BIM488 Introduction to Pattern Recognition

Review of Matrices and Vectors

Outline

- Definitions
- Basic Matrix Operations
- Vector and Vector Spaces
- Vector Norms
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

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Some Definitions

An $m \times n$ (read "m by n") **matrix**, denoted by **A**, is a rectangular array of entries or elements (numbers, or symbols representing numbers) enclosed typically by square brackets, where m is the number of rows and n the number of columns.

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

Definitions (con't)

- A is *square* if m=n.
- **A** is *diagonal* if all off-diagonal elements are 0, and not all diagonal elements are 0.
- **A** is the *identity matrix* (**I**) if it is diagonal and all diagonal elements are 1.
- A is the zero or null matrix (0) if all its elements are 0.
- The *trace* of **A** equals the sum of the elements along its main diagonal.
- Two matrices **A** and **B** are *equal* iff the have the same number of rows and columns, and $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$.

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Definitions (con't)

- The transpose A^T of an m×n matrix A is an n×m matrix obtained by interchanging the rows and columns of A.
- A square matrix for which $A^T = A$ is said to be **symmetric**.
- Any matrix X for which XA=I and AX=I is called the inverse of A.
- Let c be a real or complex number (called a scalar). The scalar multiple of c and matrix A, denoted cA, is obtained by multiplying every elements of A by c. If c = -1, the scalar multiple is called the negative of A.

Definitions (con't)

A **column vector** is an $m \times 1$ matrix:

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{bmatrix}$$

A row vector is a $1 \times n$ ma

$$\mathbf{b} = [b_1, b_2, \cdots b_n]$$

A column vector can be expressed as a row vector by using the transpose:

$$\mathbf{a}^T = [a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_m]$$

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Some Basic Matrix Operations

- The *sum* of two matrices **A** and **B** (of equal dimension), denoted $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$, is the matrix with elements $a_{ii} + b_{ii}$.
- The *difference* of two matrices, A-B, has elements $a_{ij}-b_{ij}$.
- The *product*, **AB**, of *m*×*n* matrix **A** and *p*×*q* matrix **B**, is an *m*×*q* matrix **C** whose (*i*,*j*)-th element is formed by multiplying the entries across the *i*th row of **A** times the entries down the *j*th column of **B**; that is,

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{in}b_{pj}$$

Some Basic Matrix Operations (con't)

The *inner product* (also called *dot product*) of two vectors

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

is defined as

$$\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{a} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \dots + a_m b_m$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^m a_i b_i.$$

Note that the inner product is a scalar.

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Vectors and Vector Spaces

Example

The vector space with which we are most familiar is the two-dimensional real vector space \Re^2 , in which we make frequent use of graphical representations for operations such as vector addition, subtraction, and multiplication by a scalar. For instance, consider the two vectors

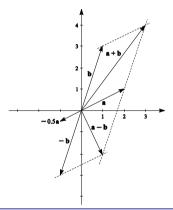
$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the rules of matrix addition and subtraction we have

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example (Con't)

The following figure shows the familiar graphical representation of the preceding vector operations, as well as multiplication of vector \mathbf{a} by scalar c = -0.5.



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Consider two real vector spaces V_0 and V such that:

- Each element of V_0 is also an element of V (i.e., V_0 is a *subset* of V).
- Operations on elements of V₀ are the same as on elements of V. Under these conditions, V₀ is said to be a subspace of V.

A *linear combination* of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ is an expression of the form

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

where the α 's are scalars.

A vector \mathbf{v} is said to be *linearly dependent* on a set, S, of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ if and only if \mathbf{v} can be written as a linear combination of these vectors. Otherwise, \mathbf{v} is *linearly independent* of the set of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$.

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A set S of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, ..., \mathbf{v}_n$ in V is said to **span** some subspace V_0 of V if and only if S is a subset of V_0 and every vector \mathbf{v}_0 in V_0 is linearly dependent on the vectors in S. The set S is said to be a **spanning set** for V_0 . A **basis** for a vector space V is a linearly independent spanning set for V. The number of vectors in the basis for a vector space is called the **dimension** of the vector space. If, for example, the number of vectors in the basis is n, we say that the vector space is n-dimensional.

An important aspect of the concepts just discussed lies in the representation of any vector in \Re^m as a *linear combination* of the basis vectors. For example, any vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

in \mathfrak{R}^3 can be represented as a linear combination of the basis vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Vector Norms

A **vector norm** on a vector space V is a function that assigns to each vector \mathbf{v} in V a nonnegative real number, called the **norm** of \mathbf{v} , denoted by $||\mathbf{v}||$. By definition, the norm satisfies the following conditions:

- (1) $\|\mathbf{v}\| > 0$ for $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$; $\|\mathbf{0}\| = 0$,
- (2) $\|c\mathbf{v}\| = |c|\|\mathbf{v}\|$ for all scalars c and vectors \mathbf{v} , and
- (3) $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \le \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$.

Vector Norms (con't)

There are numerous norms that are used in practice. In our work, the norm most often used is the so-called **2-norm**, which, for a vector \mathbf{x} in real \mathfrak{R}^m , space is defined as

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = [x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_m^2]^{1/2}$$

which is recognized as the *Euclidean distance* from the origin to point \mathbf{x} ; this gives the expression the familiar name Euclidean norm. The expression also is recognized as the length of a vector \mathbf{x} , with origin at point $\mathbf{0}$. From earlier discussions, the norm also can be written as

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \left[\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x}\right]^{1/2}$$

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Vector Norms (con't)

The Cauchy-Schwartz inequality states that

$$|\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{y}| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

Another well-known result used in the book is the expression

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|}$$

where θ is the angle between vectors ${\bf x}$ and ${\bf y}$. From these expressions it follows that the inner product of two vectors can be written as

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = ||\mathbf{x}|| \, ||\mathbf{y}|| \cos \theta$$

Thus, the inner product can be expressed as a function of the norms of the vectors and the angle between the vectors.

Vector Norms (con't)

From the preceding results, two vectors in \Re^m are *orthogonal* if and only if their inner product is zero. Two vectors are *orthonormal* if, in addition to being orthogonal, the length of each vector is 1.

From the concepts just discussed, we see that an arbitrary vector \mathbf{a} is turned into a vector \mathbf{a}_n of unit length by performing the operation $\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{a}/||\mathbf{a}||$. Clearly, then, $||\mathbf{a}_n|| = 1$.

A **set of vectors** is said to be an **orthogonal** set if every two vectors in the set are orthogonal. A **set of vectors** is **orthonormal** if every two vectors in the set are orthonormal.

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Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

Definition: The *eigenvalues* of a real matrix \mathbf{M} are the real numbers λ for which there is a nonzero vector \mathbf{e} such that

$$\textbf{Me} = \ \lambda \ \textbf{e}.$$

The *eigenvectors* of **M** are the nonzero vectors **e** for which there is a real number λ such that **M**e = λ **e**.

Eigenvalues are obtained by solving the equation below

$$\det(M - \lambda I) = 0$$

Eigenvectors constitute an orthogonal (orthonormal) set.

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors (con't)

Example: Consider the matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is easy to verify that $Me_1 = \lambda_1 e_1$ and $Me_2 = \lambda_2 e_2$ for $\lambda_1 = 1$, $\lambda_2 = 2$ and

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

In other words, \mathbf{e}_1 is an eigenvector of \mathbf{M} with associated eigenvalue λ_1 , and similarly for \mathbf{e}_2 and λ_2 .

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Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors (con't)

Example 2: Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

$$\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = 0$$
, $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 3$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$e1 = ? e2 = ?$$

Summary

- Definitions
- Basic Matrix Operations
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- Vector Norms
- Orthogonality
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

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References

• R. C. Gonzalez & R. E. Woods, *Digital Image Processing (3rd Edition)*, Prentice Hall, 2008.