Lecture 2: Linear algebra

STATS 101: Foundations of Statistics

Linh Tran

ThetaHat.AI@gmail.com

November 21, 2019

Announcements

- ▶ 30 students submitted homework
- ▶ Next assignment will be posted tonight (due 12/4 @ 11:59pm)
- ▶ Re: prizes for top 3 students
 - Amazon gift cards
 - Extra points are awarded for:
 - 1. Class participation (e.g. asking/answering questions, etc)
 - 2. Catching & correcting errata/typos
 - 3. Answering questions / participating in discussions on Piazza
 - Blinded top 3 scores will be posted to course website
- ▶ No class next week (Happy Thanksgiving!)

Outline

All things linear algebra

- ► Basic concepts
- Matrix multiplication
- ► Operations and Properties
- Matrix Calculus

Consider the following equations:

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13 (1)$$

$$-2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9 (2)$$

Let's solve for x_1 and x_2 .

Consider the following equations:

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13 (1)$$

$$-2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9 (2)$$

Let's solve for x_1 and x_2 .

We can write this system of equations more compactly in matrix notation, e.g.

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \tag{3}$$

where
$$\mathbf{A}=\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b}=\begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$

Some basic notation:

- ▶ We denote a matrix with m rows and n columns as $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, where each entry in the matrix is a real number.
- ▶ We denote a vector with n entries as $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
 - By convention, we typically think of a vector as a 1 column matrix.
- ▶ We denote the i^{th} element of a vector **x** as x_i , e.g.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \tag{4}$$

Some basic notation:

▶ We denote each entry in a matrix **A** by a_{ij} , corresponding to the i^{th} row and j^{th} column, e.g.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (5)

• We denote the *transpose* of a matrix as \mathbf{A}^{\top} , e.g.

$$\mathbf{A}^{\top} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$
 (6)

Some basic notation:

▶ We denote the j^{th} column of **A** by \mathbf{a}_j or $\mathbf{A}_{\cdot j}$, e.g.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$
 (7)

▶ We denote the i^{th} row of **A** by \mathbf{a}_i^{\top} or $\mathbf{A}_{i\cdots}$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & - \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & - \\ \vdots & & \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & - \end{bmatrix}$$
(8)

n.b. This isn't universal, though should be clear from its presentation and use.

Given two matrices $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, we can multiply them by

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p} : \mathbf{C}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ik} \mathbf{B}_{kj}$$
 (9)

n.b. The dimensions have to be compatible for matrix multiplication to be valid (e.g. the number of columns in $\bf A$ must be equal to the number of rows in $\bf B$).

Given $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the quantity $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ (aka *dot product* or *inner product*) is a scalar given by

$$\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$
 (10)

Note: For vectors, we always have that $\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$. This is not generally true for matrices.

Given $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the quantity $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ (aka *outer product*) is a matrix given by

$$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{\top} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \cdots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & x_1y_2 & \cdots & x_1y_n \\ x_2y_1 & x_2y_2 & \cdots & x_2y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_my_1 & x_my_2 & \cdots & x_my_n \end{bmatrix}$$
(11)

Example: Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be a matrix such that all columns are equal to some vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Using outer products, we can represent \mathbf{A} compactly as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{x} & \cdots & \mathbf{x} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_1 & \cdots & x_1 \\ x_2 & x_2 & \cdots & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m & x_m & \cdots & x_m \end{bmatrix}$$
(12)
$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(13)
$$= \mathbf{x} \mathbf{1}^{\top}$$
(14)

Matrix-vector products

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, their product is a vector $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

Matrix-vector products

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, their product is a vector $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

There are two ways of interpreting this:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{a}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \mathbf{a}_{1}x_{1} + \mathbf{a}_{2}x_{2} + \cdots + \mathbf{a}_{n}x_{n}$$

$$(15)$$

Matrix-vector products

Example:

Define
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Calculate $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$.

Matrix-matrix products

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, their product is a matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$.

Matrix-matrix products

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, their product is a matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$.

