

Lecture #1

Goal

- 1) Notation
- 2) Linear Algebra

I. Notation

- Remark:
- 1) Let \mathbb{N} denote the set of natural numbers including zero.
 - 2) Let \mathbb{Z} denote the set of integers
 - 3) Let \mathbb{R} denote the set of real numbers
 - 4) Let \mathbb{R}^n denote the set of n -tuples of real numbers.
 - 5) Let \mathbb{C} denote the set of complex numbers.

- Def: Given two sets A and B we say that
- a) $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a function if $\forall a \in A$ f assigns one and only one element in B denoted $f(a) \in B$ called the value of f at a .
 - b) A is called the domain of f .
 - c) B is called the codomain of f .

Ex: Consider the function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $f(k) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k$. It has domain \mathbb{N} and codomain \mathbb{R} , but it only takes values that are in $(0, 1]$.

II Linear Algebra

Remark: a) Given $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we say that $[P]_{ij}$ is the entry in row i and column j .
b) We will denote matrices in upper case and vectors in lower case. We will use greek letters for scalars.

Def: a) The identity matrix is a square matrix with all diagonal entries equal to 1 and all off diagonal entries equal to 0.

Given $P, Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then

b) $P+Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ where $[P+Q]_{ij} = [P]_{ij} + [Q]_{ij}$

c) The transpose of P or $P^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ where $[P^T]_{ji} = [P]_{ij}$

d) The trace of S or $\text{tr}(S) \in \mathbb{R}$ where $\text{tr}(S) = \sum_{i=1}^n [S]_{ii}$

e) $PR \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ where $[PR]_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n [P]_{ij} [R]_{jk}$

Note: $(PR)^T = R^T P^T$

A. Linear Independence

Def: A set of vectors $\{v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n\}_{i=1}^m$ is called linearly independent if and only if (iff) $\sum \alpha_i v_i = 0$ implies $(\Rightarrow) \alpha_i = 0 \forall i$. Otherwise the set of vectors is called linearly dependent.

(c) $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is linearly dependent
 first vector minus second vector is equal to the third vector.

Def: (a) Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$. The rank of A denoted $\text{rk}(A)$ is the maximum number of linearly independent columns or rows. (this will be the same...)

(b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has rank 3

(c) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ has rank 2

Note: There are efficient algorithms to compute the rank of matrices (use the rank command in MATLAB)

Ex: Let $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$ be rank deficient then $\exists \{\alpha_i\}$ such that $\sum \alpha_i a_i = 0$, with some $\alpha_i \neq 0$. This can be written as $A(\alpha_1 \ \dots \ \alpha_n)^T = 0$.

Theorem: A is full rank iff $Av=0 \Rightarrow v=0$.

Ex: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ Suppose we want to determine if A is full rank.

$Av=0$ if $v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T$ then $Av=0$,
So A is not full rank.

Note any scaled version of v would have worked.

Def: The kernel of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ denoted $\ker(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax=0\}$.

Ex: a) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\ker(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

Note: the dimension of the kernel of A is 1 since one linearly independent vector describes all elements of $\ker(A)$.

b) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\ker(A) = \{0\}$

which has dimension 0.

Theorem: (Rank-Nullity Theorem) Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
then $\text{rk}(A) + \dim(\ker(A)) = n$

Ex: (a) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\text{rk}(A) = 2 - \dim(\ker(A)) = 1$

(b) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\text{rk}(A) = 3 - \dim(\ker(A)) = 3$

B. Determinant

Def: The determinant of $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ denoted $\det(S)$ or $|S|$ is defined as

$$\det(S) = \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{j+1} [S]_{1j} \det(S_{1j})$$

where $S_{1j} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ is obtained by deleting the first row and column j in the matrix S , where $\det(\alpha) = \alpha$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Ex:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = 2 \star \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 2 \star (3 \star 9 - 4 \star 4)$$

$$= 22$$

Lemma: $\det(A) \neq 0$ iff A is full rank.

C. Eigenvalues

Def: The eigenvalues of $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are scalars $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $Sv = \lambda v$ for some nonzero $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ which is called an eigenvector.

Note: The eigenvectors correspond to the "directions" of the matrix along which it acts only by scaling.

Ex: Find the eigenvalues of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

We want λ such that $Av = \lambda v \Rightarrow$

$(A - \lambda I)v = 0$ so we want to

find when $(A - \lambda I)$ is rank deficient \Leftrightarrow
 $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3-\lambda & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = -\lambda^3 + 14\lambda^2 - 35\lambda + 22 \Rightarrow \lambda = 1, 2, 11.$$

Note: There are numerically efficient tools to compute \det and eig using MATLAB.

Def: Given a matrix $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ the degree n polynomial $\det(S - \lambda I)$ is called the characteristic polynomial of S .

Theorem: (a) If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ then it has n eigenvalues

Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then

(b) If $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are the eigenvalues of A then

i) $|A| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$

ii) $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$

(c) $|AB| = |A||B|$

D. Inverses

Def: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Suppose $\exists B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t. $AB = I$ then B is called the inverse of A denoted A^{-1} .

