

# Linear Algebra

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Vectors

Matrices

Eigen values and vectors

Functions

- Science and Maths are used to describe the world around us. There are many quantities which require only 1 measurement to describe them. e.g Length of a string, or area of any shape or temperature of any surface. Such quantities are called scalars. Any quantity which can be represented as a number (positive or negative) is called scalar. This value is known as magnitude.
- On the other hand, there are quantities which require at least 2 measurements to describe them. Along with the magnitude, they have a “direction” associated e.g velocity or force. These quantities are known as “Vectors”.
- When we say that a person ran for 2 Km, its a scalar but when we say that a person ran for 2 Km, North-east from his initial position, its a vector.

# Operations on vectors

Consider two vectors  $\vec{A} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\vec{B} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$

- Vector Addition
  - ▶  $\vec{C} = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$
- Vector Subtraction
  - ▶  $\vec{C} = (a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, \dots, a_n - b_n)$
- Vector Multiplication
- Vector Subtraction
  - ▶  $\vec{C} = (a_1 * b_1, a_2 * b_2, \dots, a_n * b_n)$
- Scalar Multiply to vector
  - ▶  $K.(\vec{A}) = K * a_1, K * a_2, \dots, K * a_n$

# Operations on vectors

Consider two vectors  $\vec{A} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\vec{B} = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$

- Magnitude of Vectors

- ▶  $|A| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2}$

- A vector of magnitude, or length, 1 is called a unit vector.

For all vectors  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$ , and for all scalars  $b$  and  $c$ :

1.  $u + v = v + u$ .

2.  $u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w$ .

3.  $v + O = v$ .

4.  $1 \cdot v = v$ ;  $0 \cdot v = O$ .

5.  $v + (-v) = O$ .

6.  $b(cv) = (bc)v$ .

7.  $(b + c)v = bv + cv$ .

8.  $b(u + v) = bu + bv$ .

# Component form of vectors

- unit vectors can have any direction, the unit vectors parallel to the x - and y - axes are particularly useful. They are defined as  $i = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$  and  $j = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ .
- Any vector can be expressed as a linear combination of unit vectors  $i$  and  $j$ .  
For example, let  $\vec{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ . Then
$$\vec{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = \langle v_1, 0 \rangle + \langle 0, v_2 \rangle = v_1 \langle 1, 0 \rangle + v_2 \langle 0, 1 \rangle = v_1 i + v_2 j.$$

# Directions in vectors

- The terminal point P of a unit vector in standard position is a point on the unit circle denoted by  $(\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$ . Thus the unit vector can be expressed in component form,  $\vec{u} = \langle \cos\theta, \sin\theta \rangle$ , or as a linear combination of the unit vectors  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $\vec{u} = (\cos\theta)i + (\sin\theta)j$ , where the components of  $u$  are functions of the direction angle  $\theta$  measured counterclockwise from the  $x$  - axis to the vector. As  $\theta$  varies from 0 to  $2\pi$ , the point P traces the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ . This takes in all possible directions for unit vectors so the equation  $\vec{u} = (\cos\theta)i + (\sin\theta)j$  describes every possible unit vector in the plane.

# Angle between vector

- The dot product of two vectors is a real number, or scalar. This product is useful in finding the angle between two vectors and in determining whether two vectors are perpendicular.
- The dot product of two vectors  $\vec{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$  and  $\vec{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  is  $u \cdot v = u_1 \cdot v_1 + u_2 \cdot v_2$
- If  $\theta$  is the angle between two nonzero vectors  $u$  and  $v$ , then

$$\cos\theta = \frac{u \cdot v}{|u| |v|} \quad (1)$$



# Examples

- Find a unit vector that has the same direction as the vector  $w = \langle -3, 5 \rangle$ .
- Find the angle between  $u = \langle 3, 7 \rangle$  and  $v = \langle -4, 2 \rangle$ .

# Application of vectors

- Cosine Similarity
  - ▶ Cosine Similarity is a metric that gives the cosine of the angle between vectors. It signifies the similarity and dissimilarity between two vectors.
- Text Vectorization
  - ▶ The process of converting or transforming a data set into a set of Vectors is called vectorization. It's easier to represent data set as vectors where attributes are already numeric

- Conventionally, the number of rows in a matrix is denoted by  $m$  and the number of columns by  $n$ . Since a rectangle's area is height  $\times$  width, we denote a matrix's size by  $m \times n$ . Thus if the matrix was to be called  $A$ , it would be written notationally as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

- A matrix with just one row is called a row matrix and a matrix with just one column is called a column matrix.