Similar to before, we can think of this in two ways:

Interpretation # 1

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{-} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} \mathbf{b}_{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(18)$$

Matrix-matrix products

Interpretation # 2

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_{1} & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_{p} \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & - \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & - \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top} & - \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top}\mathbf{B} & - \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{B} & - \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ - & \mathbf{a}_{m}^{\top}\mathbf{B} & - \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(20)$$

Matrix multiplication properties

- ► Associative: (AB)C = A(BC)
- ▶ Distributive: A(B + C) = AB + AC
- ▶ Not commutative: $AB \neq BA$

Matrix multiplication properties

Demonstrating associativity:

We just need to show that $((\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C})_{ij} = (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}))_{ij}$:

$$((\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C})_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} (\mathbf{AB})_{ik} \mathbf{C}_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{il} \mathbf{B}_{lk} \right) \mathbf{C}_{kj}$$
(23)

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{p} \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{il} \mathbf{B}_{lk} \mathbf{C}_{kj} \right) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{p} \mathbf{A}_{il} \mathbf{B}_{lk} \mathbf{C}_{kj} \right) (24)$$

$$= \sum_{l=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{il} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{p} \mathbf{B}_{lk} \mathbf{C}_{kj} \right) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{il} (\mathbf{BC})_{lj}$$
(25)

$$= (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}))_{ij}$$
(26)

Operations & properties

The identity matrix:

The *identity matrix*, denoted $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a square matrix with 1's in the diagonal and 0's everywhere else, i.e.

$$\mathbf{I}_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \tag{27}$$

Operations & properties

The identity matrix:

The *identity matrix*, denoted $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a square matrix with 1's in the diagonal and 0's everywhere else, i.e.

$$\mathbf{I}_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \tag{27}$$

It has the property

$$\mathbf{AI} = \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{IA} \ \forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \tag{28}$$

n.b. The dimensionality of I is typically inferred (e.g. $n \times n$ vs $m \times m$)

Operations & properties

The diagonal matrix: The *diagonal matrix*, denoted $\mathbf{D} = diag(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ is a matrix where all non-diagonal elements are 0, i.e.

$$\mathbf{D}_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_i & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases} \tag{29}$$

Clearly, I = diag(1, 1, ..., 1).

The transpose

The *transpose* of a matrix results from "*flipping*" the rows and columns, i.e.

$$(\mathbf{A}^{\top})_{ij} = \mathbf{A}_{ji} \tag{30}$$

Consequently, for $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we have that $\mathbf{A}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

Some properties:

- $\blacktriangleright (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^\top = \mathbf{A}^\top + \mathbf{B}^\top$

Symmetry

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is *symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

It is *anti-symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

Symmetry

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is *symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

It is *anti-symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

It is easy to show that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}$ is symmetric and $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}^{\top}$ is anti-symmetric. Consequently, we have that

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}^{\top})$$
 (31)

Symmetry

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is *symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

It is *anti-symmetric* if $\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}^{\top}$.

It is easy to show that $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}$ is symmetric and $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}^{\top}$ is anti-symmetric. Consequently, we have that

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}^{\top})$$
 (31)

Symmetric matrices tend to be denoted as $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$.

Trace

The *trace* of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted $tr(\mathbf{A})$ or $tr\mathbf{A}$ is the sum of the diagonal elements, i.e.

$$tr\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ii} \tag{32}$$

The trace has the following properties:

- ▶ For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $tr\mathbf{A} = tr\mathbf{A}^{\top}$
- ► For $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $tr(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = tr\mathbf{A} + tr\mathbf{B}$
- ▶ For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $tr(c\mathbf{A}) = c tr\mathbf{A}$
- ▶ For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ $\ni AB \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, trAB = trBA
- ► For $A, B, C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \ni ABC \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, trABC = trBCA = trCAB, and so on for more matrices

Trace

Example: Proving that trAB = trBA

$$tr\mathbf{AB} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\mathbf{AB})_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ij} \mathbf{B}_{ji} \right)$$
(33)
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ij} \mathbf{B}_{ji} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{B}_{ji} \mathbf{A}_{ij}$$
(34)
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{B}_{ji} \mathbf{A}_{ij} \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\mathbf{BA})_{jj}$$
(35)
$$= tr\mathbf{BA}$$
(36)

A *norm* of a vector \mathbf{x} , denoted $||\mathbf{x}||$ is a measure of the "length" of the vector. For example, the ℓ_2 -norm (aka Euclidean norm) is

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \tag{37}$$

n.b. $||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$, i.e. the squared norm of a vector is the dot product with itself.

