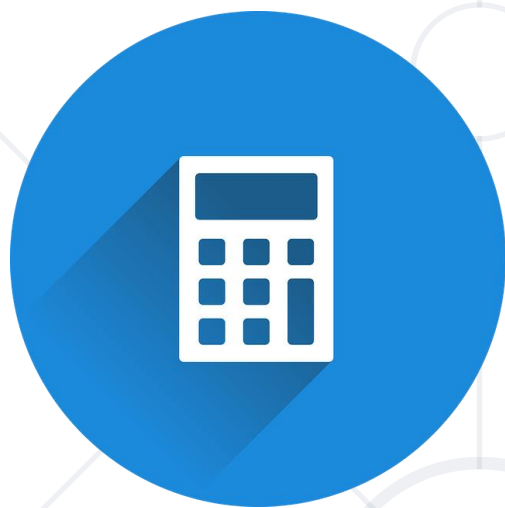


Linear Algebra

Generalizing our understanding
of vectors and coordinates



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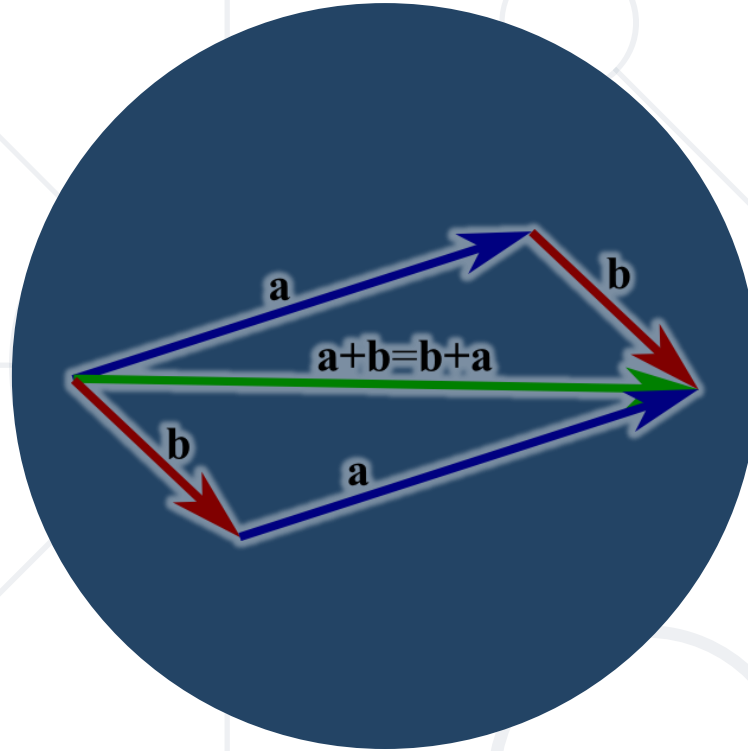
sli.do

#MathForDevs

Table of Contents

- Vectors
- Matrices
- Linear transformations
- Linear systems





Vectors

Concrete and abstract

- **Physics definition**

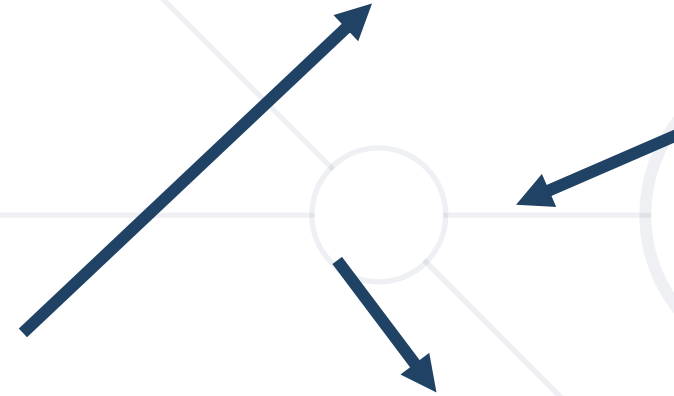
- A **pointed segment** in space

- **Computer science definition**

- A **list of objects** (usually numbers)
- Dimensions = length

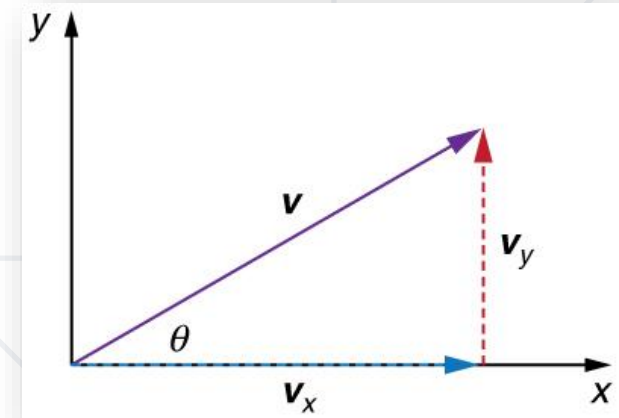
- **Math definition**

- Encompasses both, and allows **even more abstraction**: \vec{v}
- Vectors can be **added** and **multiplied** by numbers and other vectors
- Similar to **how we defined a field**



