

PART I - Fundamentals

Lecture 1 - *Matrix-Vector Multiplication*

OBJECTIVE:

You should already know how to do matrix multiplication: $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$.

Now we show how to interpret \mathbf{b} as a *linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A}* .

◇ FAMILIAR DEFINITIONS

Let \mathbf{x} be an n -dimensional column vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Let \mathbf{A} be an $m \times n$ matrix (m rows, n columns)

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

If $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, then $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ where each component of \mathbf{b} ,

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

$$\text{e.g., if } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \times 8 + 2 \times 9 \\ 3 \times 8 + 4 \times 9 \\ 5 \times 8 + 6 \times 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 26 \\ 60 \\ 94 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{verify!})$$

Note 1. *The text assumes numbers are complex (\mathbb{C}).
We will only use real numbers (\mathbb{R}).
But, everything we say about real quantities can be
applied to complex quantities.*

We can view $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ as a *linear map*.

i.e., for any (vectors) $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and any (scalar)
 $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{A}(\alpha\mathbf{x}) &= \alpha\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Which side is more expensive to compute?

Conversely, every linear map from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m can be
expressed as a multiplication by an $m \times n$ matrix.

◇ MATRIX-VECTOR MULTIPLICATION

Let $\mathbf{A} = \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \mid \mathbf{a}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{a}_n \right]$ i.e., $\mathbf{a}_j \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the j^{th} column of \mathbf{A} .

Then, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Ax} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \mathbf{a}_j$ i.e., \mathbf{b} is a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A} .

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\mathbf{b} \right] &= \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \mid \mathbf{a}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{a}_n \right] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x_1 \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \right] + x_2 \left[\mathbf{a}_2 \right] + \dots + x_n \left[\mathbf{a}_n \right] \end{aligned}$$

Note 2. *This is nothing but a change of viewpoint (and notation).*

Instead of viewing $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ as “ \mathbf{A} acting on \mathbf{x} to give \mathbf{b} ”, we view as “ \mathbf{x} acting on \mathbf{A} to produce \mathbf{b} ”.

◇ MATRIX-MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

If $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{AC}$, then *each column of \mathbf{B} is a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A} .*

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$ and $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

Then, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$ with entries $b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^m a_{ik}c_{kj}$
 $i = 1, 2, \dots, l, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[\mathbf{b}_1 \mid \mathbf{b}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{b}_n \right] \\ &= \left[\mathbf{a}_1 \mid \mathbf{a}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{a}_m \right] \left[\mathbf{c}_1 \mid \mathbf{c}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{c}_n \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies \mathbf{b}_j = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{c}_j = \sum_{k=1}^m c_{kj}\mathbf{a}_k$$

i.e., \mathbf{b}_j is a linear combination of the columns \mathbf{a}_k with the coefficients c_{kj} (each element of column j in \mathbf{C}).

◇ RANGE AND NULLSPACE

Definition 1. $\text{range}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} \text{ for some } \mathbf{y}\}$
i.e., the set of all vectors that can be expressed as $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ for some vector \mathbf{y} .

Theorem 1. $\text{range}(\mathbf{A})$ is the space spanned by the columns of \mathbf{A} .

Note 3. The range of \mathbf{A} is also called the column space of \mathbf{A} .

Definition 2. $\text{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$
i.e., the set of vectors \mathbf{x} that map to the zero vector via \mathbf{A} .

→ each vector $\mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(\mathbf{A})$ gives the expansion coefficients of the zero vector as a linear combination of columns of \mathbf{A} :

$$\mathbf{0} = x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + x_2\mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n$$

◇ RANK

column rank of a matrix = dimension of space spanned by its columns

row rank of a matrix = dimension of space spanned by its rows

ROW RANK ALWAYS EQUALS COLUMN RANK!

So, we often just refer to as “rank”.

$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is said to have *full rank* if it has *maximal rank*.

i.e., $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \min(m, n)$

e.g., if $m \geq n$, a matrix with full rank must have n linearly independent columns.

Theorem 2. *A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with $m \geq n$ has full rank if and only if it maps no two distinct vectors to the same vector.*

→ \mathbf{A} is a one-to-one mapping.

◇ MATRIX INVERSE

A *nonsingular* or invertible matrix is a square matrix with full rank.

i.e., the m columns of a nonsingular $m \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A} span (form a basis) for the *whole space* \mathbb{R}^m

\Leftrightarrow any vector in \mathbb{R}^m can be expressed as a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A} .

In particular, expand the canonical basis vector

$$\mathbf{e}_j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow j$$

$$\mathbf{e}_j = \sum_{i=1}^m z_{ij} \mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}_j$$

If we now place all the \mathbf{e}_j for $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ in a matrix, we obtain

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \mathbf{e}_1 & \mathbf{e}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{e}_m \end{array} \right] = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}$$

\mathbf{I} is called the $m \times m$ *identity matrix*; \mathbf{Z} is called the *inverse of \mathbf{A}* (\mathbf{A}^{-1}).

Every nonsingular (square) matrix \mathbf{A} has a unique inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1} that satisfies

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

Here are some useful equivalences concerning nonsingular matrices:

- a) \mathbf{A} has a unique inverse \mathbf{A}^{-1}
- b) $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = m$
- c) $\text{range}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbb{R}^m$
- d) $\text{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{0}$
- e) 0 is not an eigenvalue of \mathbf{A}
- f) 0 is not a singular value of \mathbf{A}
- g) $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$

Note 4. *Although it is a convenient theoretical notion, the determinant is rarely used in practice.*

Do not take the formula $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ literally!

WE BASICALLY NEVER FIND \mathbf{A}^{-1} IN PRACTICE
→ CERTAINLY NOT FOR SOLVING $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$!

So, instead of thinking of hitting \mathbf{b} with \mathbf{A}^{-1} to get \mathbf{x} , think of \mathbf{x} as the vector of coefficients required to uniquely expand \mathbf{b} in the basis of columns of \mathbf{A} .

Multiplying by \mathbf{A}^{-1} is a *change of basis* operation:

