Linear Algebra Review

ORIE 4741

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Linear Independence

The sequence of vectors $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is linear independent if the only linear combination of them that gives zero vector have all coefficients as zero. Specifically, for any $l_1, \ldots, l_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$l_1v_1 + \ldots + l_nv_n = \mathbf{0} \implies l_1, \ldots, l_n = 0.$$

- Solve $l_1v_1 + \ldots + l_nv_n = \mathbf{0} \implies l_1, \ldots, l_n = 0$ (p equations and n variables) and there is a unique solution which is a zero vector.
- v_i cannot be represented by linear combination of $V_1, \ldots, V_{i-1}, V_{i+1}, V_n$

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- \triangleright v_i cannot be represented by linear combination of $v_1, \ldots, v_{i-1}, v_{i+1}, v_n$.

Examples

The vectors [1,0], [0,1] are linearly independent.

Linear Dependence

The sequence of vectors $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is linear dependent if there exists a linear combination of them that gives zero vector which has at least one non-zero coefficient. Specifically, there exists a sequence $l_1, \ldots, l_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$l_1v_1 + \ldots + l_nv_n = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $l_i \neq 0$ for some $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

- Solve $l_1v_1 + \ldots + l_nv_n = \mathbf{0} \implies l_1, \ldots, l_n = 0$ (p equations and n variables) and there is at least one non-zero solution.

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- Solve $l_1v_1 + \ldots + l_nv_n = \mathbf{0} \implies l_1, \ldots, l_n = 0$ (p equations and n variables) and there is at least one non-zero solution.
- $v_i = \sum_{j \neq i} -\frac{l_j}{l_i} v_j.$

Examples

The vectors [1,0],[0,1],[1,1] are linearly dependent because [1,0]+[0,1]-[1,1]=0.

Now we have a matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ A collection of *n* row vectors $a_1, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$.
- ▶ A collection of *p* column vectors $A_1, ..., A_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Row Rank and Column Rank

The row rank of a matrix is the maximum number of linearly independent rows in a matrix.

The column rank of a matrix is the maximum number of linearly independent columns in a matrix.

Matrix Rank: Exercise

Compute the row rank and the column rank of the following matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The row rank of A is 2.
- The column rank of A is also 2.
- The row rank of B is 3.
- The column rank of B is also 3.

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- The rank of a matrix is defined as its' row rank or column rank.
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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Both A and B have full rank.

Suppose we have matrix $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p} (n \neq p)$ and $C, D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Dimension match AB is not defined, while AB^{\top} and $B^{\top}A$ are defined.

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- $(CD)^{\top} = D^{\top}C^{\top}.$
- (C+D)A = CA + DA.
- ightharpoonup CDA = (CD)A = C(DA).

Matrix Product Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (1*5) + (2*7) & (1*6) + 2*8 \\ (3*5) + (4*7) & (3*6) + 4*8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 19 & 22 \\ 43 & 50 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix

Identity Matrix

The identity matrix, I_p , is an $p \times p$ matrix with 1s on the diagonal and 0s everywhere else.

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

- For any vector x of size $p \times 1$, $I_p x = x$
- For any matrix C of size $n \times n$, $CI_p = I_pC = C$.
- For any matrix A of size $n \times p$, $AI_p = I_n A = A$.

Matrix Inverse

Invertible Matrix

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- Only square matrices can be invertible.
- C is invertible is equivalent to that C is square and has full rank.
- If C is invertible, there exists one and only one D such that $CD = DC = I_n$. We write such D as C^{-1} .

Invertible Matrix Example

Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

Then, the inverse of A is: $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

Check that A^{-1} satisfies the definition of an inverse:

$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Therefore, A^{-1} is the inverse of A .

Norm

For a vector $v = [v_1, \dots, v_p]$, we commonly use the following norms:

- ℓ_2 norm: $||v||_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_p^2}$.
- ℓ_1 norm: $||v||_1 = |v_1| + \cdots + |v_p|$.
- $\blacktriangleright \ell_{\infty}$ norm: $||v||_{\infty} = \max_{i=1,...,p} |v_i|$.

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For a matrix A of size $n \times p$, we commonly use the following norms:

Frobeinus norm: $||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^p a_{ij}^2}$.

Multivariate Derivatives

Gradients

Let $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)$ be a function from \mathbb{R}^p to \mathbb{R} . The gradient of f, $\nabla f \in \mathbb{R}^p$, has each entry corresponds to a partial derivative of f with respect to a variable of the function, $\nabla f_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$ for j = 1, ..., p.

