


# Linear Algebra Basics

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# Some logistics

- Creating your project's team.
- Office hours are started.

# Outline

- Linear Algebra Basics 
- Norms
- Multiplications
- Matrix Inversion
- Trace and Determinant
- Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors
- Singular Value Decomposition
- Matrix Calculus

# Why Linear Algebra?

- Linear algebra provides a way of compactly representing and operating on sets of linear equations

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13 \quad -2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9$$

can be written in the form of  $Ax = b$


$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  denotes a matrix with  $n$  rows and  $d$  columns, where elements belong to real numbers.
- $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  denotes a vector with  $d$  real entries. In this case,  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is a column vector ( $d$  rows 1 column), but  $\mathbb{R}^d$  can also be thought of as a matrix with 1 row and  $d$  columns in other situations.

# Linear Algebra Basics

- Transpose of a matrix results from flipping the rows and columns. Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , transpose is  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$
- For each element of the matrix, the transpose can be written as  $\rightarrow A^T_{ij} = A_{ji}$
- The following properties of the transposes are easily verified
  - $(A^T)^T = A$
  - $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
  - $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- A square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is symmetric if  $A = A^T$  and it is anti-symmetric if  $A = -A^T$ . Thus each matrix can be written as a sum of symmetric and anti-symmetric matrices.

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# Norms

- Norm of a vector  $\|x\|$  is informally a measure of the “length” of a vector
- More formally, a norm is any function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies
  - For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $f(x) \geq 0$  (non-negativity)
  - $f(x) = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$  (definiteness)
  - For  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(tx) = |t|f(x)$  (homogeneity)
  - For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $f(x + y) \leq f(x) + f(y)$  (triangle inequality)
- Common norms used in machine learning are
  - $\ell_2$  norm
    - $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2}$

