

Linear algebra

Reference: <https://www.coursera.org/learn/linear-algebra-machine-learning>

Vector operations

Basics

$$\vec{r} + \vec{s} = \vec{s} + \vec{r}$$

$$2\vec{r} = \vec{r} + \vec{r}$$

$$\|\vec{r}\|^2 = \sum_i r_i$$

Dot or inner product

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} = \sum_i r_i s_i$$

- commutative: $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} = \vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}$
- distributive: $\vec{r} \cdot (\vec{s} + \vec{t}) = \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} + \vec{r} \cdot \vec{t}$
- associative: $\vec{r} \cdot (a\vec{s}) = a(\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s})$

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} = \|\vec{r}\|^2$$

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} = \|\vec{r}\| \|\vec{s}\| \cos\theta$$

Scalar and vector projection

- scalar projection (\vec{s} on \vec{r}): $\frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}}{\|\vec{r}\|}$
- vector projection: $\frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}}{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}} \vec{r}$

Orthonormal vectors

$$\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = 0 \text{ (i.e. orthogonal)}$$

$$\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_i = 1 \text{ (i.e. unit size)}$$

Basis

A **basis** is a set of n vectors that:

- are not linear combinations of each other
- span the space

The space is then n -dimensional.

Matrices

Basics

$$A\vec{r} = \vec{r'}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e \\ f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae + bf \\ ce + df \end{bmatrix}$$

- *associative*: $A(n\vec{r}) = n(A\vec{r}) = n\vec{r'}$
- *distributive*: $A(\vec{r} + \vec{s}) = A\vec{r} + A\vec{s}$
- *not commutative*: $AB \neq BA$

$$\text{Identity: } I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Clockwise rotation by } \theta: R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Determinant of 2x2 matrix: } \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$\text{Inverse of 2x2 matrix: } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

Einstein's Summation Convention

For multiplying matrices a and b :

$$ab_{ik} = \sum_j a_{ij}b_{jk}$$

Change of basis

Change from an original basis to a new, primed basis.

The columns of the transformation matrix B are the *new basis vectors in the original coordinate system*. So

$$B\vec{r}' = \vec{r}$$

where r' is the vector in the B -basis, and r is the vector in the original basis. Or

$$\vec{r}' = B^{-1}\vec{r}$$

If a matrix A is **orthonormal** (all the columns are of unit size and orthogonal to each other) then the inverse of an orthonormal matrix is the transposed matrix:

$$A^{-1} = A^T$$

and

$$A^T A = I \text{ (identity matrix)}$$

Orthonormal basis vector set

- Vectors are **linearly independent** if the determinant of the matrix (having these vectors in columns) $\neq 0$
- Vectors are **orthogonal** if their dot product is 0.
- **Orthonormal matrix** = all columns (vectors) are *orthogonal* and of *unit size*

Gram-Schmidt process for constructing an orthonormal basis

How to build an *orthonormal basis vector set* from a basis list of vectors? Apply the **Gram-Schmidt process**: <https://www.coursera.org/learn/linear-algebra-machine-learning/lecture/28C1t/the-gram-schmidt-process>

Start with n linearly independent basis vectors $\vec{v} = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$. Then

$$\vec{e}_1 = \frac{\vec{v}_1}{\|\vec{v}_1\|}$$

$$\vec{u}_2 = \vec{v}_2 - (\vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{e}_1) \vec{e}_1 \text{ and } \vec{e}_2 = \frac{\vec{u}_2}{\|\vec{u}_2\|}$$

... and so on for \vec{u}_3 being the remnant part of \vec{v}_3 not composed of the preceding e-vectors, etc...

Transformation in a plane or other object

If we want to apply a transform on a vector (e.g. a reflexion in a plane) but the vector basis is not orthonormal (which means complex interpretation and calculation), we can do the following:

- First transform into the basis referred to the reflection plane, or whichever, by applying a Gram-Schmidt transform: E^{-1}
- Then do the reflection, or other transformation, in the plane of the new basis: T_E .
- Then transform back into the original basis: E (orthonormal vectors $\{\vec{e}_i\}$ in original basis).
So our transformed vector is:

$$\vec{r'} = ET_E E^{-1} \vec{r}$$

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

An **eigenvector** or **characteristic vector** of a linear transformation A is a nonzero vector \vec{v} that changes at most by a scalar factor λ when that linear transformation is applied to it (A is a square matrix):

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$$

The corresponding **eigenvalue** λ is the factor by which the eigenvector is scaled.

There might be several eigenvalues for a matrix A . Eigenvalues will satisfy the following condition

$$(A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = 0$$

where I is an n by n dimensional identity matrix.

This equation has a nonzero solution \vec{v} if and only if the determinant of the matrix $(A - \lambda I)$ is zero. Therefore, the eigenvalues of A are values of λ that satisfy the equation

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

which can be factored into the product of n linear terms,

$$|A - \lambda I| = (\lambda_1 - \lambda)(\lambda_2 - \lambda) \cdots (\lambda_n - \lambda)$$

where each λ_i may be real but in general is a complex number. The numbers $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$, which may not all have distinct values, are roots of the polynomial and are the **eigenvalues of A**.

Geometrically, an *eigenvector*, corresponding to a real nonzero eigenvalue, points in a direction in which it is stretched by the transformation and the *eigenvalue* is the factor by which it is stretched. If the eigenvalue is negative, the direction is reversed. Loosely speaking, in a multidimensional vector space, the eigenvector is not rotated.

Very cool tool to visualize matrix transformations and their eigenvectors:

<https://www.coursera.org/learn/linear-algebra-machine-learning/ungradedWidget/AVEfF/visualising-matrices-and-eigen>

Diagonalization and the eigendecomposition

Reference: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eigendecomposition_of_a_matrix

Suppose the eigenvectors of A form a basis, or equivalently A has n **linearly independent eigenvectors** $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ with associated eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$. The eigenvalues need not be distinct. Define a square matrix Q whose columns are the n linearly independent eigenvectors of A ,

$$Q = [\vec{v}_1 \quad \vec{v}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \vec{v}_n]$$

Since each column of Q is an eigenvector of A , right multiplying A by Q scales each column of Q by its associated eigenvalue,

$$AQ = [\lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \quad \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \lambda_n \vec{v}_n]$$

With this in mind, define a diagonal matrix Λ where each diagonal element Λ_{ii} is the eigenvalue λ_i associated with the i th column of Q . Then

$$AQ = Q\Lambda$$

Because the columns of Q are linearly independent, Q is *invertible*. Right multiplying both sides of the equation by Q^{-1} ,

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$$

or by instead left multiplying both sides by Q^{-1} ,

$$Q^{-1}AQ = \Lambda$$

A can therefore be decomposed into:

- a matrix composed of its eigenvectors,
- a diagonal matrix with its eigenvalues along the diagonal, and
- the inverse of the matrix of eigenvectors.

This is called the **eigendecomposition** and it is a similarity transformation. Such a matrix A is said to be *similar* to the diagonal matrix Λ or **diagonalizable** (see

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diagonal_matrix). The matrix Q is the change of basis matrix of the similarity transformation. Essentially, the matrices A and Λ represent the same linear transformation expressed in two different bases. The eigenvectors are used as the basis when representing the linear transformation as Λ .

Note that the following equation allows to compute more quickly the matrix exponential of A :

$$A^m = Q\Lambda^m Q^{-1}$$

where

$$\Lambda^m = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^m & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^m & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n^m \end{bmatrix}$$

Moreover, the eigenvalues of A^2 and A^{-1} are λ^2 and λ^{-1} , with the same eigenvectors.