

Lecture II

Back to the motivating problem:

Solving m equations for n unknowns:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{array} \right\} Ax = b.$$

Both n and m are large

When does a solution exist? When unique?

Three Cases

- **Case 1:** The same number of unknowns as the number of equations.

Extensions:

- **Case 2:** More unknowns
- **Case 3:** Less unknowns

A Basic Result for Case 1

If the square matrix A is **nonsingular**, i.e. $\det A \neq 0$, then the linear equation $Ax = b$ has the unique solution

$$x = A^{-1}b.$$

Recall that the inverse A^{-1} of a nonsingular matrix A is defined as

$$A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I.$$

About the Matrix Inverse

- If a (square) matrix A is nonsingular, then its inverse is unique. That is,

$$AB = I \Leftrightarrow B = A^{-1}$$

$$BA = I \Leftrightarrow B = A^{-1}.$$

Computation of the Matrix Inverse

- The inverse of a nonsingular matrix A is defined as

$$A^{-1} = (\det A)^{-1} (\text{cof } A)^T,$$

where $\text{cof } A$ is the cofactor matrix of A :

$$\text{cof } A \doteq \left[(-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij} \right]_{n \times n},$$

A_{ij} = the matrix of order $n - 1$, after deleting row i and column j from A .

Proof of $A^{-1} = (\det A)^{-1} (\text{cof } A)^T$

Use the row and column expansions of $\det A$.

An Example

Solve the linear equation, *using the above basic result*:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another Computational Method: Cramer's Rule

For any $n \times n$ **nonsingular** matrix $A = (a_{ij})$,
the linear equation $Ax = b$ has the **unique** solution:

$$x_j = \frac{\Delta_j}{\det A}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where Δ_j is the determinant of the matrix formed by replacing the j -th column of A by b . For example,

$$\Delta_1 = \det \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_n & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ etc}$$

Proof of Cramer's Rule

Consider the solution

$$x = A^{-1}b = [\text{cof } A]^T b / \det A.$$

$$\text{So, } x_j = (\det A)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} (\det A_{ij}) b_i$$

$$= (\det A)^{-1} \Delta_j$$

because, by the j -**column expansion** of Δ_j ,

$$\Delta_j = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i+j} (\det A_{ij}) b_i.$$

An Example

Solve the linear equation, *using Cramer's Rule*:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Question

When is matrix A invertible?

A Necessary and Sufficient Condition

The linear equation $Ax = b$ is solvable for **every** b , if and only if $\det A \neq 0$.

Proof

The sufficiency is proved above.

For the necessity, take the basis vectors:

$$e^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \dots, \quad e^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $Ax = e^i$ has solution x^i .

So, $AX = I$, with $X \doteq [x^1, \dots, x^n]$,

implying $\det A \neq 0$, because $\det(A) \det(X) = 1$.

Comments

- In the proof, the following important fact was used:

$$\det(AB) = \det A \cdot \det B$$

for any $n \times n$ matrices A and B .

If $\det A = 0$, *then*

- for some vectors b , $Ax = b$ has no solution;
- for other vectors b , *the equation may have an infinite number of solutions!*

Homogenous Equations ($b=0$)

Question:

When does a general homogenous equation

$$Ax = 0$$

have a *nonzero* solution $x \neq 0$?

In other words, when are the column vectors of A
linearly dependent?

Review of Terminologies

- **Linear combination of vectors:**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i \text{ is a linear combination of vectors } x_1, \dots, x_n.$$

- **Linear independency:**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0.$$

Review of Terminologies

- **Linear dependency:**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i = 0 \Rightarrow \exists \alpha_j \neq 0 \text{ for at least one } j.$$

Review of A Basic Result

The vectors x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are dependent **if and only if** one of the vectors is some linear combination of the other vectors. That is, $\exists j$ and constants α_i so that

$$x_j = \sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_i x_i.$$

Examples Revisited

Are the following vectors linearly dependent or independent?

1) Consider the vectors

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

2) Consider the vectors

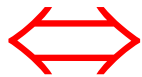
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad z = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Homogenous Equations

A general homogenous equation

$$Ax = 0, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

has a nonzero solution $x \neq 0$.



$$\det A = 0.$$

Sketch of Proof

Let a^1, a^2, \dots, a^n be the columns of A .