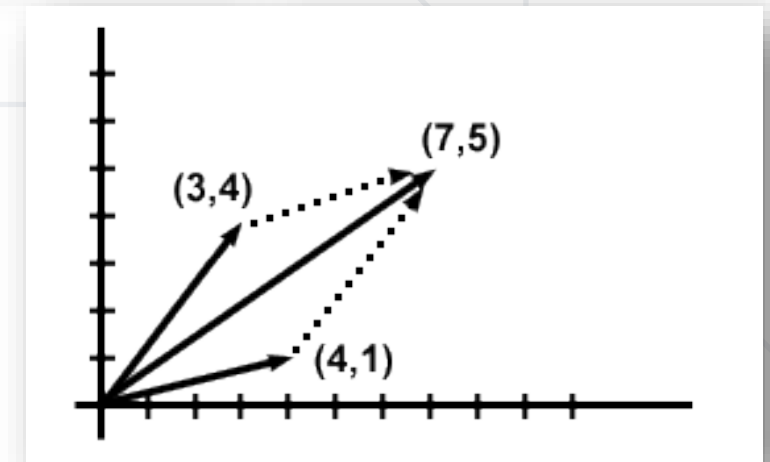
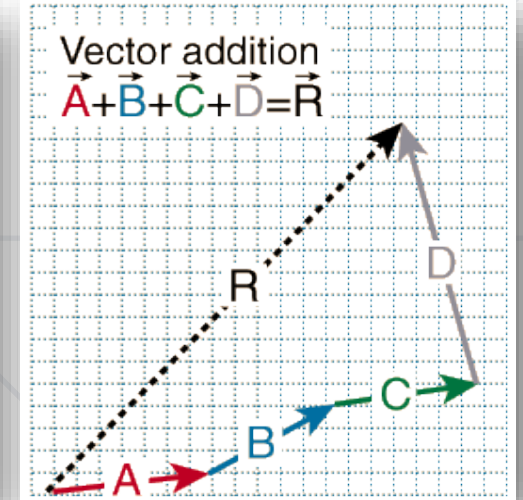
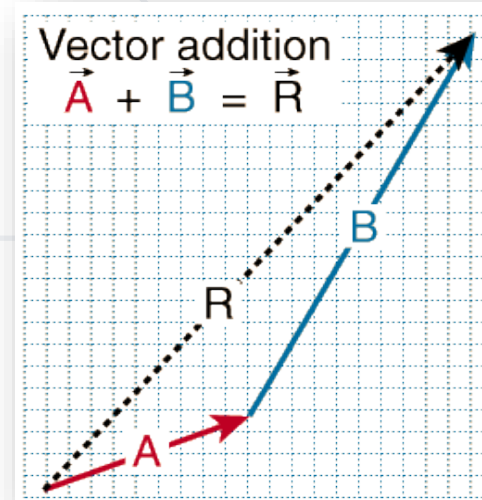
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -3, 8 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The distances to all coordinate axes: v_x, v_y
- Equivalent to: $\begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix}$
- Polar coordinates: $v = |\vec{v}|, \theta$
 - Finding components: $v_x = v \cos(\theta), v_y = v \sin(\theta)$
 - Finding the polar form: $v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2}, \theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{v_y}{v_x}\right)$
- All these operations generalize to **more than 2 dimensions**
- **Note:** We usually denote vectors by \vec{v} or with bold type: \mathbf{v}
 - Another notation: Latin letters for vectors, Greek letters for numbers

