ENGR 504 (Fall 2024) S. Alghunaim

4. Matrices

- matrix notation
- matrix operations
- complexity
- examples of matrices
- graphs
- convolution

Matrix

a matrix is a rectangular array of elements written as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & \dots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- scalars in array are the elements (entries, coefficients, components)
- A_{ij} is the i, j element of A (i is row index, j is column index)
- size (dimensions) of the matrix is $m \times n = (\#rows) \times (\#columns)$

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2.3 & 0.1 \\ 1.3 & 4 & -0.1 & 0 \\ 4.1 & -1 & 0 & 1.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $A_{23} = -0.1$
- a 3×4 matrix

Notes and conventions

Notes

- a matrix of size $m \times n$ is called an $m \times n$ -matrix
- $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is set of $m \times n$ matrices with real elements
- we use $A_{i,j}$ when i or j are more than one digit
- two matrices with same size are equal if corresponding entries are all equal
- sometimes A_k is a matrix; in this case, we use $(A_k)_{ij}$ to denote its i, j element

Conventions

- · matrices are typically denoted by capital letters
- parentheses are also used instead of rectangular brackets to represent a matrix
- often a_{ij} is used to denote the i, j element of A
- some authors use bold capital letter for matrices (e.g., A, A)
- be prepared to figure out whether a symbol represents a matrix, vector, or a scalar

Matrix shapes

Scalar: a 1×1 matrix is a scalar

Row and column vectors

- a $1 \times n$ matrix is called a row vector
- an $n \times 1$ matrix is called a column vector (or just vector)

Tall, wide, square matrices: an $m \times n$ matrix is

- tall, skinny, or thin if m > n
- wide or fat if m < n
- square if m = n

Columns and rows

an $m \times n$ matrix can be viewed as a matrix with row/column vectors

Columns representation

$$A = [a_1 \ a_2 \cdots a_n]$$
 each a_j is an m -vector (the j th column of A)
$$a_j = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ A_{mj} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rows representation

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b_i = [A_{i1} \cdots A_{in}]$$

each b_i is a $1 \times n$ row vector (the *i*th row of A)

45

Block matrix and submatrices

- a block matrix is a rectangular array of matrices
- elements in the array are the blocks or submatrices of the block matrix

Example: a 2×2 block matrix

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} B & C \\ D & E \end{array} \right]$$

- submatrices can be referred to by their block row and column (C is 1, 2 block of A)
- dimensions of the blocks must be compatible
- if the blocks are

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 1 \end{array} \right], \quad C = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 4 & 7 \end{array} \right], \quad D = \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \end{array} \right], \quad E = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -1 & 6 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

then

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 2 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 & 4 & 7 \\ 1 & -1 & 6 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

Slice of matrix

$$A_{p:q,r:s} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} A_{pr} & A_{p,r+1} & \cdots & A_{ps} \\ A_{p+1,r} & A_{p+1,r+1} & \cdots & A_{p+1,s} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{qr} & A_{q,r+1} & \cdots & A_{qs} \end{array} \right]$$

- an $(q p + 1) \times (s r + 1)$ matrix
- obtained by extracting from A elements in rows p to q and columns r to s
- from last page example, we have

$$A_{2:3,3:4} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special matrices

Zero matrix

- matrix with $A_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j
- notation: 0 or $0_{m \times n}$ (if dimension is not clear from context)

Identity matrix

- square matrix with $A_{ij} = 1$ if i = j and $A_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$
- notation: I or I_n (if dimension is not clear from context)
- columns of I_n are unit vectors e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n ; for example,

$$I_3 = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \end{array} \right]$$

Structured matrices

matrices with special patterns or structure arise in many applications

Diagonal matrix

- square with $A_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$
- represented as $A = \operatorname{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ where a_i are diagonal elements

$$\operatorname{diag}(0.2, -3, 1.2) = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0.2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.2 \end{array} \right]$$

Lower triangular matrix: square with $A_{ij} = 0$ for i < j

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper triangular matrix: square with $A_{ij} = 0$ for i > j