# Operations on Matrix

- Matrix addition and Subtraction
  - ▶ Number of Rows of A = Number of Rows of B
  - ▶ Number of Columns of A = Number of Columns of B

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -4 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 7 \\ -3 & 5 & 5 \\ 4 & 7 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Matrix addition and Subtraction Properties
  - ▶ Addition of matrices is commutative which means  $A+B = B+A$
  - ▶ Addition of matrices is associative which means  $A+(B+C) = (A+B)+C$
  - ▶ Subtraction of matrices is non-commutative which means  $A-B \neq B-A$
  - ▶ Subtraction of matrices is non-associative which means  $A-(B-C) \neq (A-B)-C$
  - ▶ The order of matrices A, B, A-B and A+B is always the same
  - ▶ If the order of A and B is different, A+B, A-B can't be computed
  - ▶ The complexity of addition/subtraction operation is  $O(m*n)$  where  $m*n$  is order of matrices

# Operations on Matrix

- The multiplication of two matrices  $A(m \times n)$  and  $B(n \times p)$  gives a matrix  $C(m \times p)$ . Notice that for multiplication you do not need the rows/columns of  $A$  and  $B$  to be the same. You only need
  - ▶ No. of Columns of  $A$  = No. of Rows of  $B$
  - ▶ Or, No. of Columns of  $B$  = No. of Rows of  $A$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 \\ 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$m \times n: 2 \times 3$

$\times$

$n \times p: 3 \times 2$

$=$

$m \times p: 2 \times 2$

# Operations on Matrix

- Identity Matrix : It is the matrix equivalent of the number "1":
  - ▶ It is "square" (has same number of rows as columns),
  - ▶ It has 1s on the diagonal and 0s everywhere else.
  - ▶ Its symbol is the capital letter I.

$$I_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$I_{3 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

# Determinant of Matrix

- The determinant is a special number that can be calculated from a matrix.

## For a $2 \times 2$ Matrix

For a  $2 \times 2$  matrix (2 rows and 2 columns):

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

The determinant is:

$$|A| = ad - bc$$

*"The determinant of A equals a times d minus b times c"*



# Determinant of Matrix

## For a 3×3 Matrix

For a 3×3 matrix (3 rows and 3 columns):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant is:

$$|A| = a(ei - fh) - b(di - fg) + c(dh - eg)$$

*"The determinant of A equals ... etc"*

# Inverse of a matrix

- Why inverse ? Because with matrices we don't divide! Seriously, there is no concept of dividing by a matrix.

The inverse of  $A$  is  $A^{-1}$  only when:

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = \mathbf{I}$$

Sometimes there is no inverse at all.

# Example

- Find the inverse of the given 3X3 matrix as follows :

$$M_{3 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

# Eigen values and vectors

- Special properties in matrix

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix and let  $X \in \mathbb{C}^n$  be a **nonzero vector** for which

$$AX = \lambda X$$

for some scalar  $\lambda$ . Then  $\lambda$  is called an **eigenvalue** of the matrix  $A$  and  $X$  is called an **eigenvector** of  $A$  associated with  $\lambda$ , or a  $\lambda$ -eigenvector of  $A$ .

The set of all eigenvalues of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is denoted by  $\sigma(A)$  and is referred to as the **spectrum** of  $A$ .

# Example

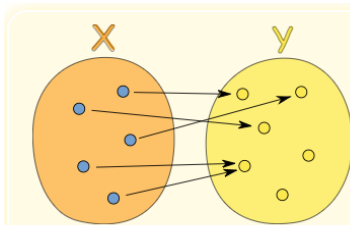
- Consider the matrix  $A$  and two column vector  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ :

$$A_{3 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 & -10 \\ 0 & 22 & 16 \\ 0 & -9 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

- Function, in mathematics, an expression, rule, or law that defines a relationship between one variable (the independent variable) and another variable (the dependent variable). Functions are ubiquitous in mathematics and are essential for formulating physical relationships in the sciences.
- This relationship is commonly symbolized as  $y = f(x)$  - which is said "f of x" - and y and x are related such that for every x, there is a unique value of y. That is,  $f(x)$  can not have more than one value for the same x.

# Functions

- Special rules of a function
  - ▶ It must work for every possible input value
  - ▶ And it has only one relationship for each input value



## Formal Definition of a Function

A function relates **each element** of a set with **exactly one** element of another set (possibly the same set).

# Functions

Example:  $y = x^3$

- The input set "X" is all Real Numbers
- The output set "Y" is also all the Real Numbers

We can't show ALL the values, so here are just a few examples:

X: x	Y: $x^3$
-2	-8
-0.1	-0.001
0	0
1.1	1.331
3	27
and so on...	and so on...



Refer from the previous slide table

- the set "X" is called the Domain,
- the set "Y" is called the Codomain, and
- the set of elements that get pointed to in Y (the actual values produced by the function) is called the Range.

Thank You