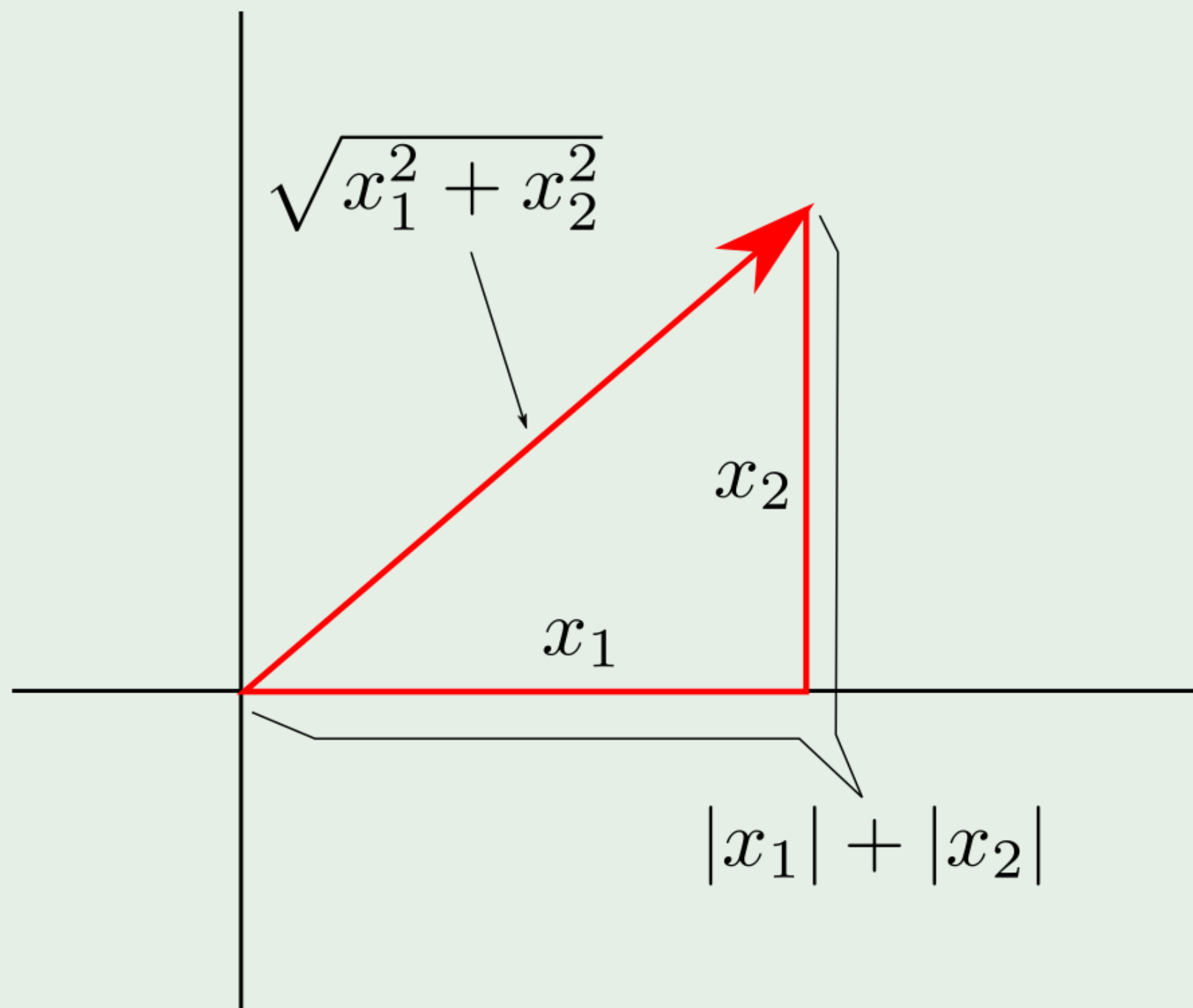
# Norms

- $\ell_1$  norm
  - $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d |x_i|$
- $\ell_\infty$  norm
  - $\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$
- All norms presented so far are examples of the family of  $\ell_p$  norms, which are parameterized by a real number  $p \geq 1$ 
  - $\|x\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$
- Norms can be defined for matrices, such as the Frobenius norm.
  - $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d A_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^\top A)}$



# Vector Norm Examples

## Example $\ell_1$ -norm and $\ell_2$ -norm




# Special Matrices

- The identity matrix, denoted by  $I \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is a square matrix with ones on the diagonal and zeros everywhere else
- A diagonal matrix is a matrix where all non-diagonal 'ELEMENTS' are 0. This is typically denoted as  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_d)$
- Two vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are orthogonal if  $x \cdot y = 0$ . A square matrix  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is **Orthonormal** if all its columns are orthogonal to each other and are normalized
- It follows from orthogonality and normality that
  - $U^T U = I = U U^T$
  - $\|Ux\|_2 = \|x\|_2$

*Is the inverse of a unitary matrix equal to its transpose?*

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# Multiplications

- The product of two matrices  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times p}$  is given by  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ , where  $C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^d A_{ik} B_{kj}$
- Given two vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , the term  $xy^T$  (also  $x \cdot y$ ) is called the **inner product** or **dot product** of the vectors, and is a real number given by  $\sum_{i=1}^d x_i y_i$ . For example,

$$xy^T = [x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i y_i$$

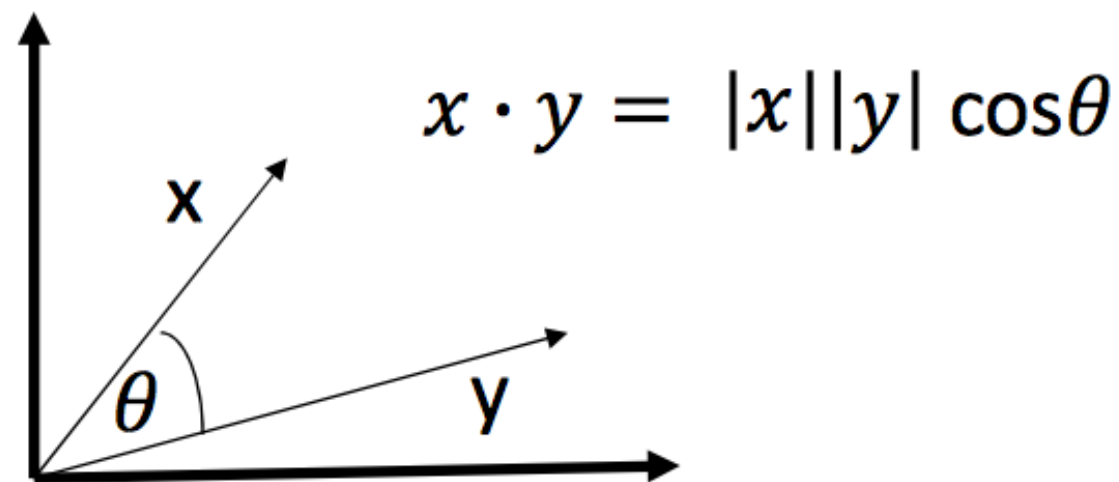
- Given two vectors  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the term  $x^T y$  is called the **outer product** of the vectors:  $x \otimes y$