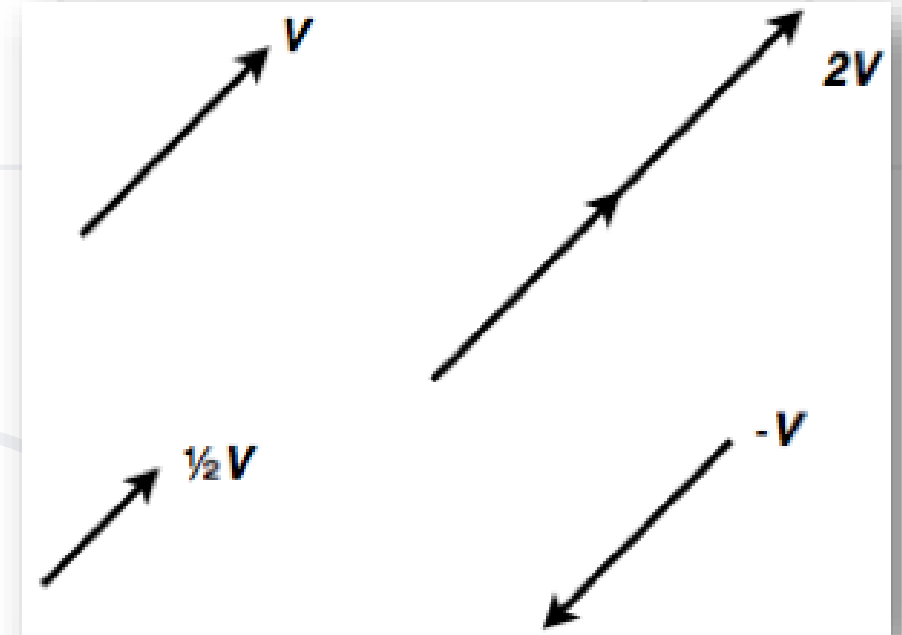


■ Addition

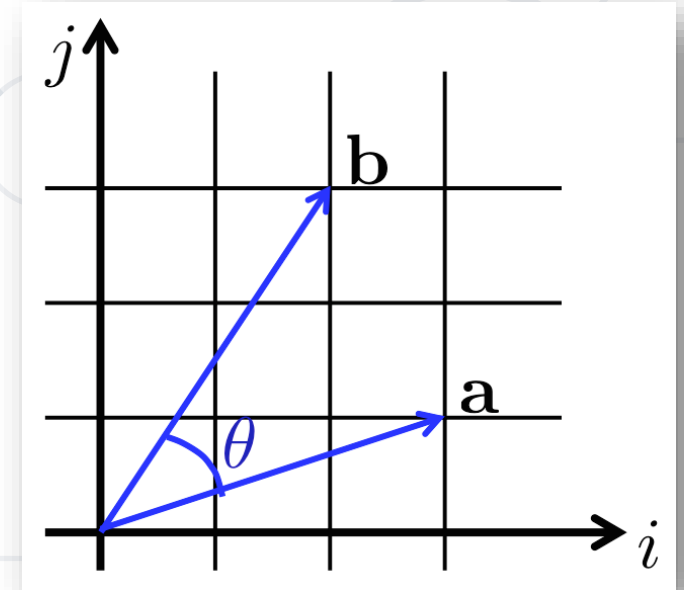
- Result:
 - **Length:** distance from start to end
- **Direction:** start → end
- In component form:
sum components in each direction



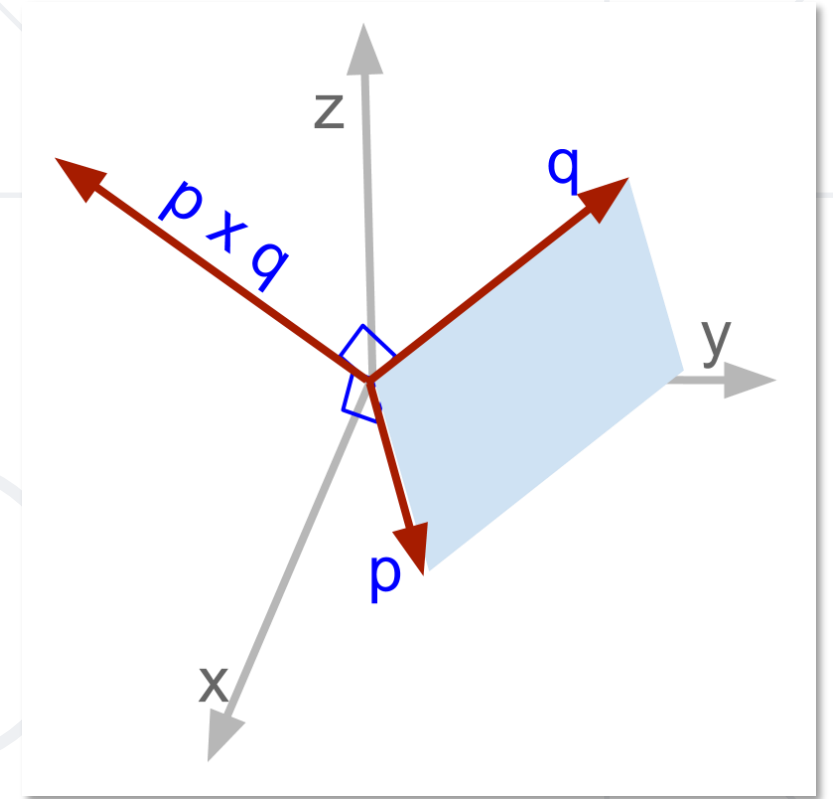
- Multiplication by a number (scalar)
 - Result:
 - length = scaled length
 - direction: same (if scalar ≥ 0), opposite otherwise
 - In component form:
multiply each component by the number



- **Scalar product of two vectors**
 - Also called **dot product** or **inner product**
 - Result: **scalar**
 - Definition: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos(\theta)$
 - Using the vector components: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$
 - Also defined by projecting one vector onto another (how?)



- **Vector product of two vectors (3D only)**
 - Also called **cross product**
 - Result: vector, perpendicular to both initial vectors
 - Definition: $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = |\vec{a}||\vec{b}| \sin(\theta) \vec{n}$
 - \vec{n} – **normal vector**
 - Magnitude: $|\vec{a}||\vec{b}| \sin(\theta) = \text{volume of parallelogram between } \vec{a} \text{ and } \vec{b}$
 - Direction: coincides with the direction of \vec{n}





Vector Spaces

Finding yourself in space

- A **field** (usually \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}): F
- A set of **elements** (vectors): V
- Operations
 - **Addition** of two vectors: $w = u + v$
 - **Multiplication** by an element of the field: $w = \lambda u$
- A "checklist" of **eight axioms**
- We read this as:
"vector space (or linear space) V over the field F "

- **Coordinate space** (real / complex)
 - n -dimensional vectors
- **Infinite coordinate space**
 - Vectors with infinitely many components
- **Polynomial space**
 - All polynomials of variable x with real coefficients
- **Function space**
- **Matrix space** (stay tuned...)

- Vectors: v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n
- Numbers (scalars): $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$
- **Linear combination**
 - The sum of each vector multiplied by a scalar coefficient

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n = \sum \lambda_i v_i$$

- **Span** of a set of vectors
 - The set of all their linear combinations

$$\text{Span}(V) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i v_i \mid k \in \mathbf{N}, \lambda_i \in F, v_i \in V \right\}$$

- **Linear (in)dependence**

- The vectors v_1, \dots, v_n are **linearly independent** if the only solution to the equation:

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n = \vec{0} \text{ is } \lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 0, \dots, \lambda_n = 0$$

- Conversely, they are **linearly dependent** if there is a non-trivial linear combination equal to zero

- **Example:**

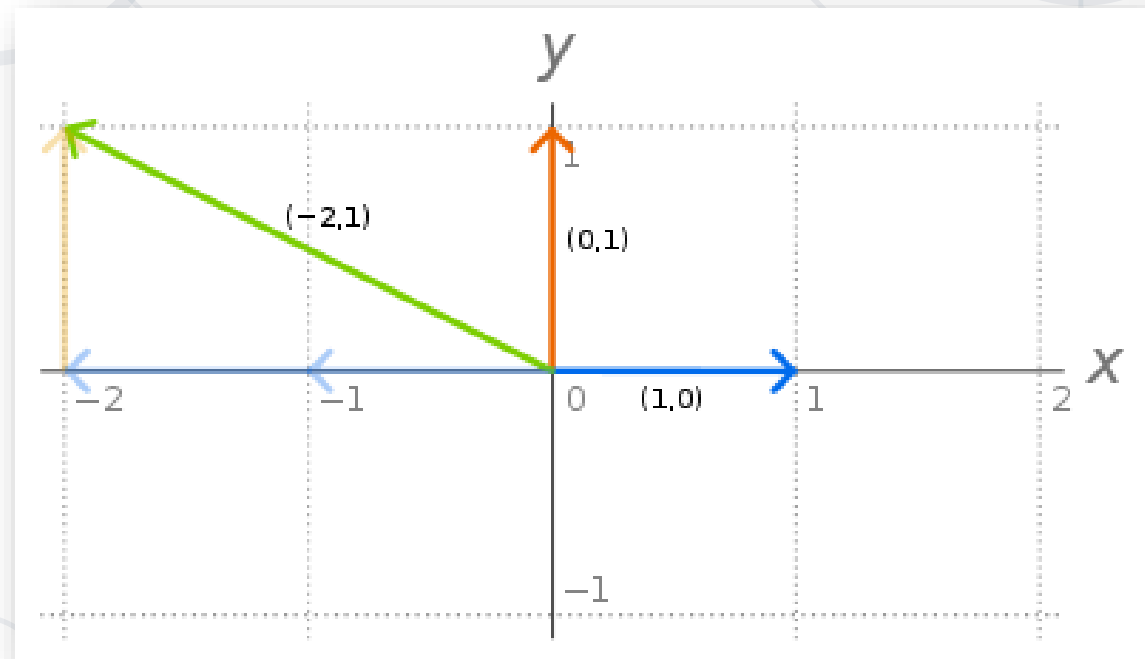
$$u = (2, -1, 1), \quad v = (3, -4, -2), \quad w = (5, -10, -8)$$

$$w = -2u + 3v \Rightarrow 2u - 3v + 1w = 0$$

- Consider: $\hat{i} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \hat{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Now consider the vector: $a = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- We can see that we can express a as the linear combination:

$$a = -2\hat{i} + 1\hat{j}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



- **Linearly independent**
- Every other vector in the space can be represented as their linear combination
 - This linear combination is **unique**
- **Each vector space has a basis**
- Each pair of **two** LI vectors forms a basis in **2D** coordinate space
 - Each set of n **LI vectors** forms a basis in n -dimensional vector space

$$\begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ \vdots \\ m \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Matrices