A *norm* of a vector \mathbf{x} , denoted $||\mathbf{x}||$ is a measure of the "*length*" of the vector. For example, the ℓ_2 -norm (aka Euclidean norm) is

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \tag{37}$$

n.b. $||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$, i.e. the squared norm of a vector is the dot product with itself.

Other norms:

- ℓ_1 -norm, i.e. $||\mathbf{x}||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$.
- ℓ_p -norm, i.e. $||\mathbf{x}||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$.

Formally, a norm is any function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying four properties:

- 1. $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ (non-negativity).
- 2. $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ iff $\mathbf{x} = 0$ (definiteness).
- 3. $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}, f(c\mathbf{x}) = |c|f(\mathbf{x})$ (homogeneity).
- **4**. $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n, f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$ (triangle inequality).

Formally, a norm is any function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying four properties:

- 1. $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ (non-negativity).
- 2. $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ iff $\mathbf{x} = 0$ (definiteness).
- 3. $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}, f(c\mathbf{x}) = |c|f(\mathbf{x})$ (homogeneity).
- **4**. $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n, f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$ (triangle inequality).

Norms can also be defined for matrices, e.g. The Frobenius norm,

$$||\mathbf{A}||^F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{A}_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{tr(\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A})}$$
 (38)

Linear independence

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is *(linearly) dependent* if one of the vectors \mathbf{x}_i can be represented as a linear combination of the remaining vectors, i.e.

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i \tag{39}$$

for some scalar values $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$

Linear independence

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is *(linearly) dependent* if one of the vectors \mathbf{x}_i can be represented as a linear combination of the remaining vectors, i.e.

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i \tag{39}$$

for some scalar values $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$

Example: Let

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\1\\5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\-3\\-1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{40}$$

Is $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ linearly independent?

Rank

The *column rank* of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the largest subset of columns of \mathbf{A} that are linearly independent.

▶ The column rank is always $\leq n$.

The *row rank* of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the largest subset of rows of \mathbf{A} that are linearly independent.

▶ The row rank is always $\leq m$.

Rank

The *column rank* of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the largest subset of columns of \mathbf{A} that are linearly independent.

▶ The column rank is always $\leq n$.

The *row rank* of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the largest subset of rows of \mathbf{A} that are linearly independent.

- ▶ The row rank is always $\leq m$.
- n.b. Column rank is always equal to row rank. Thus, we refer to both as the *rank* of the matrix.
 - ▶ For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, if $rank(\mathbf{A}) = min(m, n)$, then \mathbf{A} is said to be of *full rank*.
 - ▶ For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $rank(\mathbf{A}) = rank(\mathbf{A}^{\top})$.
 - ► For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, rank $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}) \leq \min(rank(\mathbf{A}), rank(\mathbf{B}))$.
 - ▶ For $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $rank(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \leq rank(\mathbf{A}) + rank(\mathbf{B})$

Matrix inverse

The *inverse* of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is denoted \mathbf{A}^{-1} , and is unique such that

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{41}$$

Matrix inverse

The *inverse* of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is denoted \mathbf{A}^{-1} , and is unique such that

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{41}$$

n.b. Not all matrices have inverses (e.g. $m \times n$ matrices).

Def:

A is *invertible* or *non-singular* if A^{-1} exists. Otherwise, it is *non-invertible* or *singular*.

