Review of Linear Algebra

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COMP 4102A Winter 2015 Version 1

Linear algebra

- Is an important area of mathematics
- It is the basis of computer vision
- Is very widely taught, and there are many resources and books available
- We only focus on the basics
- Need to understand matrices, vectors and their basic operations

Linear Equations

A system of linear equations, e.g.

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 = 2$$
$$4x_1 + 11x_2 = 1$$

can be written in matrix form, m rows and n columns:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

or in general:

$$Ax = b$$

Matrix

A matrix is an $m \times n$ array of numbers.

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

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 & 4 \\ -4 & 1 & 3 & 9 \\ 0 & 7 & 10 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Arithmetic

Matrix addition

$$A_{m \times n} + B_{m \times n} = \left[a_{ij} + b_{ij} \right]_{m \times n}$$

Matrix multiplication

$$A_{m \times n} B_{n \times p} = C_{m \times p} \qquad c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

Matrix transpose

$$A^{T} = [a_{ji}]$$

$$(A+B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T} \qquad (AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$$

Matrices

An $\underline{m} \times \underline{n}$ matrix has \underline{m} rows and \underline{n} columns (height by width, y by x)

Q: Express A,B,C as $\underline{m} \times \underline{n}$

Matrices

An $\underline{m} \times \underline{n}$ matrix has \underline{m} rows and \underline{n} columns (height by width, y by x)

Matrix A = Matrix B = Matrix C =
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & l \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} j & k & l & m \\ n & o & p & q \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r & s & t \\ u & v & y \\ z & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q: Express A,B,C as $\underline{m} \times \underline{n}$

A: Matrix A is 3 x 3 Matrix B is 2 x 4 Matrix C is 4 x 3

Matrices

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Q: Which matrices can be multiplied by each other?

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Hint: # cols of first matrix = # rows of second matrix

Matrices

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Matrix A = Matrix B = Matrix C =
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} j & k & l & m \\ n & o & p & q \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r & s & t \\ u & v & y \\ z & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q: Express A,B,C as <u>m</u> x <u>n</u>

A: Matrix A is 3 x 3 Matrix B is 2 x 4 Matrix C is 4 x 3

Q: Which matrices can be multiplied by each other?

Hint: # cols of first matrix = # rows of second matrix

Answer: BC CA

Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

Q: But first... What will size of result be?

Calculate CA

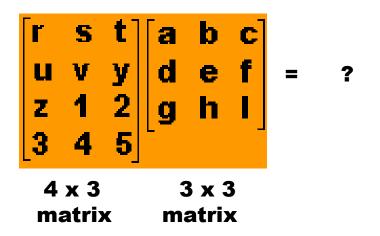
Matrix C Matrix A

Q: But first... What will size of result be?

HINT: 1st matrix must have as many columns as 2nd matrix has rows to allow matrix multiplication

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A: Result is 4 x 3

Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

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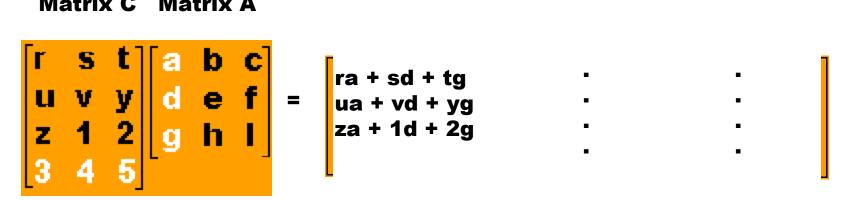
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4 x 3 3 x 3 matrix matrix Result is 4 x 3
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4 x 3 3 x 3 matrix matrix Result is 4 x 3
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Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

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Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

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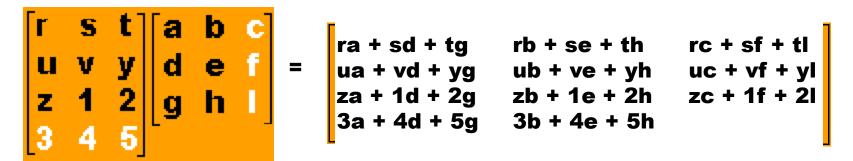
Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A