- A **rectangular table of numbers**
- Dimensions: **rows × columns**
- Examples:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 \\ -2 & 4.2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 4 & 7 & 12 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R = [2 \quad 4 \quad 3]$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- R – row vector, C – column vector
- Elements $A = \{a_{ij}\}$

Some Thoughts about Dimensions

- Scalars have **no** dimensions: 2; 3; 18; -42; 0,5
- Vectors have **one** dimension: $v = \{v_i\}$
- Matrices have **two** dimensions: $A = \{a_{ij}\}$
- A generalization of this pattern to many dimensions is called a **tensor**
 - Tensors are quite more complicated than this
 - For almost all purposes it's OK to think about them as multidimensional matrices

- **Addition** (the dimensions must be the same)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 7 \\ 8 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A+B = \begin{bmatrix} 2+1 & 3-3 & 7+0 \\ 8+2 & 9-4 & 1+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 7 \\ 10 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Multiplication by a scalar**

$$\lambda = 2, A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 7 \\ 8 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 2 & 2 \cdot 3 & 2 \cdot 7 \\ 2 \cdot 8 & 2 \cdot 9 & 2 \cdot 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 & 14 \\ 16 & 18 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- All **$m \times n$** matrices **form a vector space**
 - You may check this

- Transposition:
 - Turning **rows into columns** and vice versa
 - The transpose of a matrix is denoted by an **upper index T**

$$A^T = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}^T = (a_{ji})_{n \times m}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The dimensions **must match**: $A_{m \times p} B_{p \times n} = C_{m \times n}$

- Definition: $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p a_{ik} b_{kj}$

- Example:

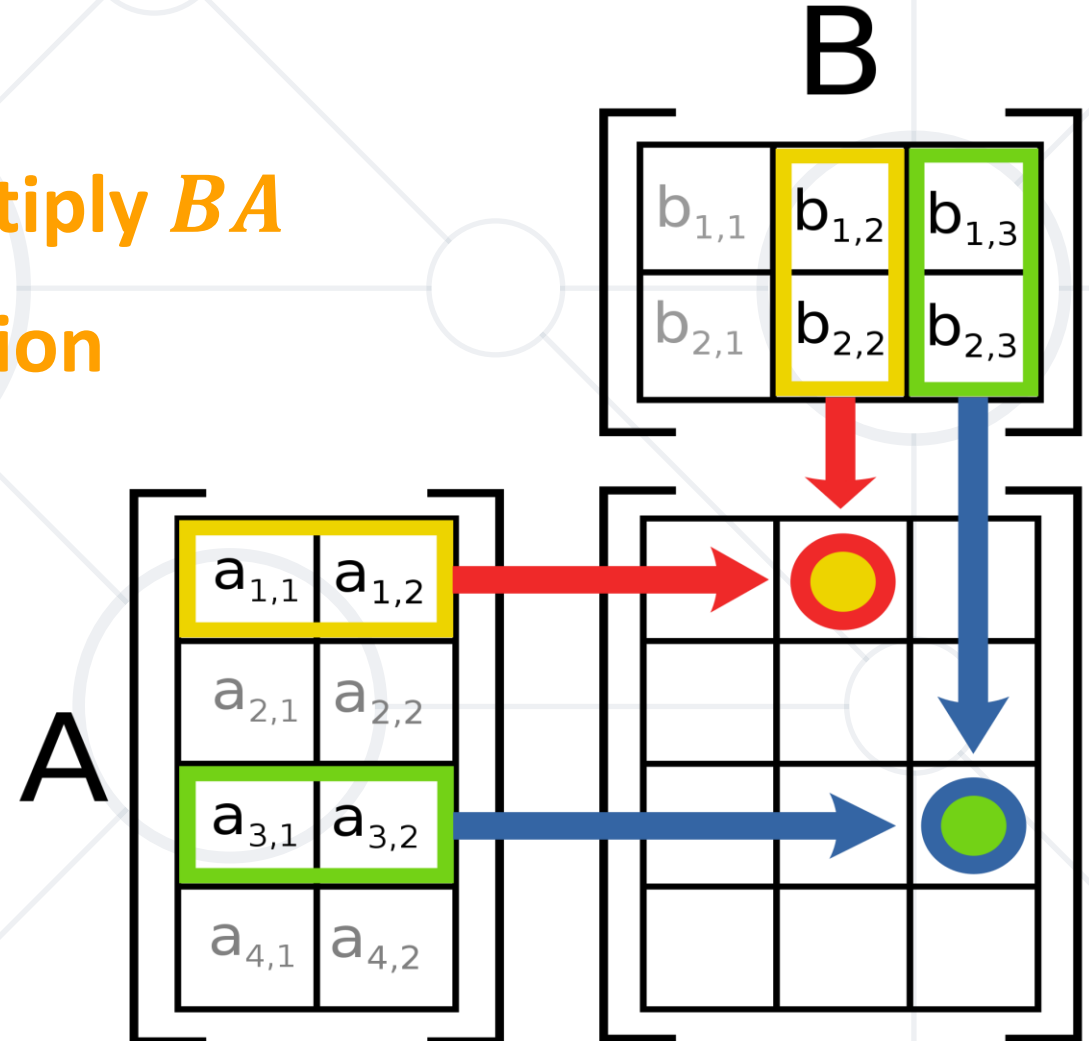
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 7 \\ 8 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2.1 + 3.(-3) + 7.2 & 2.2 + 3.(-4) + 7.0 & 2.0 + 3.1 + 7.1 & 2.1 + 3.3 + 7.1 \\ 8.1 + 9.(-3) + 1.2 & 8.2 + 9.(-4) + 1.0 & 8.0 + 9.1 + 1.1 & 8.1 + 9.3 + 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -8 & 10 & 18 \\ -17 & -20 & 10 & 36 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Multiplication (2)