*Is Dot Product a linear operation?*

# Multiplications

$$x \otimes y = x^T y = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} [y_1 \quad y_2 \quad y_3] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & x_1 y_3 \\ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & x_2 y_3 \\ x_3 y_1 & x_3 y_2 & x_3 y_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

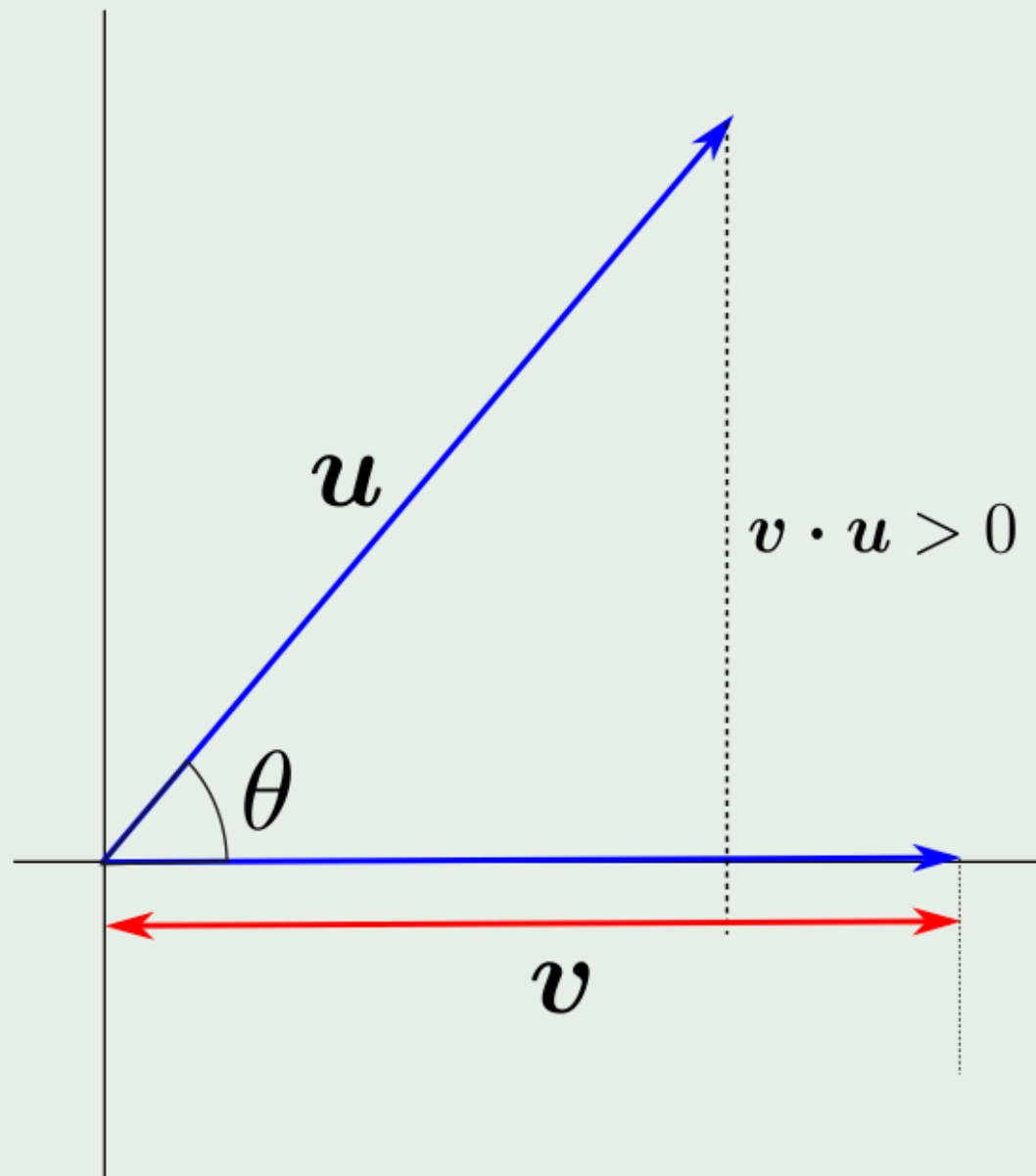
- The dot product also has a geometrical interpretation, for vectors in  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with angle  $\theta$  between them



