Monday, January 23, 2023 12:16 AM

Any vector can be seen as a matrix with only one row and multiple columns or vice verse.

Sum of matrices:

It's just for two equally shaped matrices:

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \cdots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar multiplication:

$$\alpha A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a_{11} & \cdots & \alpha a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha a_{m1} & \cdots & \alpha a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication of matrices:

It needs that m (number of columns) of the first matrix to be equal to the n (number of rows) of the second matrix.

$$A(n \times m) \cdot B(m \times n) = C(n \times m)$$

Example

$$A \cdot B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}_{(2 \times 3)} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}_{(3 \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1(8) + 4(6) + 2(2) \\ 4(8) + 3(6) + 6(2) \end{bmatrix}_{(2 \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 36 \\ 62 \end{bmatrix}_{(2 \times 1)}$$

Transposed matrix:

It consists in exchanging the order of the matrix dimensions, if we replace a_{ij} for a_{ji} we will have a transposed matrix, that is denoted by A^T

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} \\ a_{13} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Squared matrix:

Matrix with same number of columns and rows.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{14} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{41} & \cdots & a_{44} \end{bmatrix}_{(4 \times 4)}$$

Diagonal matrix:

It is represented by a matrix with values in diagonal a_{ii} and with zeros in the rest of elements. Also it must be symmetric.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity matrix:

It is a diagonal matrix, whose diagonal values are one.

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Determinant matrix:

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = |A| = \det\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \right) \therefore \begin{bmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{bmatrix} = +a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}$$

Trace of matrix:

It is the sum of its diagonal entries:

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

Also it's the sum of its eigen values:

$$tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$$

Inverse matrix:

It holds the property that a matrix multiplied by its inverse matrix gives the entity matrix:

$$A \cdot A^{-1} = A^{-1} \cdot A = I$$

Linear maps:

A linear map is a function between vector spaces: $T: V \to W$

In a function $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, a matrix of dimension n is transformed into a matrix of m dimension. $\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Also it can be denoted as:

$$\vec{y} = A \cdot \vec{x}$$

Rotation matrix:

A matrix can make a vector rotate around the origin. It is expressed as:

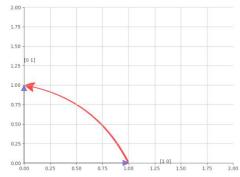
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

For example: For a rotation of 90 degrees:

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

Rotating vector:

$$\vec{w} = R \cdot \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{(2 \times 2)} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 1}$$

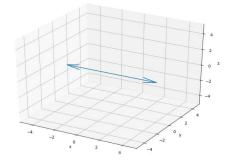


In three dimensions, the three axis rotation matrices are defined as:

$$R_{x}(\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{y}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{z}(\psi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi & 0 \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Eigen things:

A squared matrix with a non-zero vector in a vector space has eigen values and eigen vectors. Eigen Vectors are linearly independent, also it's direction never changes, only they can be scaled. Eigen Values scales the eigen vectors.

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

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigen Vector is \vec{x} :

$$A\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \to \lambda_i$$

$$(A - \lambda_i I) \vec{v}_{ij} = 0 \to \vec{v}_{ij}$$

Pythagorean theorem:

The square value of the sum of the squared elements represents the distance of the vector.

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| = \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$

$$\vec{x}=(4,0)$$

$$\vec{y} = (0,3)$$

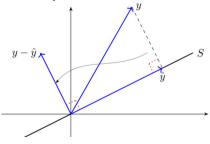
$$x_{length} = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2} = 4$$

$$y_{length} = \sqrt{0^2 + 3^2 = 3}$$

$$hypotenusa_{length} = 5$$

Orthogonal projections:

The projection of a vector is the component of the vector in a subspace. Example given a vector $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and subspace $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, the vector can be projected in the subspace S to give \hat{y}



The projection can be calculated with the basis \vec{s}_i of S and the inner product between \vec{y} of $V \vec{s}_i$ of S

$$P_{s}\hat{y} = \langle \vec{y}, \vec{s}_{1} \rangle \vec{s}_{1} + \dots + \langle \vec{y}, \vec{s}_{m} \rangle \vec{s}_{m}$$

P denotes Projection

Angles brackes denote inner product

Calculate the remaning side of the triangle:

$$P_{s}\vec{y} = argmin ||\vec{y} - \vec{s}||^{2}$$