- Note that $AB \neq BA$
 - In this case, we can't even multiply BA
 - We say that **matrix multiplication is not commutative**
 - Compare with numbers:
 $5.3 = 3.5 \rightarrow$ commutative



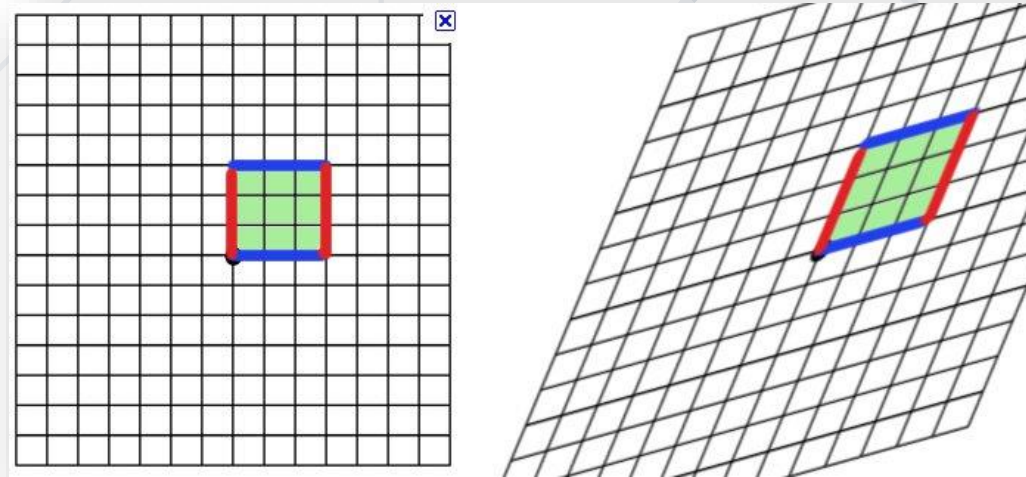
Matrix Operations in numpy

- We can use `@` or `dot()` for both matrix multiplication and dot products
- **Note:** Whenever possible, use **numpy** arrays instead of lists

```
A = np.array([
    [2, 3, 7],
    [8, 9, 1]
])
B = np.array([
    [1, -3, 0],
    [2, -4, 1]
])

print(A + B)
print(2 * A)
print(A * B) # Element-wise multiplication
print(A.dot(B)) # Error: shapes not aligned
print(A.dot(B.T)) # Matrix multiplication
```

- A mapping (function) between two vector spaces: $V \rightarrow W$
- Special case: mapping a space onto itself: $V \rightarrow V$
 - This is called a **linear operator**
- Each vector of V gets mapped to a vector in W



- Only **linear combinations** are allowed
- The origin **remains fixed**
- All lines remain lines (not curves)
- All lines remain evenly spaced (equidistant)
- Each **space has a basis**
 - All other vectors can be expressed as **linear combinations of the basis vectors**
 - If we know how **basis vectors are transformed**, we can transform **every other vector**

Linear Transformations (2)

- Consider the transformation

$$\hat{i}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \hat{j}' = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

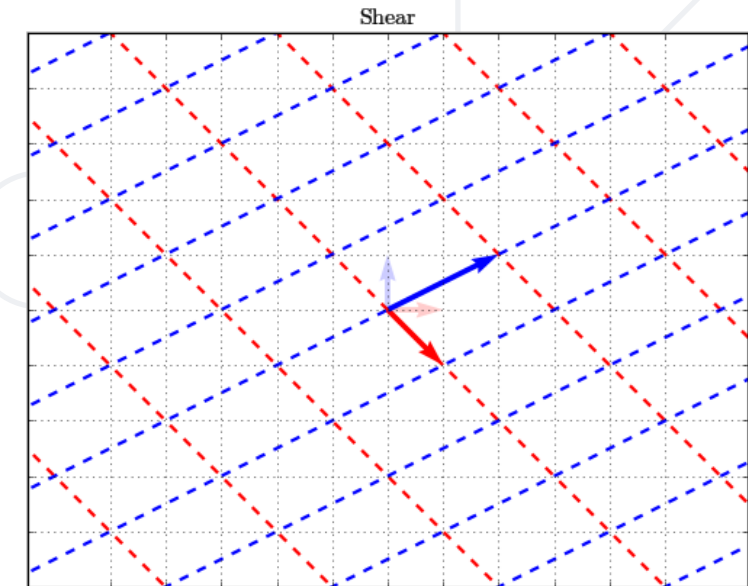
- Consider another vector

- Old basis: $v = v_x \hat{i} + v_y \hat{j}$ $\begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix} = v_x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + v_y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- New basis: $v' = v_x \hat{i}' + v_y \hat{j}'$ $\begin{bmatrix} v'_x \\ v'_y \end{bmatrix} = v_x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + v_y \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- Same coefficients, new basis vectors

- This operation is called **applying** the linear transformation



- Consider the same transformation: $\hat{i}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \hat{j}' = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- We applied the linear transformation by taking dot products
 - Therefore, we can describe it in another way – using a matrix
 - This is called the **matrix of the linear transformation** $T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 - Its **columns** denote where the **basis vectors** go
- Applying the transformation to a vector is the same as multiplying the matrix times the original vector: $v' = Tv$
- Example: $T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, v = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad v' = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 29 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$

- We can apply many transformations, one right after the other
 - Result: composite transformation
 - We do this by multiplying **on the left** by the matrix of each transformation
 - ⇒ matrix multiplication \equiv applying many transformations
- To visualize transformations, you can use the code in the **visualize_transformation.py** file

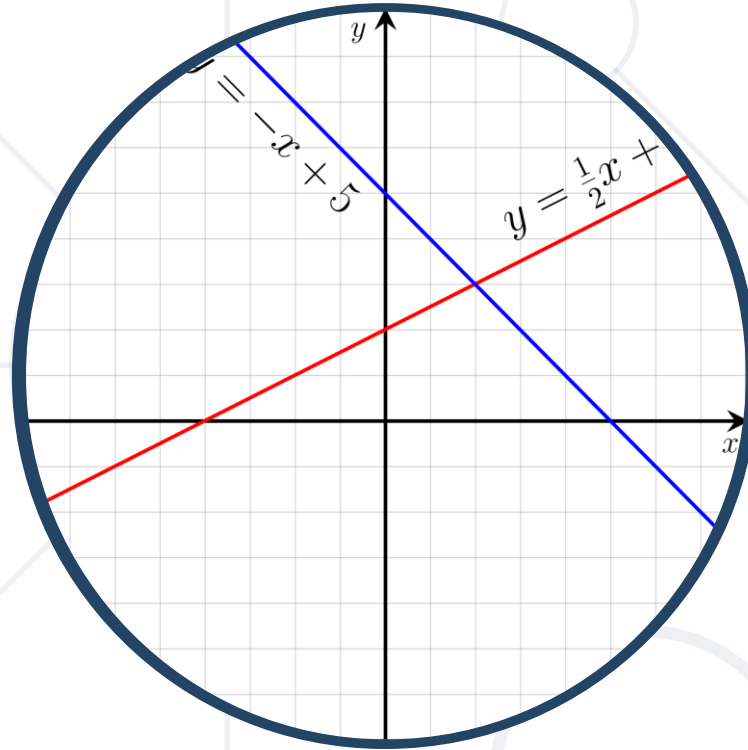
Multiple Transformations (2)

- Intuition
 - Apply each transformation in order
 - After the last one, record where the basis vectors land
 - The new matrix is the matrix of the composite transformation
- We can either apply all transformations one by one
 - Or **just** the **resulting** transformation 😊
- This is especially useful in computer graphics

Multiple Transformations – Example

- Rotation, then shearing: $R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Apply rotation to a vector: $v' = Rv = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix}$
- Apply shear to the resulting vector: $v'' = Sv' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v'_x \\ v'_y \end{bmatrix}$
- This is the same as: $v'' = SRv = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix}$
- The new transformation matrix is: $T = SR = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

- Measure of **how much the unit area (volume) changes**
- **Scalar** value
- Defined only for square matrices
- For more than two dimensions: area \rightarrow volume
- The determinant of a matrix A is denoted $\det(A)$
- The determinant has very useful properties
 - Notably, $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$



Linear Systems

... again

- Consider the linear system

$$\begin{cases} 2x - 5y + 3z = -3 \\ 4x + 0y + 8z = 0 \\ 1x + 3y + 0z = 2 \end{cases}$$

