

Maths for Signals and Systems

Linear Algebra in Engineering

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Mathematics for Signals and Systems

In this set of lectures we will talk about two applications:

- Linear Transformations
- Summary of Decompositions and Matrices

Linear transformations

- Consider the parameters/functions/vectors/other mathematical quantities denoted by u and v .
- A transformation is an operator applied on the above quantities, i.e., $T(u), T(v)$.
- A linear transformation possesses the following two properties:
 - $T(u + v) = T(u) + T(v)$
 - $T(cv) = cT(v)$ where c is a scalar.
- By grouping the above two conditions we get
$$T(c_1u + c_2v) = c_1T(u) + c_2T(v)$$
- The zero vector in a linear transformation is always mapped to zero.

Examples of transformations

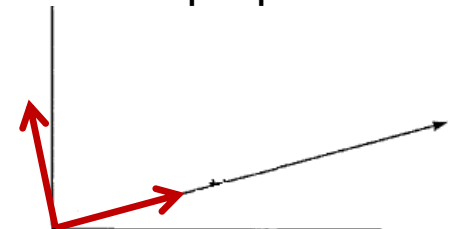
- Is the transformation $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^2$, which carries out projection of any vector of the 2-D plane on a specific straight line, a linear transformation?
- Is the transformation $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^2$, which shifts the entire plane by a vector v_0 , a linear transformation?
- Is the transformation $T: R^3 \rightarrow R$, which takes as input a vector and produces as output its length, a linear transformation?
- Is the transformation $T: R^2 \rightarrow R^2$, which rotates a vector by 45° a linear transformation?
- Is the transformation $T(v) = Av$, where A is a matrix, a linear transformation?

Examples of transformations

- Consider a transformation $T: R^3 \rightarrow R^2$.
- In case $T(v) = Av$, then A is a matrix of size 2×3 .
- If we know the outputs of the transformation if applied on a set of vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n which form a basis of some space, then we know the output to any vector that belongs to that space.
- **Recall: The coordinates of a system are based on its basis.**
- Most of the time when we talk about coordinates we think about the “standard” basis, which consists of the rows (columns) of the identity matrix.
- Another popular basis consists of the eigenvectors of a matrix.

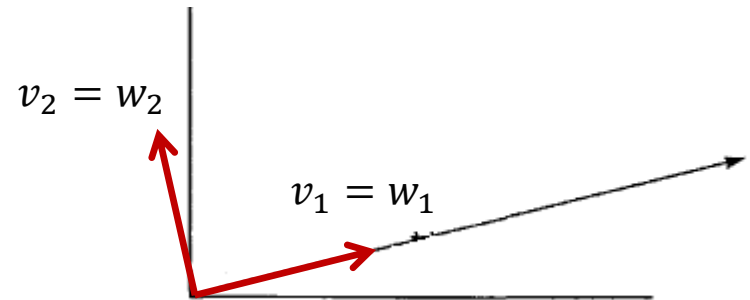
Examples of transformations: Projections

- Consider the matrix A that represents a linear transformation T .
- Most of the times the required transformation is of the form $T: R^n \rightarrow R^m$.
- I need to choose two bases, one for R^n , denoted by v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n and one for R^m denoted by w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m .
- I am looking for a transformation that if applied on a vector described with the input coordinates produces the output co-ordinates.
- Consider R^2 and the transformation which projects any vector on the line shown on the figure below.
- I consider as basis for R^2 the vectors shown with red below and not the “standard” vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.
- One of the basis vectors lies on the required line and the other is perpendicular to the former.



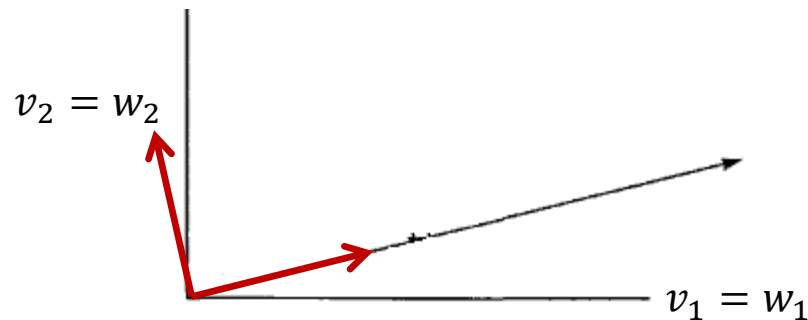
Examples of transformations: Projections cont.

- I consider as basis for R^2 the vectors shown with red below both before and after the transformation.
- Any vector v in R^2 can be written as $v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2$.
- We are looking for $T(\cdot)$ such that $T(v_1) = v_1$ and $T(v_2) = 0$.
- Furthermore,
$$T(v) = c_1 T(v_1) + c_2 T(v_2) = c_1 v_1$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
- The matrix in that case is Λ .
This is the “good” matrix.



Examples of transformations: Projections cont.

