

# Statistical Sciences Honours

## Matrix Methods

### Lecture 4 – Matrix Rank

Stefan S. Britz  
stefan.britz@uct.ac.za

Department of Statistical Sciences  
University of Cape Town



## 4.1 Linearly independent vectors

Let

$${}_m\mathbf{X}_n = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{x}_n]$$

Now consider the equation

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$[\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{x}_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$a_1\mathbf{x}_1 + a_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots + a_n\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

## 4.1 Linearly independent vectors

$$X\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$$

- One solution is of course to let  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ , referred to as the trivial solution.
- If no other solution exists, then the vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_n$  are said to be **linearly independent**.
- In other words,  $\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_n$  are linearly independent if  $X\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0} \forall \mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$
- Note that the concept of linear independence only arises if  $\mathbf{x}_i \neq \mathbf{0} \forall i$ . If any  $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $a_i = c \neq 0$  and  $a_j = 0, j \neq i$  would yield  $X\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ .

## 4.1 Linearly independent vectors

- Now suppose that  $\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_n$  are linearly **dependent** and that  $a_n \neq 0$ .
- We can then write

$$\mathbf{x}_n = -\frac{a_1}{a_n}\mathbf{x}_1 - \frac{a_2}{a_n}\mathbf{x}_2 - \dots - \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}\mathbf{x}_{n-1}$$

with at least one of the coefficients on the RHS being non-zero.

- Since  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is a linear combination of the other vectors, we can substitute it such that our system now contains  $n - 1$  different vectors.
- This process can be repeated until  $r$  linearly independent vectors remain, say  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r$ , and all other vectors are linear combinations of these.

## 4.1 Linearly independent vectors

- We have in effect partitioned the matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  as

$$[\mathbf{X}_1: m \times r \quad \mathbf{X}_2: m \times (n - r)]$$

such that each column of  $\mathbf{X}_2$  is a linear combination of the columns forming  $\mathbf{X}_1$

- Therefore, for some matrix  $\mathbf{B}: r \times (n - r)$ , we can write

$$\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{X}_1 \mathbf{B}$$

- Let's illustrate this with an example

# Example

Consider the matrix

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \mathbf{x}_3 \ \mathbf{x}_4] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 & 9 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

We have linear dependence, since we can see that

$$\mathbf{X} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$3\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_3 - \mathbf{x}_4 = \mathbf{0}$$

# Example

$$3x_1 - x_3 - x_4 = 0$$

## 4.2 Matrix rank

- Consider the square matrix  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{x}_n]$
- Suppose the columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  are linearly dependent

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = c_1\mathbf{x}_2 + c_2\mathbf{x}_3 + \cdots + c_{n-1}\mathbf{x}_n$$

- It is then possible to add multiples of the other columns to any one chosen column of  $\mathbf{X}$  in such a way that this column consists entirely of 0's.

$$\mathbf{X}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\ 0 & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note that  $|\mathbf{X}| = |\mathbf{X}^*| = 0$



## 4.2 Matrix rank

- So if columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  are linearly dependent, then  $|\mathbf{X}| = 0$ .
- ...which means  $\mathbf{X}^{-1}$  does not exist.
- ...which means there is no solution to  $\mathbf{a}$  in the equation  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$  for  $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .
- However, because of the linear dependence, we know that there is some  $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$  such that  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- This is a crucial general property of square matrices:

Either there is a non-trivial solution to  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ , or there is a solution to  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , but not both.

## 4.2 Matrix rank

The following are important facts regarding any arbitrary  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ :

- 1 The maximum number of columns of  $\mathbf{X}$  that can be linearly independent is  $m$  (the number of rows of  $\mathbf{X}$ ).
- 2 The maximum number of rows of  $\mathbf{X}$  that can be linearly independent is  $n$  (the number of columns of  $\mathbf{X}$ ).
- 3 The number of linearly independent rows of  $\mathbf{X}$  = the number of linearly independent columns of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

## 4.2 Matrix rank

The following definitions are important regarding  $\mathbf{X}: m \times n$ :

- The **rank** of a matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ , written  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X})$ , is the number of linearly independent columns (or rows) of  $\mathbf{X}$ .
- For an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ ,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \leq \min(m, n)$ .
- We say that  $\mathbf{X}$  is of **full row rank** if  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = m$ .
- We say that  $\mathbf{X}$  is of **full column rank** if  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{X}) = n$ .
- If a square matrix is of full row rank, then it is also of full column rank (and vice versa), and  $\mathbf{X}$  is said to be of **full rank**. (What else does this imply?)