So, we can rewrite Ax as

$$Ax = x_1 a^1 + x_2 a^2 + \dots + x_n a^n$$

Thus, $Ax = 0$ has a nonzero solution iff the columns of A are dependent.

Using Fact 4 of determinants, it follows that $\det A = 0$.

Case 2: More Unknowns

In this case, consider

$$Ax = 0$$

for *nonsquare* $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, with $m < n$.

A Fundamental Result

The linear homogeneous equation with more unknowns,
 $Ax = 0$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $m < n$
always has a solution $x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Sketch of Proof ($m < n$)

Lemma: If p linearly independent vectors $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^p$ are linear combination of q vectors $\{y_j\}_{j=1}^q$, i.e.,

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^q \alpha_{ij} y_j, \quad 1 \leq i \leq p$$

then, $q \geq p$.

Sketch of Proof ($m < n$)

By means of this lemma, the columns

$\{a^i\}_{i=1}^n$ of A in \mathbb{R}^m ($m < n$) must be linearly dependent.

Thus, $Ax = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 a^1 + \cdots + x_n a^n = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \exists x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

End of Proof

Numerical Example

Find all nonzero solutions for

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0,$$

$$x_1 + 9x_2 + 28x_3 = 0.$$

Comment

The set of solutions to $Ax=0$ is called **null space** of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, and often denoted as $\text{null}(A)$:

$$\text{null}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = 0\}$$

It is easy to show that $\text{null}(A)$ is a linear vector space with dimension less than or equal to n .

Question: What is the dimension of this null space?

Case 3: Fewer Unknowns

In this case, consider

$$Ax = 0$$

for nonsquare $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, with $m > n$.

A Fundamental Result

The homogeneous equation with **fewer** unknowns,

$$Ax = 0, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \text{ **m > n**}$$

has a solution $x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$



every $n \times n$ determinant formed from n rows of A be zero. In other words, $\text{rank}(A) < n$.

Sketch of Proof ($m > n$)

- **Necessity:** If one $n \times n$ submatrix A_1 of A is nonsingular, we can rearrange A so that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{with } A_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, A_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-n) \times n}$$

Then, $Ax = 0$ implies $A_1 x = 0$ and thus $x = 0$.

- **Sufficiency**: Assume now all $n \times n$ submatrices of A are singular. Let $r < n$ be the largest number of rows of A that are linearly independent, i.e., $\text{rank}(A)$. Let's decompose A into

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} B \\ C \end{bmatrix}, \text{ with } B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}, C \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-r) \times n},$$

and the r rows of B are linearly independent.

Clearly, $Bx = 0$ has a nonzero solution $x \neq 0$,

Case 2

which is also solution to $Cx = 0$, because each row of C is linear combination of the rows of B .

Corollary

The dimension of the null space of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is $n - \text{rank}(A) := n - r$. That is,

$$\dim \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = 0\} = n - \text{rank}(A).$$

Remark:

$$\mathbb{R}^n = N(A) \oplus R(A^T)$$

To prove $\dim \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = 0\} = n - r$,

let us decompose $A = \begin{bmatrix} B \\ C \end{bmatrix}$, with the r rows of $B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$

linearly independent. Thus, $Ax = 0 \Leftrightarrow Bx = 0$

Rearrange B so that $\begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$, with $\det B_1 \neq 0$.

with $B_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$, $B_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times (n-r)}$, $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^r$, $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$.

Then, $B_1 x_1 + B_2 x_2 = 0$, or equivalently,

$$x_1 = -B_1^{-1} B_2 x_2, \quad x_2 \text{ free parameters}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} -B_1^{-1} B_2 \\ I_{(n-r) \times (n-r)} \end{bmatrix} x_2, \text{ which completes the proof.}$$

Inhomogeneous Equations

Given $A = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ and $b = (b_i)_{m \times 1}$, solve x for

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = b_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m \end{array} \right\} Ax = b.$$

A Fundamental Result

Consider $Ax = b$.

- It has a solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if and only if $\text{rank}A = \text{rank}B$, for $B \doteq (A \ b) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}$.
- When $\text{rank}A = \text{rank}B$, all the solutions x take the form:

$$x \doteq x_p + x_h$$

where x_p = any **particular** solution of $Ax = b$;
 x_h = solutions to the **homogeneous** eq. $Ax = 0$.