(a triangular matrix is **unit** upper/lower triangular if $A_{ii} = 1$ for all i)

Sparse matrices

a matrix A is sparse if most (almost all) of its elements are zero

- $\mathbf{nnz}(A)$ is number of nonzero elements (typically order n or less)
- density is $nnz(A)/(mn) \le 1$
- densities of sparse matrices that arise in practice are typically small (e.g., 10^{-2})
- can be stored and manipulated efficiently on a computer
- · for example the triplet format:

$$(1,1)$$
 2.4000

$$(1,2)$$
 -3.0000

$$(3,2)$$
 2.0000

$$(2,3)$$
 1.3000

$$(3,3)$$
 -6.0000

which means $A_{11} = 2.4$, $A_{3,2} = 2$, ...

4 10

Transpose of a matrix

transpose of an $m \times n$ matrix A is the $n \times m$ matrix:

$$A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & \cdots & A_{m1} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{1n} & A_{2n} & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- \bullet $(A^T)^T = A$
- the transpose of a block matrix (shown for a 2×2 block matrix)

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ C & D \end{array}\right]^T = \left[\begin{array}{cc} A^T & C^T \\ B^T & D^T \end{array}\right]$$

- A, B, C, and D are matrices with compatible sizes
- concept holds for any number of blocks

Symmetric matrices

a square matrix is symmetric if

$$A = A^T$$

- $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$
- examples

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & -2 \\ 3 & -1 & 5 \\ -2 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4+3j & 3-2j & 0 \\ 3-2j & -j & -2j \\ 0 & -2j & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Matrix addition

sum of two $m \times n$ matrices A and B

$$A+B=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc} A_{11}+B_{11} & A_{12}+B_{12} & \cdots & A_{1n}+B_{1n} \\ A_{21}+B_{21} & A_{22}+B_{22} & \cdots & A_{2n}+B_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{m1}+B_{m1} & A_{m2}+B_{m2} & \cdots & A_{mn}+B_{mn} \end{array}\right]$$

Properties

• commutativity: A + B = B + A

• associativity: (A + B) + C = A + (B + C)

• addition with zero matrix: A + 0 = 0 + A = A

• transpose of sum: $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$

4 13

Scalar-matrix multiplication

scalar-matrix product of $m \times n$ matrix A with scalar β

$$\beta A = \begin{bmatrix} \beta A_{11} & \beta A_{12} & \cdots & \beta A_{1n} \\ \beta A_{21} & \beta A_{22} & \cdots & \beta A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \beta A_{m1} & \beta A_{m2} & \cdots & \beta A_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties: for matrices A, B, scalars β, γ

- associativity: $(\beta \gamma)A = \beta(\gamma A)$
- distributivity: $(\beta + \gamma)A = \beta A + \gamma A$ and $\beta (A + B) = \beta A + \beta B$
- transposition: $(\beta A)^T = \beta A^T$

Matrix-vector product

product of $m \times n$ matrix A with n-vector x

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}x_1 + A_{12}x_2 + \dots + A_{1n}x_n \\ A_{21}x_1 + A_{22}x_2 + \dots + A_{2n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ A_{m1}x_1 + A_{m2}x_2 + \dots + A_{mn}x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1^Tx \\ \vdots \\ b_m^Tx \end{bmatrix}$$

- b_i^T is *i*th row of A
- dimensions must be compatible (number of columns of A equals the size of x)
- Ax is a linear combination of the columns of A:

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1a_1 + x_2a_2 + \cdots + x_na_n$$

each a_i is an m-vector (ith column of A)

Properties of matrix-vector multiplication

for matrices A, B, vectors u, v and scalar β

- associativity: $(\beta A)u = A(\beta u) = \beta(Au)$ (we write βAu)
- distributivity: A(u + v) = Au + Av and (A + B)u = Au + Bu
- transposition: $(Au)^T = u^T A^T$