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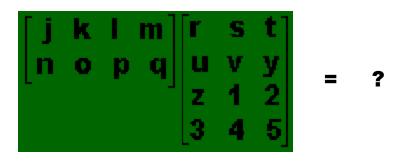
Calculate CA

Matrix C Matrix A



Calculate BC

Matrix B Matrix C

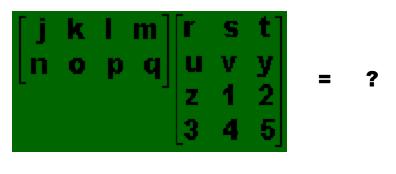


2 x 4 4 x 3 matrix

Q: But first... What will size of result be? HINT: 1st matrix must have as many columns as 2nd matrix has rows to allow matrix multiplication

Calculate BC

Matrix B Matrix C



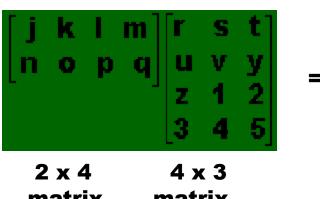
2 x 4 4 x 3 matrix

Q: But first... What will size of result be?
HINT: 1st matrix must have as many columns as 2nd matrix has rows to allow matrix multiplication

A: Result is 2 x 3

Calculate BC

Matrix B Matrix C



Multiplication not commutative

Matrix multiplication is not commutative

$$AB \neq BA$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 29 \\ 19 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 32 \\ 17 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetric Matrix

We say matrix A is symmetric if

$$A^T = A$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

A symmetric matrix has to be a square matrix

Inverse of matrix

If A is a square matrix, the inverse of A, written A⁻¹ satisfies:

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

Where *I*, the identity matrix, is a diagonal matrix with all 1's on the diagonal.

$$I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors – matrices with one column

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{e.g.} \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

A vector is an n by 1 matrix, it is a column in our book

The **length** or the **norm** of a vector is

$$||x|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$
e.g.
$$||x|| = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2 + 5^2} = \sqrt{38}$$

Vector Arithmetic

Vector addition

$$u + v = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ u_2 + v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector subtraction

$$u - v = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - v_1 \\ u_2 - v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication by scalar

$$\alpha u = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha u_1 \\ \alpha u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dot Product (inner product)

$$a = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad b = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a \cdot b = a^{T}b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot (-3) + 5 \cdot 2 = 9$$

$$a \cdot b = a^{T}b = a_{1}b_{1} + a_{2}b_{2} + \dots + a_{n}b_{n}$$

Vectors: Dot Product (Inner product)

$$A \cdot B = A^T B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d \\ e \\ f \end{bmatrix} = ad + be + cf$$
 Think of the dot product as a matrix multiplication

$$||A||^2 = A^T A = aa + bb + cc$$

The magnitude is the dot product of a vector with itself

$$A \cdot B = ||A|| \ ||B|| \cos(\theta)$$

The dot product is also related to the angle between the two vectors

Vectors: Outer product

Here u is an m by 1 column, v is n by 1 column so the outer product is m by n

$$\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1v_1 & u_1v_2 & u_1v_3 \\ u_2v_1 & u_2v_2 & u_2v_3 \\ u_3v_1 & u_3v_2 & u_3v_3 \\ u_4v_1 & u_4v_2 & u_4v_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Trace of Matrix

The trace of a matrix:

$$Tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$$

Orthogonal Matrix

A matrix A is orthogonal if

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

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Transformation (and projections)