Proof of the Main Theorem

1) As seen previously, $Ax = b$ can be rewritten as:

$$x_1 a^1 + x_2 a^2 + \cdots + x_n a^n = b.$$

When $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(B)$, b is linear combination of the columns $\{a^i\}_{i=1}^n$ of A , so the above eq. has a solution.

The converse is also true.

Proof of the Main Theorem

2) For any general solution x of $Ax = b$ and for any special solution x_p of $Ax = b$, it is easily seen that

$$A(x - x_p) = 0.$$

So, $x - x_p \in N(A)$, i.e., $x - x_p = x_h$, or equivalently

$$x \doteq x_p + x_h.$$

Comments

- Unlike the homogeneous case, an inhomogeneous equation may have **no** solution (trivial or nontrivial), because of the rank condition.
- When it has one solution x_p , then it may have an **infinite** number of solutions.

Example 1

The following inhomogeneous equation

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 1$$

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 = 0$$

$$3x_1 + 6x_2 = 0$$

has no solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Example 2

The following inhomogeneous equation

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 5$$

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 = 10$$

$$3x_1 + 6x_2 = 15$$

has an infinite number of solutions

$$x = x_p + x_h$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Application to an Optimization Problem

Given m (noisy) observations b_1, \dots, b_m , and (experimental) variables $a_i = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{in})$, find the best possible values x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n to match

$$b_i = x_0 + x_1 a_{i1} + \dots + x_n a_{in}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq m.$$

Or, equivalently, to **minimize**

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - x_0 - x_1 a_{i1} - \dots - x_n a_{in})^2.$$

Necessary Condition

A solution $x = (x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \ x_n)$ to the (nonlinear) optimization problem is often called "**least-squares solution**".

It must satisfy the 1st-order necessary conditions:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial x_j} = 0, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} (b_i - x_0 - x_1 a_{i1} - \dots - x_n a_{in}) = 0,$$

with $a_{i0} = 1$.

Normal Equation

The necessary conditions can be written in compact matrix form:

$$A^T A x = A^T b \quad \text{normal equation}$$

where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}.$$

Comment

It is interesting to note that finding an (optimal) least-squares solution x boils down to solving the inhomogeneous normal equation!

Sufficiency

A solution x to the normal equation $A^T Ax = A^T b$ *does* minimize the sum of squares, P .

Indeed, for any other vector $y := x + z$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|Ay - b\|^2 &= \|(Ax - b) + Az\|^2 \\ &= \|Ax - b\|^2 + 2(Az)^T (Ax - b) + \|Az\|^2 \\ &= \|Ax - b\|^2 + \|Az\|^2 \\ &\geq \|Ax - b\|^2.\end{aligned}$$

Further Comments

1) If $\det(A^T A) \neq 0$, *i.e.*, $A^T A \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times (n+1)}$

is nonsingular, then the least-squares solution x to the best linear fit problem is **unique**.

2) If $\det(A^T A) = 0$, many possible best fits; because

$A^T A z = 0$ has infinitely many nontrivial solutions $z \neq 0$,

thus, $z^T A^T A z = \|Az\|^2 = 0$, for many $z \neq 0$.

An Example

Find the best linear fit $b = x_0 \text{col}(1) + a^1 x_1 + a^2 x_2$
for the data

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad a^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad a^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution

First, note that there is no (**exact**) solution to the linear equation $Ax=b$.

However, there is a unique (least-squares) best linear fit:

$$b \cong \frac{17}{6} \text{col}(1, \dots, 1) - \frac{13}{6} a^1 - \frac{2}{3} a^2.$$

Remark

If you want to know more about optimization, it is a good idea to take the sequence class [ECE-GY 6233](#) “Systems Optimization Methods”.

Homework #2

1. Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix}.$$

What is the null space of A ? What is the rank of A ?

What is the dimension of the null space?

Homework #2

2. For any pair of $n \times n$ matrices A , B ,
show that $\det(AB) = \det(BA) = \det A \det B$.
3. Give some simple examples to show that
 $AB \neq BA$.

Homework #2

4. Consider linear equations of the form

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 + 4x_4 = 0,$$

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 + \lambda_1 x_3 + \lambda_2 x_4 = 0.$$

What is the range of parameters (λ_1, λ_2) for which the equations have nonzero solutions?

Also, find all nonzero solutions.