

2.A Appendix: Fundamental Concepts of Linear Algebra

- a **Matrices.** Matrix, more precisely an $n \times m$ matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rows $i = 1, \dots, n$, columns $j = 1, \dots, m$. Elements a_{ij} .

Square Matrix: Equal number of rows and columns, $n = m$.

Symmetric Matrix: It holds that $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$.

Diagonal of a Square Matrix: The elements $[a_{11}, a_{22}, \dots, a_{nn}]$.

Diagonal Matrix: Consists “only of the diagonal”, $d_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_{22} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- b **Transposed Matrix:** If we switch the rows and columns of a matrix \mathbf{A} , we get the transposed matrix \mathbf{A}^T :

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & a_{2m} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Notes:

1. It is obvious that $(\mathbf{A}^T)^T = \mathbf{A}$ (like a mattress, turned twice).
2. For symmetric matrices, $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$.

- c **Vectors.** A vector, more precisely a column vector: n numbers, written on top of one another.

$$\underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Elements b_i .

- d **Transposed Vectors:** Column vectors become row vectors if we transpose them:

$$\underline{b}^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}^T = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n].$$

Row vectors save more printing space than column vectors, and so column vectors are often written as transposed row vectors: $\underline{b} = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n]^T$.

- e **Simple Calculation Operations.** Addition and subtraction: This is possible only if the two matrices (vectors) have equal dimensions. We add or subtract the corresponding elements.

Multiplication by a number (a “scalar”): Each elements is multiplied. Division by a number: analogous.

Quite often in statistics and elsewhere we meet so called **linear combinations** of vectors. This is a name for expressions of the form

$$\lambda_1 \underline{b}_1 + \lambda_2 \underline{b}_2$$

plus possibly other such terms – we add multiples of the vectors involved.

- f **Matrix Multiplication.** Matrices can only be multiplied if the dimensions fit: $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ is defined if the number of columns of \mathbf{A} equals the number of rows of \mathbf{B} . Then

$$c_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} b_{jk}$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 4 & 2 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot (-2) \\ (-1) \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 4 & (-1) \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot (-2) \\ 3 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 4 & 3 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot (-2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ -3 & -1 \\ 13 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Notes:

1. In the example $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ is not defined, since \mathbf{B} has 2 columns, but \mathbf{A} has 3 rows.
2. If $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ are both defined, they are, in general, different; $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \neq \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$! Matrices in a multiplication are **not interchangeable**.
3. We can have $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$ even if neither $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$ nor $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$.
4. The associative property holds: $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C})$
5. The distributive property holds: $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}$ and similarly $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}$.
6. Transposition of a product:

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \cdot \mathbf{A}^T$$

We must thus **reverse the order when we transpose!**

7. The product $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}^T$ is always symmetric.
- g All this also holds for vectors: If \underline{a} and \underline{b} are column vectors, then

$$\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & \dots & a_1 b_m \\ a_2 b_1 & a_2 b_2 & \dots & a_2 b_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_n b_1 & a_n b_2 & \dots & a_n b_m \end{bmatrix}.$$

If they have the same length,

$$\underline{a}^T \cdot \underline{b} = \sum_i a_i \cdot b_i.$$

“A matrix times a column vector ” (if defined) gives a column vector: $\mathbf{A} \cdot \underline{b} = \underline{c}$.

- h The **length of a vector** is the root of $\sum_i a_i^2$. We often denote this with $\|\underline{a}\|$. We can write

$$\|\underline{a}\|^2 = \underline{a}^T \cdot \underline{a}.$$

- i The **identity matrix** (of dimension m) is defined as a diagonal with only ones:

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It does not change matrices under multiplication: $\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$.

- j **Inverse Matrix.** If \mathbf{A} is square and $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$, \mathbf{B} is called the inverse matrix of \mathbf{A} ; we write $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

Notes:

1. It then also holds that $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$. So, if $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$, then also $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}$.
2. There does not exist an inverse for every square matrix \mathbf{A} . If it exists, we call \mathbf{A} **regular**, and there exists only one inverse. If there is no inverse, we call \mathbf{A} **singular**.
3. $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$.
4. Inverse of a matrix product: If \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are square,

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

The order must thus be reversed when inverting a product!

5. We have $(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T$. We often write in short \mathbf{A}^{-T} .

- k **Linear Equation System.** Summarized in short: The equation system

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}\beta_1 + a_{12}\beta_2 + \dots + a_{1m}\beta_m &= y_1 \\ a_{21}\beta_1 + a_{22}\beta_2 + \dots + a_{2m}\beta_m &= y_2 \\ &\dots \dots \\ a_{m1}\beta_1 + a_{m2}\beta_2 + \dots + a_{mm}\beta_m &= y_m \end{aligned}$$

(for the β_j) can be written as

$$\mathbf{A}\underline{\beta} = \underline{y}$$

(for $\underline{\beta}$). There is exactly one solution if \mathbf{A} is regular, thus if the inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists. Then

$$\underline{\beta} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\underline{y}$$

is this solution.

- 1 If the **matrix A is singular**, then there exists a row $[a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{im}]$ that can be written as a linear combination of the others. The corresponding equation leads either to an inconsistency (no solution) or is superfluous (infinitely many solutions). We speak of a **linear dependency** of the rows of the matrix or of the equations.
(If the matrix is singular, there also exists a column that can be written as a linear combination of the others. So, the column vectors are also linearly dependent.)