General examples

- 0x = 0, *i.e.*, multiplying by zero matrix gives zero
- Ix = x, i.e., multiplying by identity matrix does nothing
- inner product a^Tb is matrix-vector product of $1 \times n$ matrix a^T and n-vector b
- $Ae_j = a_j$, the jth column of $A[(A^Te_i)^T = e_i^TA$ is ith row]
- the product A1 is the sum of the columns of A
- for the n × n matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 1/n & -1/n & \cdots & -1/n \\ -1/n & 1 - 1/n & \cdots & -1/n \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ -1/n & -1/n & \cdots & 1 - 1/n \end{bmatrix},$$

 $\tilde{x} = Ax$ is de-meaned version of x

Difference matrix

 $(n-1) \times n$ difference matrix is

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

y = Dx is (n - 1)-vector of differences of consecutive entries of x:

$$Dx = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 - x_1 \\ x_3 - x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n - x_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Running sum matrix

the $n \times n$ matrix

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the running sum matrix

the *i*th entry of the *n*-vector Sx is the sum of the first *i* entries of x:

$$Sx = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_1 + \dots + x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Selectors

an $m \times n$ selector matrix: each row is a unit vector (transposed)

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c} e_{k_1}^T \\ \vdots \\ e_{k_m}^T \end{array} \right]$$

- k_1, \ldots, k_m are integers in range $1, \ldots, n$
- Ax copies the k_i th entry of x into the ith entry:

$$Ax = (x_{k_1}, x_{k_2}, \dots, x_{k_m})$$

Reverser matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} e_n^T \\ \vdots \\ e_1^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ x_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ x_2 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Circular shift matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} e_n^T \\ e_1^T \\ \vdots \\ e_{n-1}^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Down-sampling: the $m \times 2m$ matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_{2m-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

'down-samples' x by 2

Permutation matrices

- an $n \times n$ permutation matrix has exactly one entry of each row/column is one
- let $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_n)$ be a *permutation* (reordering) of $(1, 2, \dots, n)$
- we associate with π the $n \times n$ permutation matrix A

$$A_{i\pi_i} = 1$$
, $A_{ij} = 0$ if $j \neq \pi_i$

- Ax is a permutation of the elements of x: $Ax = (x_{\pi_1}, x_{\pi_2}, \dots, x_{\pi_n})$
- example: for permutation $\pi = (3, 1, 2)$, the associated permutation matrix is

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

multiplying a 3-vector by A re-orders its entries: $Ax = (x_3, x_1, x_2)$

Matrix multiplication

product of $m \times n$ matrix A and $n \times p$ matrix B

$$C = AB$$

is the $m \times p$ matrix with i, j element

$$C_{ij} = A_{i1}B_{1j} + A_{i2}B_{2j} + \dots + A_{in}B_{nj}$$

- to get C_{ii} : move along *i*th row of A, *j*th column of B
- dimensions must be compatible:

#columns in
$$A =$$
#rows in B

• example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1.5 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 & -4.5 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special cases of matrix multiplication

- scalar-vector product (with scalar on right!) $x\alpha$
- inner product a^Tb
- matrix-vector multiplication Ax
- outer product of m-vector a and n-vector b

$$ab^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1}b_{1} & a_{1}b_{2} & \cdots & a_{1}b_{n} \\ a_{2}b_{1} & a_{2}b_{2} & \cdots & a_{2}b_{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m}b_{1} & a_{m}b_{2} & \cdots & a_{m}b_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

- multiplication by identity AI = A and IA = A
- matrix power: multiplication of matrix with itself p times: $A^p = AA \cdots A$

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4 24

Properties of matrix-matrix product

- associativity:: (AB)C = A(BC) so we write ABC
- associativity: with scalar multiplication: $(\gamma A)B = \gamma (AB) = \gamma AB$
- distributivity with sum:

$$A(B+C) = AB + AC$$
, $(A+B)C = AC + BC$

transpose of product:

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

• **not** commutative: $AB \neq BA$ in general; for example,

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right] \neq \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$

there are exceptions, e.g., AI = IA for square A

Product of block matrices

block-matrices can be multiplied as regular matrices

Example: product of two 2×2 block matrices

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ C & D \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} W & Y \\ X & Z \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} AW + BX & AY + BZ \\ CW + DX & CY + DZ \end{array}\right]$$

if the dimensions of the blocks are compatible

Column and row representations

Column representation

• A is $m \times p$, B is $p \times n$ with columns b_i

$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Ab_1 & Ab_2 & \cdots & Ab_n \end{bmatrix}$$

• so AB is 'batch' multiply of A times columns of B

Row representation

• with a_i^T the rows of A

$$AB = \left[\begin{array}{c} a_1^T B \\ a_2^T B \\ \vdots \\ a_m^T B \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} (B^T a_1)^T \\ (B^T a_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ (B^T a_m)^T \end{array} \right]$$

• row i is $(B^Ta_i)^T$

Inner and outer product representations

Inner product representation

• A is $m \times p$ with rows a_i^T , B is $p \times n$ with columns b_i

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T b_1 & a_1^T b_2 & \cdots & a_1^T b_n \\ a_2^T b_1 & a_2^T b_2 & \cdots & a_2^T b_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_m^T b_1 & a_m^T b_2 & \cdots & a_m^T b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

• entry ij is $a_i^T b_j$

Outer product representation

- a_i columns of A, b_i^T rows of B
- then we can express the product matrix AB as a sum of outer products:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1^T \\ \vdots \\ b_n^T \end{bmatrix} = a_1 b_1^T + \cdots + a_n b_n^T$$

Matrix Frobenius norm

the *Frobenius norm* of an $m \times n$ matrix A is

$$||A||_F = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2\right)^{1/2}$$

- agrees with vector norm when n = 1
- in MATLAB: norm(A,'fro')
- distance between two matrices: $||A B||_F$
- · satisfies norm properties:
 - $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$
 - $\|A + B\| \le \|A\| + \|B\|$
 - $\|A\| \ge 0$
 - $\|A\| = 0$ only if A = 0
- additional properties:
 - $-\|A\|_F = \|A^T\|_F = \sqrt{\|a_1\|^2 + \dots + \|a_n\|^2}, a_j$ is jth column of A
 - $\|AB\|_F \le \|A\|_F \|B\|_F$

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Complexity of matrix operations

Addition and scalar multiplication

- addition A + B requires mn flops (for $m \times n$ matrices)
- scalar multiplication requires requires mn
- less for sparse matrices
- transpose requires zero flops

Matrix-vector multiplication (for *n*-vector x and $m \times n$ matrix A)

- y = Ax requires (2n 1)m flops or simply 2mn
- m elements in y; each element requires an inner product of length n
- approximately 2mn for large n
- flop count is lower for structured matrices
 - A diagonal: n flops
 - A lower triangular: n^2 flops
 - A sparse: #flops $\ll 2mn$

Matrix-matrix product product of $m \times n$ matrix A and $n \times p$ matrix B:

$$C = AB$$

requires mp(2n-1) flops

- mp elements in C; each element requires an inner product of length n
- approximately 2mnp for large n

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Matrix examples

Images

- m × n matrix denote a monochrome (black and white) image
- X_{ij} is i, j pixel value in a monochrome image

Rainfall data

- $m \times n$ matrix A gives the rainfall at m different locations on n consecutive days
- A_{ij} is rainfall at location i on day j

Multiple asset returns

- T × n matrix R gives the returns of n assets over T periods
- R_{ij} is return of asset j in period i
- jth column of R is a T-vector that is the return time series for asset j

examples of matrices SA_ENGR504 4.32

Matrix-vector product examples

Return matrix

- R is $T \times n$ matrix of asset returns (returns of n assets over T periods)
- R_{ij} is return of asset j in period i (say, in percentage)
- n-vector w gives investments in the assets (e.g., $w_4 = 0.15$ means that 15% of the total portfolio value is held in asset 4)
- T-vector Rw is time series of the portfolio return over periods $1, \ldots, T$