which leads to use of dot product for testing orthogonality, getting the Euclidean norm of a vector, and scalar projections.

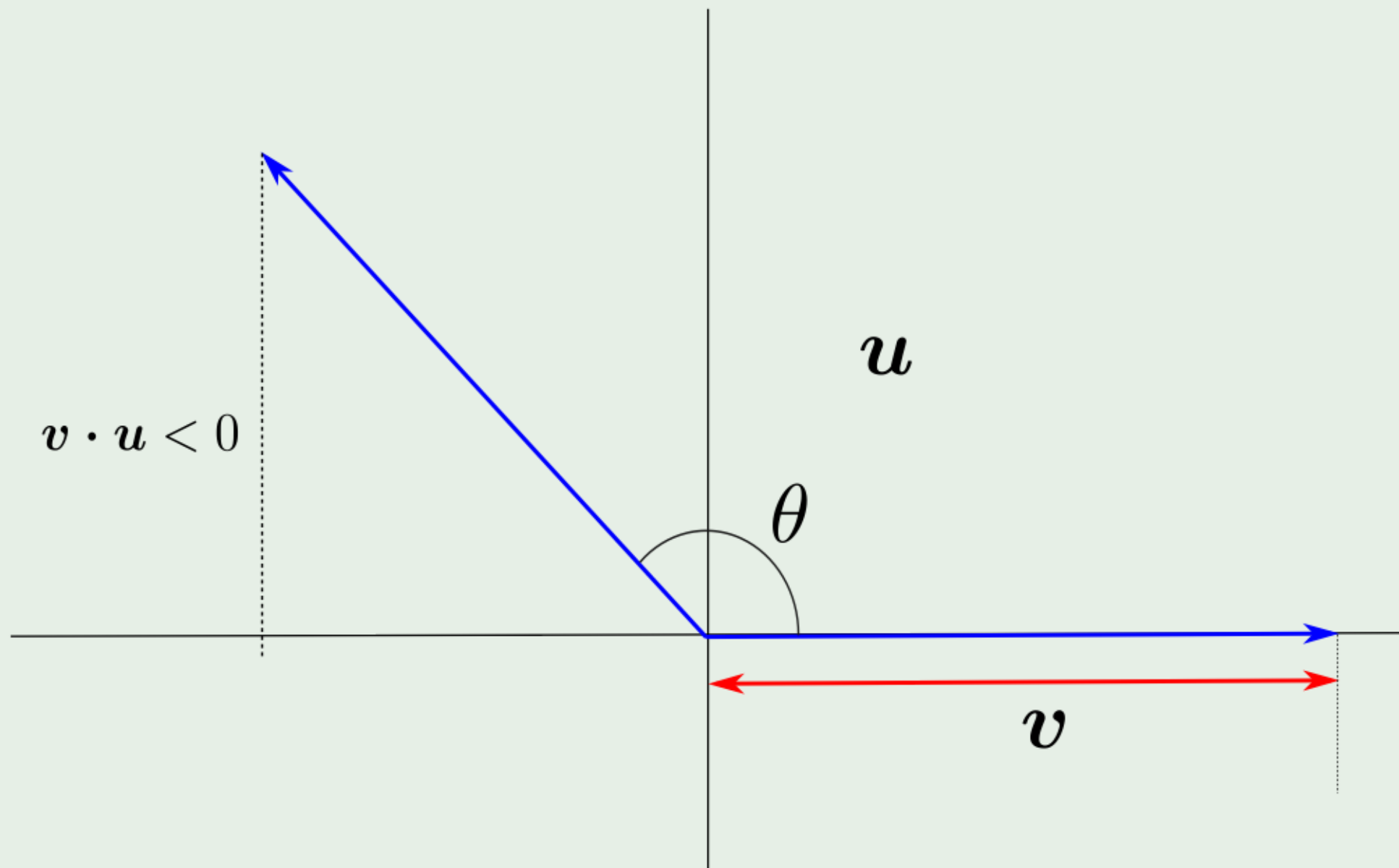
# Inner Product Properties

The inner product is a measure of correlation between two