- Unknown variables x, y, z
- We can represent this as a matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & 8 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Or more generally: $Ax = b$
- Looks like a linear equation "on steroids"

- Consider a **general**, "good" transformation
 - The inverse transformation will **"bring back" the basis vectors**
 - **90° clockwise rotation \Rightarrow 90° counterclockwise rotation**
- The inverse transformation has its own matrix: T^{-1}
- If we apply the transformation and the inverse, we'll get our initial result
 - I.e., nothing will change
 - In math terms: $T^{-1}T = E$

Inverse Matrix (2)

- Let's now try to apply the inverse transformation to our linear system
 - Note that this means multiplying on the left

$$Ax = b$$

$$A^{-1}A = E \Rightarrow Ex = A^{-1}b$$

$$Ex = x \Rightarrow x = A^{-1}b$$

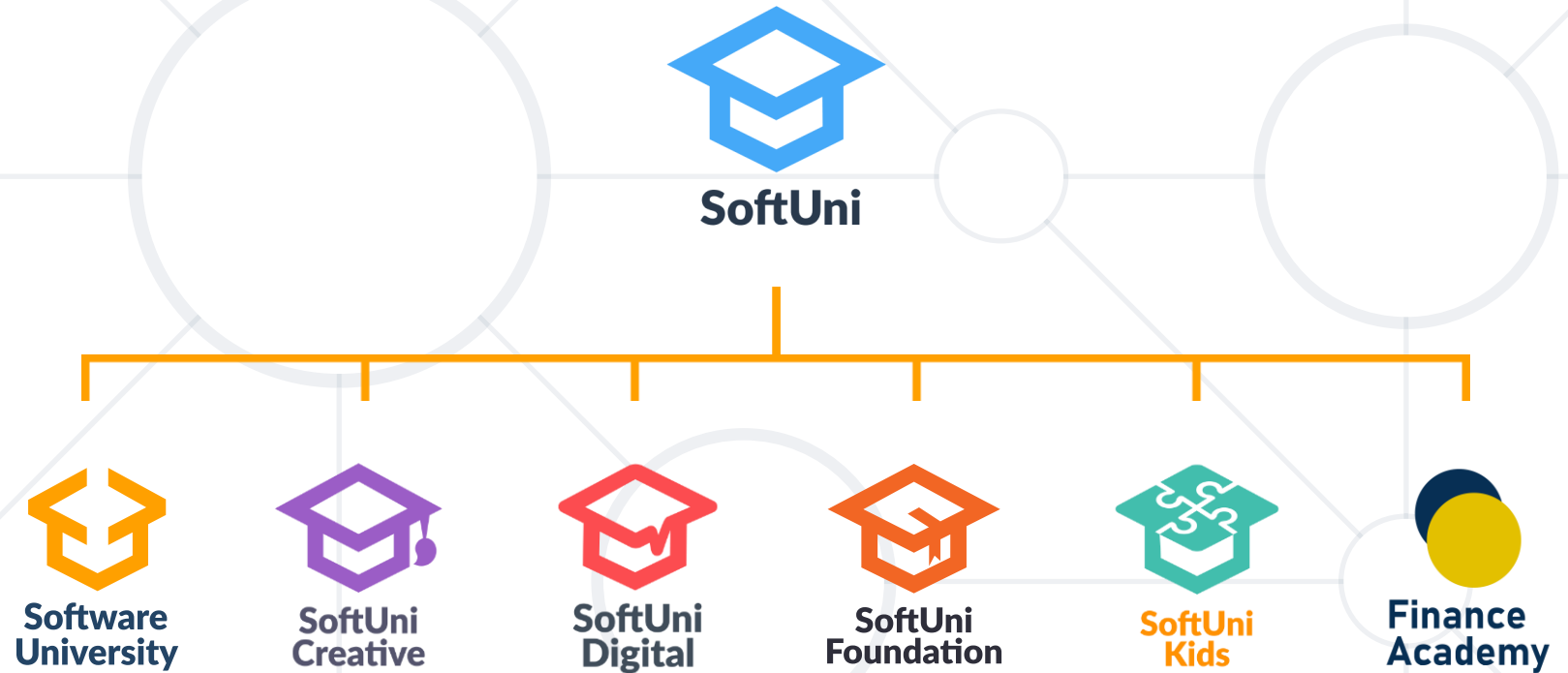
- To find the **unknown vector x** :
 - We need to find the **inverse matrix of A**
 - There are many methods, the most popular of which is called **Gaussian elimination** (or Gauss – Jordan method)
- **Basic idea:** $A^{-1}A = E$
 - Apply some transformation to get **from A to E**
 - Apply the **same transformation to E**
 - What we get is **the inverse matrix**

Summary

- Vectors
 - Geometric and algebraic perspectives
 - Operations
- Matrices
 - Definition
 - Properties
 - Operations
- Linear transformations
- Linear systems



Questions?



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