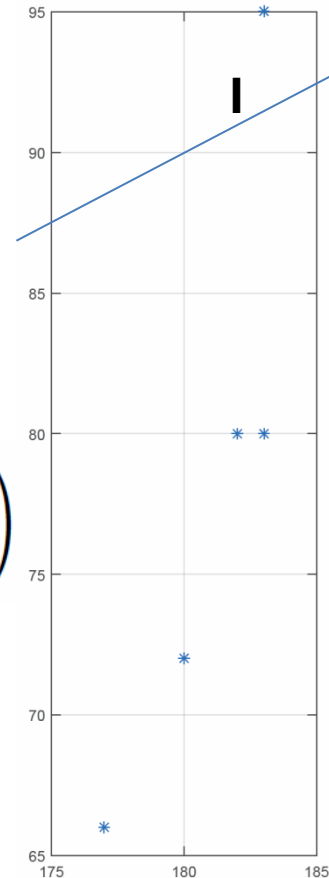
Assume, we are in \mathbb{R}^2 :

- assume further, we have vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^2$,
given also a matrix $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n)$ – ex.: $\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 180 & 183 & 183 & 182 & 177 \\ 72 & 95 & 80 & 80 & 66 \end{pmatrix}$
- further, we assume $\mathbf{d} = (2 \ 1)^\top$
a 1D subspace (a line \mathbf{l}), defined by $s\mathbf{d}$, $s \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\mathbf{L} = \{\mathbf{d}'\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbf{l} with $\mathbf{d}' = \mathbf{d}/|\mathbf{d}|$
and $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{d}'$ the corresponding "matrix"

Assume

- the projection onto \mathbf{l} is defined by $\mathbf{P}_l = \mathbf{d}' \mathbf{d}'^\top$
- $\mathbf{P}_l = \mathbf{d}' \mathbf{d}'^\top = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8944 \\ 0.4472 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.8944 & 0.4472 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.2 \end{pmatrix}$
- projecting \mathbf{V}
then means to compute $\mathbf{P}_l \mathbf{V}$ as

$$\mathbf{P}_l \mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 172.8 & 184.4 & 178.4 & 177.6 & 168.0 \\ 86.4 & 92.2 & 89.2 & 88.8 & 84.0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Projection Example (3)

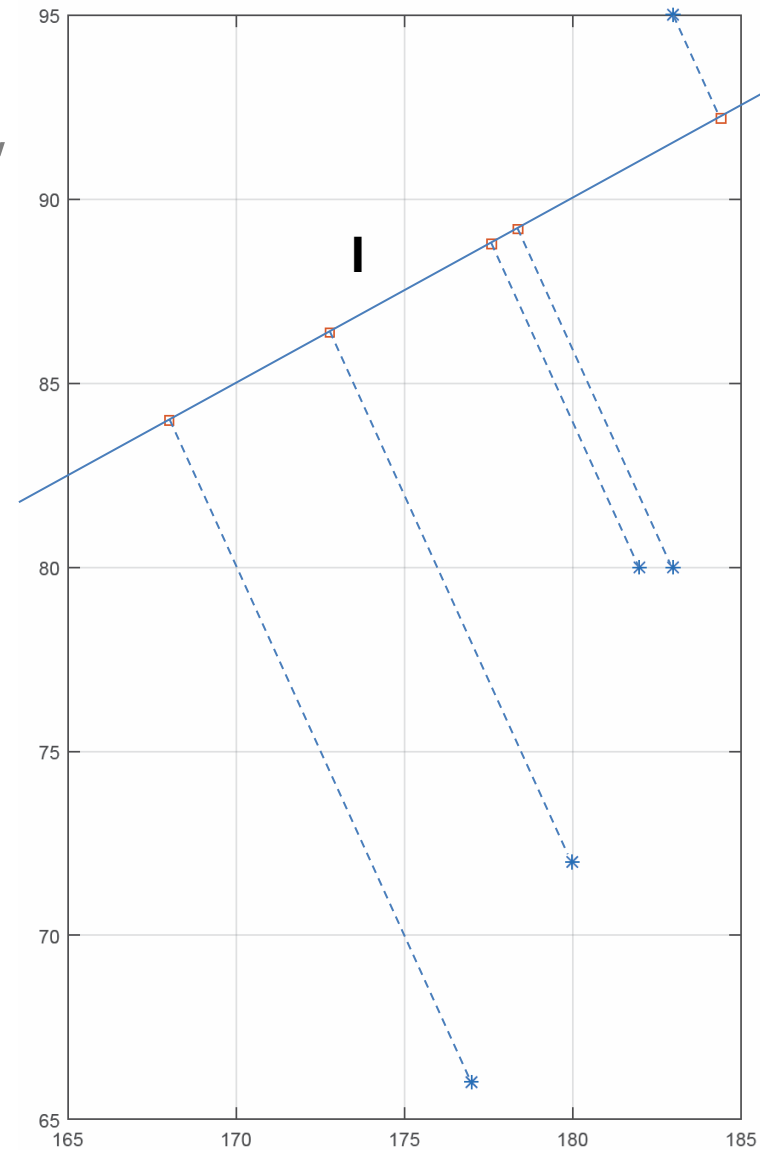


Illustration:

- assume further, we have vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$, given also a matrix $\mathbf{V} = (\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n)$

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 180 & 183 & 183 & 182 & 177 \\ 72 & 95 & 80 & 80 & 66 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_I \mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 172.8 & 184.4 & 178.4 & 177.6 & 168.0 \\ 86.4 & 92.2 & 89.2 & 88.8 & 84.0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Next:

- singular-value decomposition, SVD
- eigenanalysis
- principal component analysis, PCA
- more examples

Reading and Related Material

In the book:

- chapter 2 (on linear systems), mostly section 2.1, and related parts
- chapter 15 (on SVD, etc.): coming soon! :–)

Course notes:

- section 4

An interactive online-book:

- <http://ImmersiveMath.com/>,
chapters (1–4 &) 5 (on Gaussian elimination)
and 6 (on The Matrix)

On Wikipedia:

- many good pages