Ex: (a) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, then $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

(b) $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, then A^{-1} does not exist.

Theorem: Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

- a) If A^{-1} exists, it is unique
- b) $\det(A) \neq 0$ iff A^{-1} exists.
- c) If $\det(A) \neq 0$, then $\det(A^{-1}) = (\det(A))^{-1}$
- d) if A, B invertible then $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

Note: There are algorithms to compute A^{-1} using MATLAB function `inv`.

E. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Theorem: Suppose $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then $\exists U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$
 $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ s.t.

- (a) $M = U \Sigma V^T$ (called the SVD of M)
- (b) the columns of U are the set of orthonormal eigenvectors of MM^T such that $U^T U = I$
- (c) the columns of V are the set of orthonormal eigenvectors of $M^T M$ such that $V V^T = I$.
- (d) Σ is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are the square root of the eigenvalues of MM^T and $M^T M$.

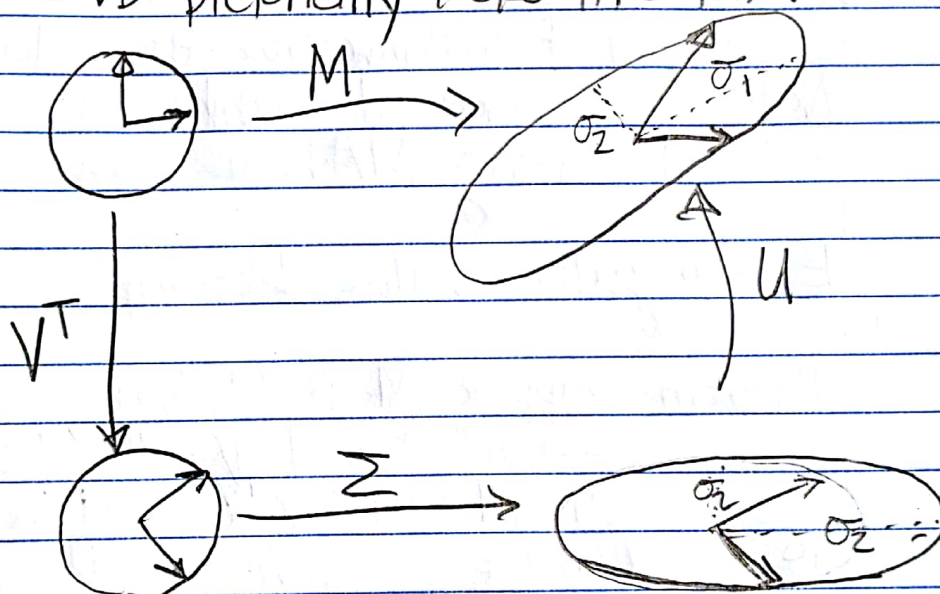
Def: The diagonal entries σ_i of Σ are called the singular values of M .

Remark: 1) Matrices whose transpose are their inverse are called unitary matrices.

2) Unitary matrices describe transformations between different coordinate systems.

More on this later

3) Σ scales the coordinate axes, so SVD pictorially looks like this:



Ex: Suppose $(1,6)$, $(2,3)$, $(3,7)$, and $(4,10)$ are given and we want to fit a function $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ to the data. We want to find the best β_0 and β_1 :

$$\min_{\beta_0, \beta_1} \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \\ 7 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2^2$$

that is we want to solve:

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 = \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y_i - \sum_j x_{ij} \beta_j \right)^2$$

How do we solve this problem?

Use Calculus, take gradient and set equal to zero.

Let $r_i = y_i - \sum x_{ij} \beta_j$ and let $S = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i^2$

$$\text{then } \frac{dS}{dr_i} = 2 \sum r_i \frac{dr_i}{d\beta_j}, \quad \frac{dr_i}{d\beta_j} = -x_{ij}$$

Thus if $\hat{\beta}$ minimizes S , then:

$$2 \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y_i - \sum_{k=1}^n x_{ik} \hat{\beta}_k \right) (-x_{ij}) = 0$$

which is equal to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^n x_{ij} x_{ik} \hat{\beta}_k = \sum_{i=1}^m x_{ij} y_i$$
$$(X^T X) \hat{\beta} = X^T y$$

but how do we solve for $\hat{\beta}$?

Note: a) If X 's columns are linearly independent then $X^T X$ is invertible

Pf: We show $X^T X v = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0$.

$$0 = v^T X^T X v = (Xv)^T (Xv) = \|Xv\|_2^2$$

This implies $v = 0$ since X 's columns are linearly independent.

b) We refer to $(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$ the pseudoinverse of X :

$$\begin{aligned}(X^T X)^{-1} X^T &= (V \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T)^{-1} V \Sigma^T U^T \\&= (V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T)^{-1} V \Sigma U^T \\&= (V^T)^{-1} (\Sigma^T \Sigma)^{-1} V^{-1} V \Sigma U^T \\&= (V^T)^{-1} \Sigma^{-1} (\Sigma^T)^{-1} \Sigma U^T \\&= V \Sigma^{-1} U\end{aligned}$$

c) $\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y.$