- 1. $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}$
- 2. $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- 3. $(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{\top} = (\mathbf{A}^{\top})^{-1}$
 - ▶ This matrix is sometimes denoted $\mathbf{A}^{-\top}$

Orthogonal Matrices

Def:

- ▶ A vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is *normalized* if $||\mathbf{x}||_2 = 1$
- ► Two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are *orthogonal* if $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$
- ▶ A square matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is *orthogonal* or *orthonormal* if all its columns are:
 - 1. Orthogonal to each other
 - 2. Normalized

We therfore have that

$$\mathbf{U}^{\top}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\top} \tag{42}$$

Orthogonal Matrices

Def:

- ▶ A vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is *normalized* if $||\mathbf{x}||_2 = 1$
- ▶ Two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are *orthogonal* if $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$
- ▶ A square matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is *orthogonal* or *orthonormal* if all its columns are:
 - 1. Orthogonal to each other
 - Normalized

We therfore have that

$$\mathbf{U}^{\top}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\top} \tag{42}$$

Another nice property:

$$||\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}||_2 = ||\mathbf{x}||_2 \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ orthogonal}$$
 (43)

Range

Def:

The *span* of a set of vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ is

$$\operatorname{span}(\{\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n\}) = \left\{v : v = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$$
(44)

Range

Def:

The *span* of a set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is

$$span(\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}) = \left\{ v : v = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$
(44)

n.b. If $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ is linearly independent, then $\mathrm{span}(\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}) = \mathbb{R}^n$.

Example:

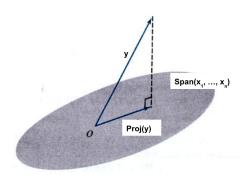
$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{45}$$

Projection

Def:

The *projection* of a vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ onto $\mathrm{span}(\{\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n\}) = \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$\operatorname{Proj}(\mathbf{y}; \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}) = \underset{\mathbf{v} \in \operatorname{span}(\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\})}{\operatorname{arg min}} ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{v}||_2 \qquad (46)$$



Range

Def:

The *range* of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, denoted $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ is the span of the columns of \mathbf{A} , i.e.

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m : \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$
 (47)

Assuming that **A** is full rank and n < m, the projection of $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ onto $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ is

$$\operatorname{Proj}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{A}) = \underset{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})}{\operatorname{arg min}} ||\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{y}||_{2}$$
 (48)

$$= \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{y} \tag{49}$$

Nullspace

Def:

The *nullspace* of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, denoted $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ is the set of all vectors that equal 0 when ultiplied by \mathbf{A} , i.e.

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0 \}$$
 (50)

Some properties:

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^{\top}) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{0}\}\$

This is referred to as *orthogonal complements*, denoted as $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^\top) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})^\perp$

Def:

The *determinant* of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted $|\mathbf{A}|$ or det \mathbf{A} is a function det: $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$.

Let $\mathbf{A}_{\setminus i,\setminus j} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1)\times (n-1)}$ be the matrix that results from deleting the i^{th} row and j^{th} column. The general (recursive) formula for the determinant is

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} |\mathbf{A}_{\setminus i, \setminus j}| \quad (\forall j \in 1, ..., n) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} |\mathbf{A}_{\setminus i, \setminus j}| \quad (\forall i \in 1, ..., n)$$
(51)

Given a matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{1}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{-} & \mathbf{a}_{n}^{\top} & \mathbf{-} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (52)

and a set $\mathbf{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{S} = \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{a}_i \text{ where } 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1, i = 1, ..., n \}$$
 (53)

 $|\mathbf{A}|$ is the volume of \mathbf{S} .

Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{54}$$

Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{54}$$

The matrix rows are:

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{55}$$

And
$$|{\bf A}| = -7$$

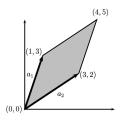
Example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{54}$$

The matrix rows are:

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{55}$$

And
$$|{\bf A}| = -7$$



Properties of determinants:

- ightharpoonup For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $|\mathbf{A}| = |\mathbf{A}^{\top}|$
- ightharpoonup For $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}| = |\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{B}|$
- ▶ For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$ iff \mathbf{A} is singular (i.e. non-invertible).
- lacktriangle For $f A \in \mathbb{R}^{n imes n}$ and f A non-singular, $|{f A}^{-1}| = 1/|{f A}|$

Quadratic form

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the *quadratic form* is the scalar value

$$\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x})_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ij} x_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ij} x_i x_j$$
 (56)

Quadratic form

Some properties involving quadratic form:

- A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is *positive definite* if for a non-zero $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$
- A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is *positive semi-definite* if for a non-zero $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0$
- A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is *negative definite* if for a non-zero $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} < 0$
- A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is *negative semi-definite* if for a non-zero $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq 0$
- A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is *indefinite* if it is neither positive nor negative semidefinite
- n.b. Positive definite and negative definite matrices always have full rank.