vectors, scaled by the norms of the vectors



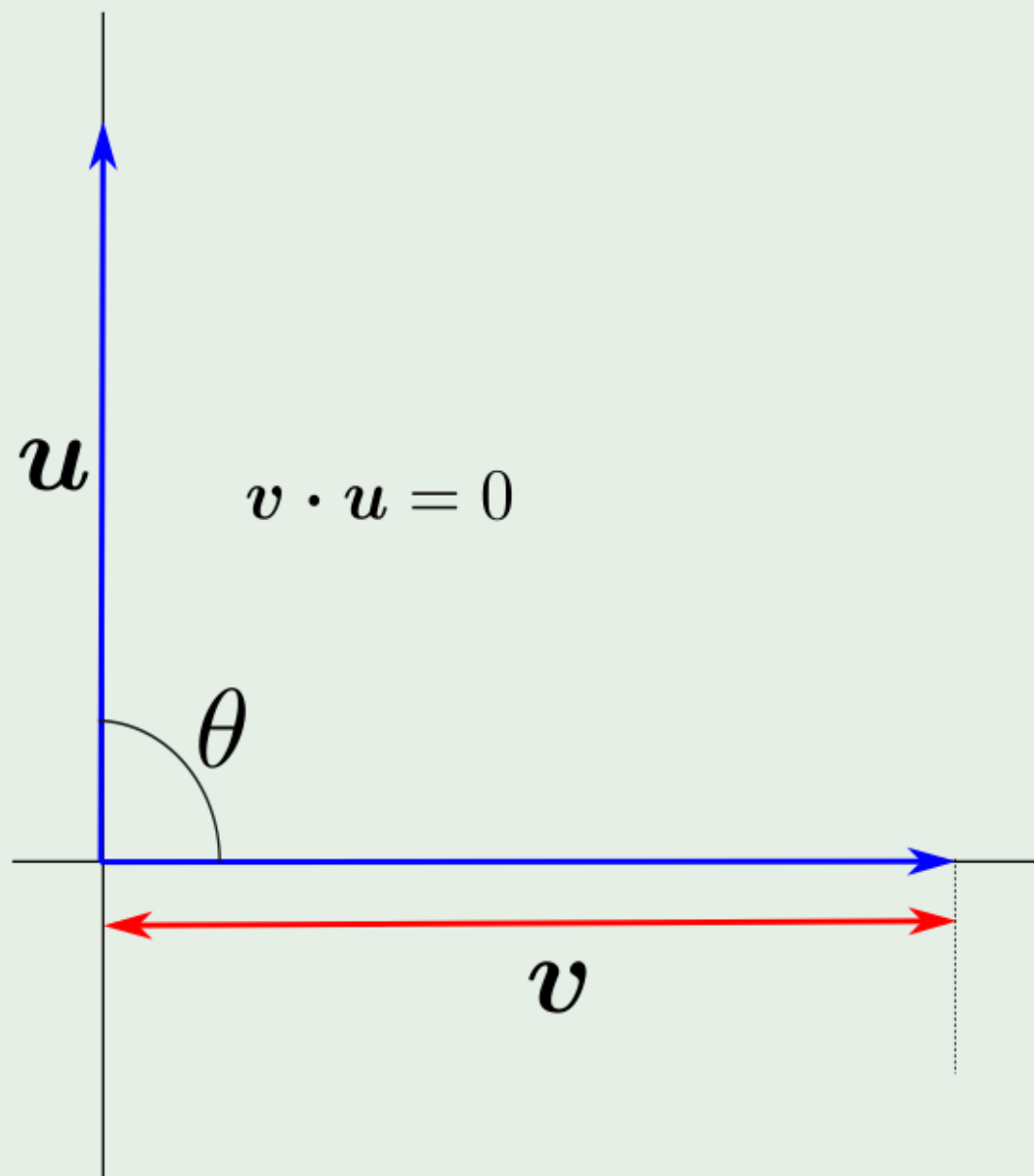
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If two variables are uncorrelated, they are orthogonal and if two variables are orthogonal, they are uncorrelated.