- I now consider as basis for R^2 the “standard” basis.
- $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.
- Consider projections on to 45° line.
- In this example the required matrix is
$$P = \frac{aa^T}{a^T a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$
- Here we didn’t choose the “best” basis, we chose the “handiest” basis.



Examples of transformations: Derivative of a function

- Consider a linear transformation that takes the derivative of a function. (The derivative is a linear transformation!)
- $T = \frac{d(\cdot)}{dx}$
- Consider input $c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2$. Basis consists of the functions $1, x, x^2$.
- The output should be $c_2 + 2c_3x$. Basis consists of the functions $1, x$.
- I am looking for a matrix A such that $A \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_2 \\ 2c_3 \end{bmatrix}$.
- This is $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Summary of Decompositions: LU Decomposition

- What is it?
 - $A = LU$, A is a square matrix.
 - L a lower triangular matrix with 1s on the diagonal.
 - U an upper triangular matrix with the pivots of A on the diagonal.
- When does it exist?
 - If the matrix is invertible (the determinant is not 0), then a pure LU decomposition exists only if the **leading principal minors** are not 0. The leading principal minors are the “north-west” determinants.

Example:

The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ does not have an LU although it is invertible.

- If the matrix is not invertible (the determinant is 0), then we can't know if there is a pure LU decomposition.
- LU decomposition works with rectangular matrices as well, with slight modifications/extensions.

LDU Decomposition

- What is it?
 - $A = LDU$, A is a square matrix.
 - L a lower triangular matrix with 1s on the diagonal.
 - D a diagonal matrix with the pivots of A across the diagonal.
 - U an upper triangular matrix with 1s on the diagonal.
- When does it exist?
 - The same requirements as in pure LU decomposition.

Example:

$$A = LU = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 8 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The above can be written as:

$$A = LDU = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 8 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- LDU decomposition works with rectangular matrices as well, with slight modifications/extensions.

A=ER

- What is it?
 - $A = ER$
 - A is any matrix of dimension $m \times n$.
 - E a square invertible matrix of dimension $m \times m$.
 - $R = \begin{bmatrix} I_{r \times r} & F_{r \times (n-r)} \\ \mathbf{0}_{(m-r) \times r} & \mathbf{0}_{(m-r) \times (n-r)} \end{bmatrix}$
 - F is a random matrix.
 - r is the rank of A .
- When does it exist?
 - Always.

A=QR for square matrices

- What is it?
 - $A = QR$
 - A is any matrix of dimension $n \times n$.
 - Q a square invertible matrix of dimension $n \times n$ with orthogonal columns.
 - The columns of Q are derived from the columns of A .
 - If A is not invertible the first r columns of Q are derived from the independent columns of A . r is the rank of A . The last $(n - r)$ columns of Q are chosen to be orthogonal to the first r ones.
 - R is upper triangular if A is invertible. If A is NOT invertible the last $(n - r)$ rows of R are filled with zeros. (Look at Problem Sheet 6, Question 6, Matrix B).
- When does it exist?
 - Always.
- QR decomposition exists also for rectangular matrices. I haven't taught this case.

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

- What is it?
 - $A = S\Lambda S^{-1}$
 - A is a square invertible matrix of dimension $n \times n$.
- When does it exist?
 - When A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^T$$

- What is it?
 - $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$
 - A is a real, symmetric matrix of dimension $n \times n$.
 - The above decomposition is the so called **Spectral Theorem**.
- When does it exist?
 - When A is real and symmetric.

The Singular Value Decomposition $A = U\Sigma V^T$

- What is it?
 - $A = U\Sigma V^T$
 - A is any matrix of dimension $m \times n$.
 - U is an orthogonal matrix of dimension $m \times m$ whose columns are the eigenvectors of matrix AA^T .
 - Σ is a singular value matrix, with the singular values of A in its main diagonal.
 - V is an orthogonal matrix of dimension $n \times n$ whose columns are the eigenvectors of matrix $A^T A$.
 - The squares of the singular values of A are the eigenvalues of both AA^T and $A^T A$.
- When does it exist?
 - Always.

Summary of matrices

- Projection matrix P onto subspace S .
 - $p = Pb$ is the closest point to b in S .
 - $P^2 = P = P^T$.
 - Condition $P^2 = P$ is sufficient to characterise a matrix as a projection matrix.
 - Eigenvalues: 0 or 1.
 - Eigenvectors are in S or S^\perp .
 - If the columns of matrix A are a basis for S , then $P = A(A^T A)^{-1}A^T$.
- Orthogonal matrix Q .
 - Square matrix with orthonormal columns.
 - $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 - Eigenvalues: $|\lambda| = 1$.
 - Eigenvectors are orthogonal.
 - Preserves length and angles, i.e., $\|Qx\| = \|x\|$.

Also recall

- Symmetric (or Hermitian) matrices (real eigenvalues).
- Positive definite and positive semi-definite matrices. Their eigenvalues are positive or non-negative respectively.
- Matrices $A^T A$ and AA^T .
 - They have identical eigenvalues.
 - Their eigenvalues are non-negative.
- Square matrices.
- Rectangular matrices.