Image cropping

- MN-vector x is image, with its entries giving the pixel values in specific order
- y is the $(M/2) \times (N/2)$ image that is the upper left corner (cropped version)
- we have y = Ax, where A is an $(MN/4) \times (MN)$ selector matrix
- ith row of A is $e_{k_i}^T$, k_i is index of the pixel in x that corresponds to ith pixel in y

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Feature matrix

- $X = [x_1 \cdots x_N]$ is $n \times N$ feature matrix
- column x_j is feature n-vector for object or example j
- X_{ij} is value of feature i for example j
- *n*-vector *w* is weight vector
- $s = X^T w$ is vector of scores for each example; $s_j = x_j^T w$

Cost of production

production inputs (materials, parts, labor, . . .) are combined to make products

- x_i is price per unit of production of input j
- A_{ij} is units of production of input j required to manufacture one unit of product i
- y_i is production cost per unit of product i
- we have y = Ax
- *i*th row of *A* is bill of materials for unit of product *i*

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Signal power in wireless system

- n transmitter/receiver pairs
- transmitter *j* transmits to receiver *j* (and, unintentionally, to the other receivers)
- *p_i* is power of *j*th transmitter
- s_i is received signal power of ith receiver
- z_i is received interference power of ith receiver
- G_{ij} is path gain from transmitter j to receiver i
- we have s = Ap, z = Bp, where

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} G_{ii} & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \quad B_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i = j \\ G_{ij} & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

• A is diagonal; B has zero diagonal (ideally, A is 'large', B is 'small')

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Vandermonde matrix

• polynomial of degree n-1 or less with coefficients x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n :

$$p(t) = x_1 + x_2t + x_3t^2 + \dots + x_nt^{n-1}$$

• values of p(t) at m points t_1, \ldots, t_m :

$$\begin{bmatrix} p(t_1) \\ p(t_2) \\ \vdots \\ p(t_m) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 & \cdots & t_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & t_2 & \cdots & t_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & t_m & \cdots & t_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= Ax$$

the matrix A is called a Vandermonde matrix

Ax maps coefficients of polynomial to function values

Geometric transformations

Rotation in a plane

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$



y = Ax is x rotated counterclockwise over an angle θ

Reflection

$$y = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \cos(2\theta) & \sin(2\theta) \\ \sin(2\theta) & -\cos(2\theta) \end{array} \right] x$$



y = Ax is the vector obtained by reflecting x through the line that passes through the origin, inclined θ radians with respect to horizontal

Finding the geometric matrix

- when a geometric transformation is represented by matrix vector multiplication
- a simple method to find the matrix is to find its columns
- the *i*th column is the vector $a_i = Ae_i$

Example: consider clockwise rotation by 90° in 2-D

- rotating the vector $e_1 = (1,0)$ by 90° gives (0,-1)
- rotating $e_2 = (0, 1)$ by 90° gives (1, 0)
- so rotation by 90° is given by

$$y = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{array} \right] x$$

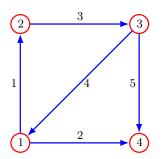
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Incidence matrix

- *directed graph* consists of *m* vertices (nodes), *n* directed edges (arcs, branches)
- incidence matrix is $m \times n$ matrix A with

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if edge } j \text{ point to node } i \\ -1 & \text{if edge } j \text{ point from node } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrrr} -1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

graphs

Flow conservation

- graph is used to represent a network
- through which some quantity such as electricity, water, or heat flows
- assume *n*-vector *x* gives flows along the edges
- $x_i > 0$ means flow follows edge direction
- Ax is m-vector that gives the total or net flows
- $(Ax)_i$ is the net flow into node i (flows in node i minus flows out)

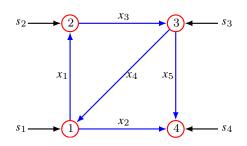
$$(Ax)_i = \sum_{\substack{\text{edge } j \text{ enters} \\ \text{node } i}} x_j - \sum_{\substack{\text{edge } j \text{ leaves} \\ \text{node } i}} x_j$$