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# Linear Independence and Matrix Rank

- A set of vectors  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  are said to be **(linearly) independent** if no vector can be represented as a linear combination of the remaining vectors. That is if

$$x_d = \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} \alpha_i x_i$$

for some scalar values  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots \in \mathbb{R}$  then we say that the vectors are linearly **dependent**; otherwise the vectors are linearly independent

- The **column rank** of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  is the size of the largest subset of columns of  $A$  that constitute a linearly independent set. **Row rank** of a matrix is defined similarly for rows of a matrix.

It is a full rank if the rank is  $\min\{n, d\}$ . This is the maximum rank.

# Matrix Rank: Examples

What are the ranks for the following matrices? How about an identity matrix


$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix Inverse

- The inverse of a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is denoted  $A^{-1}$  and is the unique matrix such that  $A^{-1}A = I = AA^{-1}$
- For some square matrices  $A^{-1}$  may not exist, and we say that  $A$  is **singular or non-invertible**. In order for  $A$  to have an inverse,  $A$  must be **full rank**.
- For non-square matrices the inverse, denoted by  $A^+$ , is given by  $A^+ = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  called the **pseudo inverse**

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# Matrix Trace

- The trace of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ , denoted as  $\mathbf{tr}(A)$ , is the sum of the diagonal elements in the matrix

$$\mathbf{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^d A_{ii}$$

- The trace has the following properties
  - For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ,  $\mathbf{tr}(A) = \mathbf{tr}A^\top$
  - For  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ,  $\mathbf{tr}(A + B) = \mathbf{tr}(A) + \mathbf{tr}(B)$
  - For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{tr}(tA) = t \cdot \mathbf{tr}(A)$
  - For  $A, B, C$  such that  $ABC$  is a square matrix  $\mathbf{tr}(ABC) = \mathbf{tr}(BCA) = \mathbf{tr}(CAB)$
- The trace of a matrix helps us easily compute norms and eigenvalues of matrices as we will see later

# Matrix Determinant

## Definition (Determinant)

The determinant of a square matrix  $A$ , denoted by  $|A|$ , is defined as

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^d (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} M_{ij}$$

where  $M_{ij}$  is determinant of matrix  $A$  without the row  $i$  and column  $j$ .

For a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$

$$|A| = ad - bc$$

# Properties of Matrix Determinant

## Basic Properties

- $|A| = |A^T|$
- $|AB| = |A| |B|$
- $|A| = 0$  if and only if  $A$  is not invertible
- If  $A$  is invertible, then  $|A^{-1}| = \frac{1}{|A|}$ .