## 4.3 Factorisation

- It is often useful to factorize a matrix into matrices of full column and row ranks.
- Let  $\text{rank}({}_p\mathbf{A}_q) = r$ , and suppose that the rows and columns have been ordered such the first  $r$  of each are linearly independent.
- We can therefore write  $\mathbf{A}$  in the partitioned form

$${}_p\mathbf{A}_q = \begin{bmatrix} {}_r\mathbf{X}_r & {}_r\mathbf{Y}_{q-r} \\ {}_{p-r}\mathbf{Z}_r & {}_{p-r}\mathbf{W}_{q-r} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\mathbf{X}$  is of full rank.

- For appropriate matrices  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  representing the relationships between the linearly dependent and independent rows and columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  respectively, we can derive:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{F} \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{X} \quad \mathbf{XH}]$$

## 4.3 Factorisation

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{F} \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{X} \quad \mathbf{X}\mathbf{H}]$$

## 4.4 Canonical forms

- From this we can see that the matrix  $A$  can be transformed by elementary operations into a matrix consisting only of 0's, except that the first  $r$  diagonal elements are 1's.
- To achieve this, we can pre- and post-multiply by the relevant elementary operator matrices, such that

$$PAQ = \begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = C$$

- The matrix  $C$  is termed the equivalent **canonical form** of  $A$ .
- If two matrices reduce to the same canonical form, then they are said to be **equivalent**.

## 4.4 Canonical forms

$$PAQ = \begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = C$$

- Note that  $P$  and  $Q$  are not unique in general, but that they are invertible.
- We can therefore also express the matrix as a function of its canonical form:  $A = P^{-1}CQ^{-1}$ .
- If  $A$  is non-singular, then  $C = I$  and  $A = P^{-1}Q^{-1}$
- For a symmetric matrix  $A$  it is possible to find a matrix  $P$  such that  $PAP' = C$ .
- If  $A$  is also non-singular, this implies that  $A = KK'$  where  $K = P^{-1}$ .

## Exercise 4.1

Verify the following useful rank theorems:

- (a)  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) \leq \min\{\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}), \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})\}$
- (b) If  $\mathbf{A}$  is non-singular, then  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})$
- (c) If  $\mathbf{AGA} = \mathbf{A}$ , then  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{GA}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$
- (d)  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \leq \text{rank}([\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{B}]) \leq \text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) + \text{rank}(\mathbf{B})$



## 4.5 Gram-Schmidt process

- Sometimes it is useful/necessary to find orthogonal vectors in some vector space.
- Given a set of  $n$  linearly independent vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ , the Gram-Schmidt process provides an algorithm for forming a set of  $n$  orthogonal vectors  $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$  spanning the same vector space.
- Therefore, any vector  $\mathbf{v} = a_1\mathbf{x}_1 + a_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{x}_n$  can be written as  $\mathbf{v} = b_1\mathbf{q}_1 + b_2\mathbf{q}_2 + \dots + b_n\mathbf{q}_n$ .
- Geometrically, this can be seen as the projection of the vectors onto an orthonormal basis.

## 4.5 Gram-Schmidt process

The Gram-Schmidt process is as follows:

Step 1

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1$$

Step 2

$$\mathbf{q}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{q}_1} \right) \mathbf{q}_1$$

Step 3

$$\mathbf{q}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{x}_3}{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{q}_1} \right) \mathbf{q}_1 - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_2 \mathbf{x}_3}{\mathbf{q}'_2 \mathbf{q}_2} \right) \mathbf{q}_2$$

$\vdots$

Step n

$$\mathbf{q}_n = \mathbf{x}_n - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{x}_n}{\mathbf{q}'_1 \mathbf{q}_1} \right) \mathbf{q}_1 - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_2 \mathbf{x}_n}{\mathbf{q}'_2 \mathbf{q}_2} \right) \mathbf{q}_2 - \left( \frac{\mathbf{q}'_{n-1} \mathbf{x}_n}{\mathbf{q}'_{n-1} \mathbf{q}_{n-1}} \right) \mathbf{q}_{n-1}$$

## Exercise 4.2

- (a) Compute  $\mathbf{q}_1' \mathbf{q}_2$  above to show that they are orthogonal vectors.
- (b) Consider the two vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1 = [1 \ 0 \ 2]'$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2 = [1 \ -1 \ 1]'$ . Find a set of two orthogonal vectors spanning the same vector space as  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$ .
- (c) Find a set of two orthonormal vectors spanning the same vector space as  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$  in (b).