▶ $\nabla f = (\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_p})$ is a function from \mathbb{R}^p to \mathbb{R}^p .

Hessian Matrix

Hessian Matrix

Let $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_p)$ be a function from \mathbb{R}^p to \mathbb{R} . The Hessian matrix of f, $H \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$, has each entry corresponds to a second order partial derivative of f, $H(i,j) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$.

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_p \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_p \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_p \partial x_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

▶ The *i*-th row (or column) of *H* is the gradient of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$, i.e. $\nabla \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$.

Example

Let
$$f(x, y, z) = 5x + 2x^2 + xy + 3xy^2z - 4y^3 + 2yz + 4z^2 - x^4yz^2$$
, then
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 5 + 4x + y + 3y^2z - 4x^3yz^2,$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x + 6xyz - 12y^2 + 2z - x^4z^2,$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 3xy^2 + 2y + 8z - 2x^4yz.$$

▶ The gradient $\nabla f = [\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}]$, and the Hessian matrix is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 - 12x^{2}yz^{2} & 1 + 6yz - 4x^{3}z^{2} & 3y^{2} - 8x^{3}yz \\ 1 + 6yz - 4x^{3}z^{2} & 6xz - 24y & 6xy + 2 - 2x^{4}z \\ 3y^{2} - 8x^{3}yz & 6xy + 2 - 2x^{4}z & 8 - 2x^{4}y \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$x^{\top} A x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_i x_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{1 \le i \le j \le n} a_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

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$$\frac{\partial x^{\top} A x}{\partial x_i} = 2a_{ii}x_i + 2\sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij}x_j = 2\sum_{1 \leq j \leq n} a_{ij}x_j = 2x^{\top} a_i.$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ stores the *i*-th row of A.

For a vector of variable $x = [x_1, \dots, x_p] \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and a constant symmetric matrix A of size $p \times p$, what is the gradients of $x^\top A x$?

$$x^{\top}Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{i}x_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}x_{i}^{2} + 2\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} a_{ij}x_{i}x_{j}.$$

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Gradients:
$$\nabla \partial x^{\top} A x = 2x^{\top} A$$
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where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ stores the *i*-th row of A.

Gradients:
$$\nabla \partial x^{\top} A x = 2x^{\top} A$$
.

Hessian:
$$H = 2A$$
.

Flops

Flop

A floating point operation (flop) adds, multiplies, subtracts, or divides two floating point numbers.

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, how many flops are needed for computing $||y - Ax||_2^2$?

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- ▶ $a_1^{\top} x$ takes p flops for multiplies and p-1 flops for adds, thus 2p-1 in total.
- Ax takes (2p-1)n flops in total.
- $\triangleright y AX$ takes p flops for subtracts.
- ▶ $||y Ax||_2^2$ takes p flops for multiplies and p 1 flops for add, thus 2p 1 in total.

In total, we need 2np - n + 3p - 1 flops.

Big O Notation

Let f(n) be the run-time of some algorithm. If f(n) = O(g(n)), then there exists a constant C and a constant N such that: $|f(n)| \le C|g(n)|$ for all n > N.

In the last example, we need 2np - n + 3p - 1 flops. Now assume p is a constant while n can increase to infinity.

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$$0 < 2np - n + 3p - 1 < 2np - n + 3p < 2np - n + 3n = (2p + 2)n$$

when n > p.

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when n > p.

$$2np - n + 3p - 1 = |2np - n + 3p - 1| \le (2p + 2)|n| = (2p + 2)n$$

thus 2np - n + 3p - 1 has complexity O(n).

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$$|2np - n + 3p - 1| < 2np + n + 3p + 1 < 2np + np + np + np = 5np$$

when n > 3. Thus 2np - n + 3p - 1 has complexity O(np).

Matrix product order matters!

► The computation complexity of matrix product AB with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ is O(npm).

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With matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ (or $\mathbb{R}^{p \times 1}$),

▶ (CA)x has complexity $O(n^2p)$ for computing CA and O(np) for computing (CA)x with computed (CA), thus $O(n^2p)$ in total.

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- ▶ (CA)x has complexity $O(n^2p)$ for computing CA and O(np) for computing (CA)x with computed (CA), thus $O(n^2p)$ in total.
- ▶ C(Ax) has complexity O(np) for computing Ax and $O(n^2)$ for computing C(Ax) with computed (Ax), thus $O(n \max(n, p))$ in total.

Big-O Complexity Chart