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an *eigenvalue* of \mathbf{A} with corresponding *eigenvector* $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ if

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \neq 0 \tag{57}$$

n.b. The eigenvector is (usually) normalized to have length 1

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an *eigenvalue* of \mathbf{A} with corresponding *eigenvector* $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ if

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \neq 0 \tag{57}$$

n.b. The eigenvector is (usually) normalized to have length 1

We can write all of the eigenvector equations simultaneously as

$$\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\Lambda} \tag{58}$$

where

$$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_n \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{\Lambda} = diag(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n)$$
 (59)

Some properties:

- $ightharpoonup tr \mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$
- $ightharpoonup |\mathbf{A}| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$
- ► The rank of A is equal to the number of non-zero eigenvalues of A.
- ▶ If **A** is non-singular, then $1/\lambda_i$ is an eigenvalue of **A**⁻¹ with corresponding eigenvector \mathbf{x}_i , i.e. $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{x}_i = (1/\lambda_i)\mathbf{x}_i$
- ► The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix $D = diag(d_1, ..., d_n)$ are just its diagonal entries $d_1, ..., d_n$

Example: For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ with ordered eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_n$,

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \text{ subject to } ||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 = 1$$
 (60)

is solved with \mathbf{x}_1 corresponding to λ_1 . Similarly,

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \text{ subject to } ||\mathbf{x}||_2^2 = 1$$
 (61)

is solved with \mathbf{x}_n corresponding to λ_n .

Matrix calculus

Given $f: \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$, the *gradient* of f wrt $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} f(\mathbf{A}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{11}} & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{1n}} \\ \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{21}} & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{22}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{2n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{m1}} & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{m2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{A})}{\partial \mathbf{A}_{mn}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(62)

Some properties

▶ For
$$c \in \mathbb{R}$$
, $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(c f(\mathbf{x})) = c \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(f(\mathbf{x}))$

The Hessian

Given $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, the *Hessian* of f wrt $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^{2} f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{n}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{n}^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(63)

n.b. The Hessian is always symmetric, since $\frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$

Least squares

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \ni b \notin \mathcal{R}(A)$, we want to find $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as close as possible to \mathbf{b} (via the Euclidean norm),

$$||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}||_{2}^{2} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$$
(64)

Least squares

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \ni b \notin \mathcal{R}(A)$, we want to find $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as close as possible to \mathbf{b} (via the Euclidean norm),

$$||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}||_{2}^{2} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$$
(64)

Taking the gradient wrt \mathbf{x} , we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{b}\overline{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{b})$$

$$= \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$$
(67)

Least squares

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \ni b \notin \mathcal{R}(A)$, we want to find $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as close as possible to **b** (via the Euclidean norm),

$$||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}||_{2}^{2} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$$
(64)

$$= \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - 2 \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}$$
 (65)

Taking the gradient wrt \mathbf{x} , we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}2\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}$$

$$= \mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$$
(67)

Setting this expression equal to zero and solving for x gives the normal equations.

$$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{b} \tag{68}$$



TODO: go into this.

References

Some textbooks on linear algebra:

- ► Linear Algebra (Jim Hefferon)
- ► Introduction to Applied Linear Algebra (Boyd & Vandenberghe)
- ► Linear Algebra (Cherney, Denton et al.)
- ► Linear Algebra (Hoffman & Kunze)
- ► Fundamentals of Linear Algebra (Carrell)
- ► Linear Algebra (S. Friedberg A. Insel L. Spence)