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# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Given a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  we say that  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $x \in \mathbb{C}^d$  is an eigenvector if

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad x \neq 0$$

- Intuitively this means that upon multiplying the matrix  $A$  with a vector  $x$ , we get the same vector, but scaled by a parameter  $\lambda$
- Geometrically, we are transforming the matrix  $A$  from its original orthonormal basis/co-ordinates to a new set of orthonormal basis  $x$  with magnitude as  $\lambda$

# Computing Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- We can rewrite the original equation in the following manner

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= \lambda x, & x &\neq 0 \\ \Rightarrow (A - \lambda I) x &= 0, & x &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- This is only possible if  $(A - \lambda I)$  is singular, that is  $| (A - \lambda I) | = 0$ .
- Thus, eigenvalues and eigenvectors can be computed.
  - Compute the determinant of  $A - \lambda I$ .
    - This results in a polynomial of degree  $d$ .
  - Find the roots of the polynomial by equating it to zero.
    - The  $d$  roots are the  $d$  eigenvalues of  $A$ . They make  $A - \lambda I$  singular.
  - For each eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , solve  $(A - \lambda I) x$  to find an eigenvector  $x$

# Eigenvalue Example

Eigenvalues

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_1 = -5 \\ \lambda_2 = 2$$

Determine eigenvectors:  $\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 &= \lambda x_1 \\ 3x_1 - 4x_2 &= \lambda x_2 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} (1 - \lambda)x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\ 3x_1 - (4 + \lambda)x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Eigenvector for  $\lambda_1 = -5$

$$\begin{aligned} 6x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\ 3x_1 + x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.3162 \\ 0.9487 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvector for  $\lambda_1 = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} -x_1 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\ 3x_1 - 6x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8944 \\ 0.4472 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix Eigen Decomposition


- All the eigenvectors can be written together as  $AX = X\Lambda$  where the columns of  $X$  are the eigenvectors of  $A$ , and  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix whose elements are eigenvalues of  $A$
- If the eigenvectors of  $A$  are invertible, then  $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$
- There are several properties of eigenvalues and eigenvectors
  - $Tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i$
  - $|A| = \prod_{i=1}^d \lambda_i$
  - Rank of  $A$  is the number of non-zero eigenvalues of  $A$
  - If  $A$  is non-singular then  $1/\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of  $A^{-1}$
  - The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are the diagonal elements of the matrix itself!

*Can a matrix have the same eigenvalues?*

*Are the eigenvectors of a matrix orthogonal against each other?*

*If two vectors are linearly independent, does it mean they are orthogonal against each other?*

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# Singular Value Decomposition

$\bar{X}_{n \times d}$       n: instances  
                     d: dimensions  
                     X is a centered matrix

$U_{n \times n} \rightarrow \text{unitary matrix} \rightarrow U \times U^T = I$

$$\bar{X} = U \Sigma V^T$$

$\Sigma_{n \times d} \rightarrow \text{diagonal matrix}$

$V_{d \times d} \rightarrow \text{unitary matrix} \rightarrow V \times V^T = I$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 X = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1 \times 1} & \dots & \dots & \dots & u_{1 \times n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{1 \times 1} & \dots & \dots & \dots & u_{n \times n} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{1 \times 1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Sigma_{d \times d} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} v_{1 \times 1} & \dots & \dots & \dots & v_{1 \times d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \dots & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{d \times 1} & \dots & \dots & \dots & v_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \begin{array}{ccc} U & \Sigma & V^T \\ & d < n & \end{array}
 \end{array}$$



Covariance matrix:

$$C_{d \times d} = \frac{\bar{X}^T \bar{X}}{n}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \bar{X} = U \Sigma V^T \\ C = \frac{\bar{X}^T \bar{X}}{n} \end{array} \right\} C = \frac{V \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T}{n} = \frac{V \Sigma^2 V^T}{n}$$

$$C = \frac{V\Sigma^2V^T}{n} = V \frac{\Sigma^2}{n} V^T$$

$$CV = V \frac{\Sigma^2}{n} V^T V = V \frac{\Sigma^2}{n}$$

$$CV = V\Lambda$$

Remember:

$$AX = X\Lambda$$

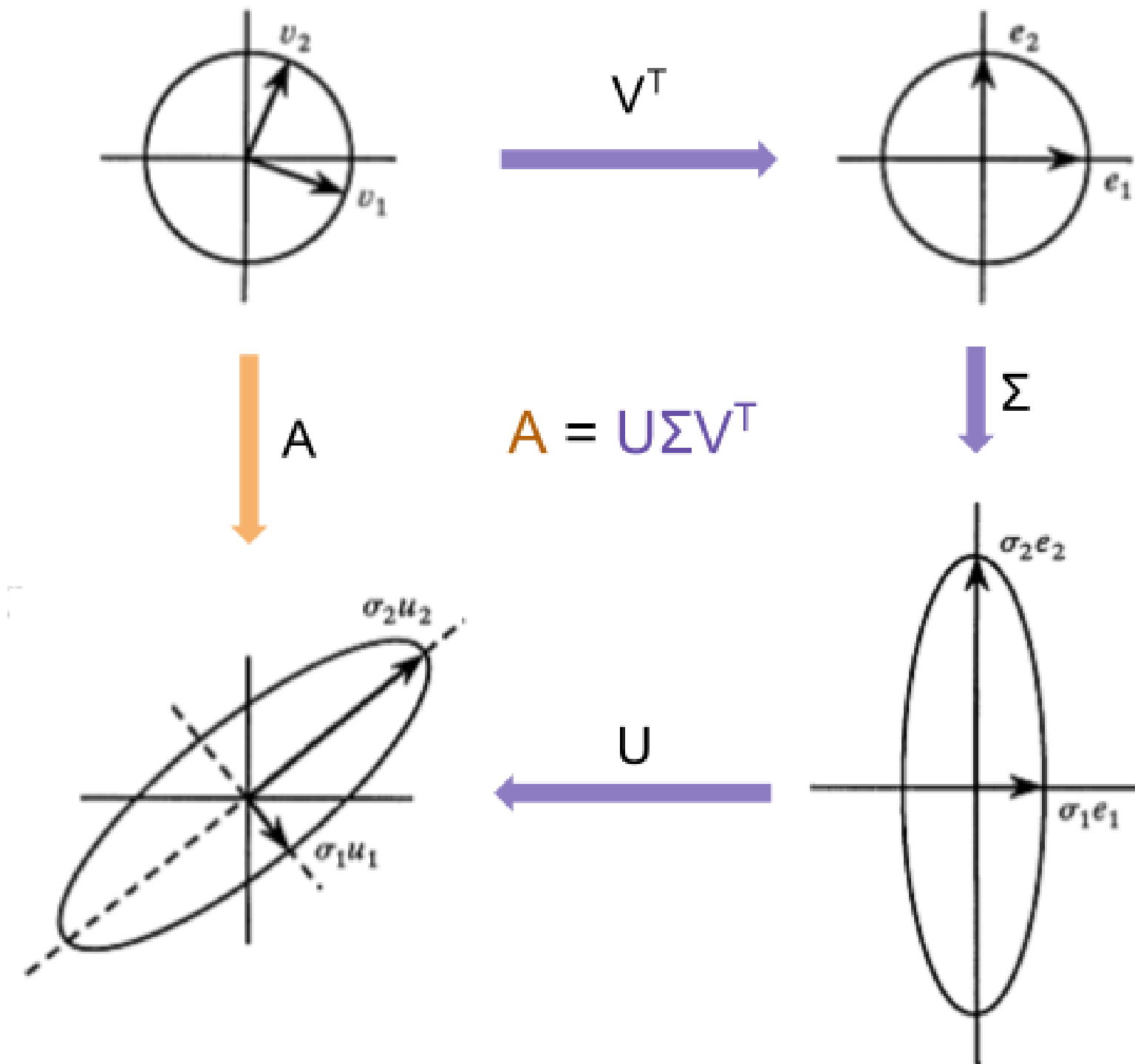
$\lambda_i = \frac{\Sigma_i^2}{n} \rightarrow$  The eigenvalues of covariance matrix

$\lambda_i$ : Eigenvalue of  $C$  or covariance matrix

$\Sigma_i$ : Singular value of  $X$  matrix

So, we can directly calculate eigenvalue of a covariance matrix by having the singular value of matrix  $X$  **directly**

# Geometric Meaning of SVD



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