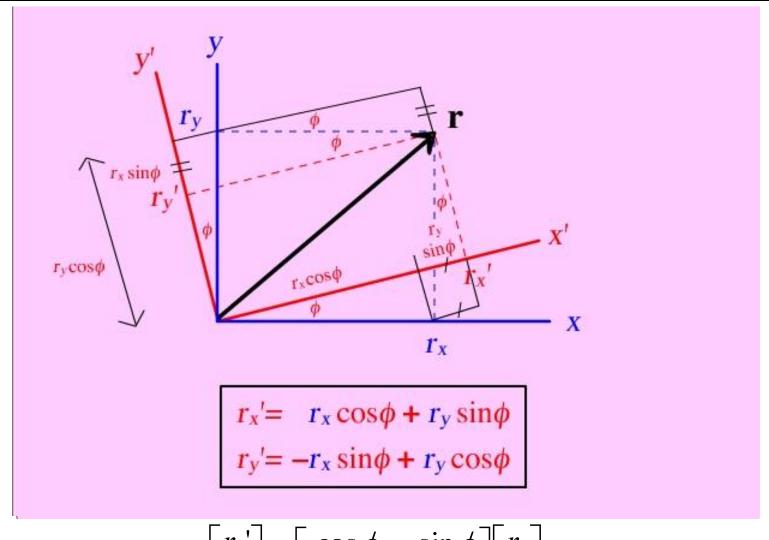
A matrix-vector multiplication transforms one vector to another

$$A_{m\times n}x_{n\times 1}=b_{m\times 1}$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 41 \\ 16 \\ 26 \end{bmatrix}$$

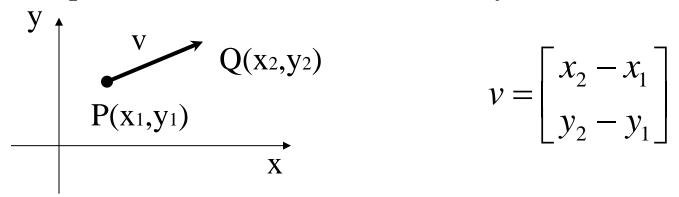
Coordinate Rotation



$$\begin{bmatrix} r_x \\ r_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_x \\ r_y \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors and Points

Two points in a Cartesian coordinate system define a vector



A point can also be represented as a vector, defined by the point and the origin (0.0)

and the origin (0,0).

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = Q - P \quad \text{or} \quad Q = P + V$$

Note: point and vector are different; vectors do not have positions

Least Squares

When m>n for an m-by-n matrix A, Ax = b has no solution.

In this case, we look for an approximate solution. We look for vector \mathcal{X} such that

$$||Ax-b||^2$$

is as small as possible.

This is called the least squares solution.

Least Squares

Least squares solution of linear system of equations

$$Ax = b$$

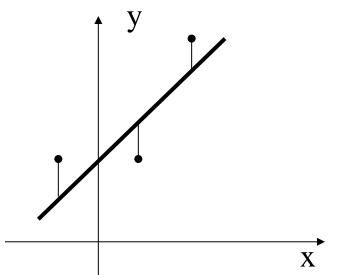
Normal equation: $A^T A x = A^T b$

 $A^T A$ is square and symmetric

The Least Square solution $\bar{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$ makes $\|A\bar{x} - b\|^2$ minimal.

Least Square Fitting of a Line

Line equations:



$$c + dx_1 = y_1$$

$$c + dx_2 = y_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$c + dx_m = y_m$$

$$c + dx_1 = y_1$$

$$c + dx_2 = y_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$c + dx_m = y_m$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

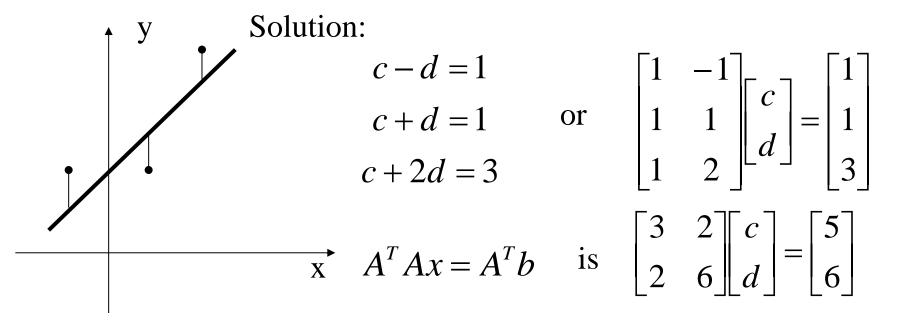
$$Ax = y$$

The best solution c, d is the one that minimizes:

$$E^{2} = \|y - Ax\|^{2} = (y_{1} - c - dx_{1})^{2} + \dots + (y_{m} - c - dx_{m})^{2}.$$

Least Square Fitting - Example

Problem: find the line that best fit these three points:



The solution is $c = \frac{9}{7}$, $d = \frac{4}{7}$ and best line is $\frac{9}{7} + \frac{4}{7}x = y$

Homogeneous System

- m linear equations with n unknowns Ax = 0
- Assume that m >= n-1 and rank(A) = n-1
- Trivial solution is $\mathbf{x} = 0$ but there are more
- If we have a given solution x, s.t. Ax = 0 then
 c * x is also a solution since A(c* x) = 0
- Need to add a constraint on x,
 - Usually make \mathbf{x} a unit vector $\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} = 1$
- Can prove that the solution of $A\mathbf{x} = 0$ satisfying this constraint is the eigenvector corresponding to the only zero eigenvalue of that matrix $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$

Homogeneous System

- This solution can be computed using the eigenvector or SVD routine
 - Find the zero eigenvalue (or the eigenvalue almost zero)
 - Then the associated eigenvector is the solution x
- And any scalar times x is also a solution

Linear Independence

 A set of vectors is linear dependant if one of the vectors can be expressed as a linear combination of the other vectors.

$$v_k = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} v_{k-1} + \alpha_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

 A set of vectors is linearly independent if none of the vectors can be expressed as a linear combination of the other vectors.

Eigenvalue and Eigenvector

We say that x is an eigenvector of a square matrix A if

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

 λ is called eigenvalue and x is called eigenvector.

The transformation defined by A changes only the magnitude of the vector x

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

5 and 2 are eigenvalues, and $\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$ and $\begin{vmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{vmatrix}$ are eigenvectors.

Properties of Eigen Vectors

- If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_q$ are distinct eigenvalues of a matrix, then the corresponding eigenvectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, ..., \mathbf{e}_q$ are linearly independent.
- A real, symmetric matrix has real eigenvalues with eigenvectors that can be chosen to be orthonormal.

SVD: Singular Value Decomposition

An $m \times n$ matrix A can be decomposed into:

$$A = UDV^T$$

U is $m \times m$, V is $n \times n$, both of them have orthogonal columns:

$$U^TU = I$$
 $V^TV = I$

D is an $m \times n$ diagonal matrix.

Example:

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

Singular Value Decomposition

- •Any m by n matrix A can be written as product of three matrices $A = UDV^T$
- •The columns of the m by m matrix U are mutually orthogonal unit vectors, as are the columns of the n by n matrix V
- •The m by n matrix D is diagonal, and the diagonal elements, σ_i are called the singular values
- •It is the case that $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \sigma_n \ge 0$
- •A matrix is non-singular if and only all of the singular values are not zero
- •The condition number of the matrix is $\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_r}$
- •If the condition number is large, then then matrix is almost singular and is called ill-conditioned

Singular Value Decomposition

- •The rank of a square matrix is the number of linearly independent rows or columns
- •For a square matrix (m = n) the number of non-zero singular values equals the rank of the matrix
- •If A is a square, non-singular matrix, it's inverse can be written as $A^{-1} = VD^{-1}U^T$ where $A = UDV^T$
- The squares of the non zero singular values are the non-zero eigenvalues of both the n by n matrix A^TA and of the m by m matrix AA^T
- •The columns of U are the eigenvectors of AA^T
- •The columns of V are the eigenvectors of A^TA