• can include external source flows Ax + s, s_i is flow entering/leaving node i

4 40

Kirchhoff's current law

n-vector $x=(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)$ with x_j the *current* through branch j $(Ax)_i=\text{ total current arriving at node } i \text{ (excluding sources)}$



$$Ax + s = \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 - x_2 + x_4 + s_1 \\ x_1 - x_3 + s_2 \\ x_3 - x_4 - x_5 + s_3 \\ x_2 + x_5 + s_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

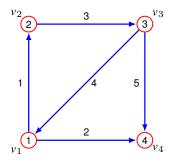
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4 41

Node potentials

m-vector $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m)$ with v_i the potential value at node i

$$(A^T v)_i = v_k - v_l$$
 if edge j goes from node l to k



$$A^{T}v = \begin{bmatrix} v_{2} - v_{1} \\ v_{4} - v_{1} \\ v_{3} - v_{2} \\ v_{1} - v_{3} \\ v_{4} - v_{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

if v_i are node voltages in a circuit, then $(A^Tv)_j = \text{(negative)}$ voltage across branch j

Dirichlet energy

 $||A^Tv||^2$ is the sum of squared potential differences

$$||A^T v||^2 = \sum_{\text{edges } i \to j} (v_j - v_i)^2$$

- called Dirichlet energy
- $\mathcal{D}(v)$ is small when potential values of neighboring nodes are similar
- used as a measure of non-smoothness (roughness) of node potentials on a graph

Example: for the graph on the previous page

$$\|A^Tv\|^2 = (v_2 - v_1)^2 + (v_4 - v_1)^2 + (v_3 - v_2)^2 + (v_1 - v_3)^2 + (v_4 - v_3)^2$$

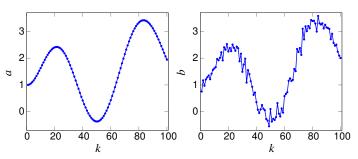
Chain graph



- the $n \times (n-1)$ incidence matrix is the transpose of the difference matrix D
- · Dirichlet energy:

$$\mathcal{D}(v) = ||Dv||^2 = (v_2 - v_1)^2 + \dots + (v_n - v_{n-1})^2$$

• used as a measure of the non-smoothness time series



$$\mathcal{D}(a) = 1.14 \text{ and } \mathcal{D}(a) = 8.99$$

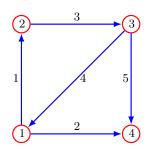
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Graph Laplacian

if A is incidence matrix, matrix $L = AA^T$ is the Laplacian of the graph

$$L_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{degree of node} & \text{degree of node } i \text{ if } i = j \\ -1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and vertices } i \text{ and } j \text{ are adjacent} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

the degree of a node is the number of edges incident to it



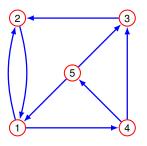
$$L = AA^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- assume there are no self-loops and at most one edge between any two vertices
- we have $\mathcal{D}(v) = ||A^T v||^2 = v^T L v$ (sometimes called *Laplacian quadratic form*)

Adjacency matrix of directed graph

adjacency matrix of directed graph is the $n \times n$ matrix A with:

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if edge from node } j \text{ to node } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

- can describe a *relation* between n objects \mathcal{R} $(A_{ij} = 1 \text{ if } (i, j) \in \mathcal{R})$
- can be defined in reverse; $A_{ij} = 1$ means a directed edge from $i \rightarrow j$

graphs

Paths in directed graph

square of adjacency matrix:

$$(A^2)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} A_{kj}$$

- each term is either zero, or one when $j \to k$ and $k \to i$
- $(A^2)_{ij}$ is number of paths of length 2 from j to i
- more generally, $(A^{\ell})_{ij}$ = number of paths of length ℓ from j to i
- for the example,

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

e.g., there are two paths of length two from $5\ \mathrm{to}\ 2$

Outline

- matrix notation
- matrix operations
- complexity
- examples of matrices
- graphs
- convolution

Convolution

convolution between n-vector a and m-vector b is the (n + m - 1)-vector

$$c_k = (a * b)_k = \sum_{\substack{\text{all } i, j \text{ with } i+j=k+1}} a_i b_j, \quad k = 1, \dots, n+m-1$$

• for example with n = 4, m = 3, we have

$$c_1 = a_1b_1$$

$$c_2 = a_1b_2 + a_2b_1$$

$$c_3 = a_1b_3 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_1$$

$$c_4 = a_2b_3 + a_3b_2 + a_4b_1$$

$$c_5 = a_3b_3 + a_4b_2$$

$$c_6 = a_4b_3$$

- example: (1,0,-1)*(2,1,-1)=(2,1,-3,-1,1)
- · arises in many applications and contexts

Interpretation and properties

Interpretation: if a and b are the coefficients of polynomials

$$p(x) = a_1 + a_2x + \dots + a_nx^{n-1}, \quad q(x) = b_1 + b_2x + \dots + b_mx^{m-1}$$

then c = a * b gives the coefficients of the product polynomial

$$p(x)q(x) = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2 + \dots + c_{n+m-1}x^{n+m-2}$$

Properties

• symmetric: a * b = b * a

• associative: (a * b) * c = a * (b * c)

• if a * b = 0 then a = 0 or b = 0

these properties follow directly from the polynomial product interpretation

4 49

Convolution as matrix-vector product

for fixed a (or b) the convolution can be expressed as matrix-vector product of b (or a)

$$c = a * b = T(b)a = T(a)b$$

for matrices T(a) and T(b)

• example: for 4-vector a and a 3-vector b.

$$T(b) = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ b_2 & b_1 & 0 & 0 \\ b_3 & b_2 & b_1 & 0 \\ 0 & b_3 & b_2 & b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & b_3 & b_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(a) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & a_1 & 0 \\ a_3 & a_2 & a_1 \\ a_4 & a_3 & a_2 \\ 0 & a_4 & a_3 \\ 0 & 0 & a_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- T(b) is a *Toeplitz* matrix (values on diagonals are equal)
- columns of T(a) are shifted versions of a padded with zeros

Examples

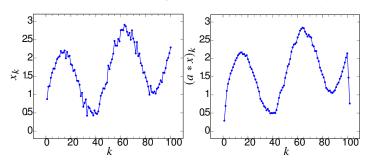
Moving average of a time series

- *n*-vector *x* represents a time series
- the 3-period moving average of the time series is the time series

$$y_k = (1/3)(x_k + x_{k-1} + x_{k-2}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n+2$$

(with x_k interpreted as zero for k < 1 and k > n)

• can be expressed as a convolution y = a * x with a = (1/3, 1/3, 1/3)



Audio filtering

- x is audio signal
- a is a vector called filter coefficients
- y = a * x is filtered audio signal
- · example: audio tone controls

Communication channel

- *u* signal transmitted over some channel (electrical, radio, optical,...)
- receiver receives y = c * u
- *c* is channel *impulse response*

4 52

Input-output convolution system

many systems with input u and output y can be modeled as convolution y = h * u

- *h* is called the *system impulse response*
- for m-vector u input, n-vector h, we can express (m + n 1)-vector y output,

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n u_{i-j+1} h_j$$

(interpreting u_k as zero for k < n or k > n)

- interpretation: output y_i at time i is a linear combination of u_i, \ldots, u_{i-n+1}
- h₃ determines current output's dependency on input from two time steps ago

References and further readings

- S. Boyd and L. Vandenberghe. Introduction to Applied Linear Algebra: Vectors, Matrices, and Least Squares, Cambridge University Press, 2018.
- L. Vandenberghe. *EE133A lecture notes*, University of California, Los Angeles. (http://www.seas.ucla.edu/~vandenbe/ee133a.html)

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