

Lecture 1: Review of linear algebra

- Linear functions and linearization
- Inverse matrix, least-squares and least-norm solutions
- Subspaces, basis, and dimension
- Change of basis and similarity transformations
- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

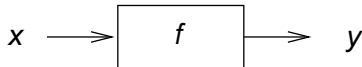
Notation

- \mathbb{R} — real numbers, \mathbb{Z} — integers, \mathbb{N} — natural numbers
- \mathbb{R}^n — n -dimensional real vector space
- $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ — space of real $m \times n$ matrices
- $\text{LHS} := \text{RHS}$ — the LHS is defined by the RHS
- A^T — the transposed of A

Linear functions

- $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ — function mapping vectors in \mathbb{R}^n to vectors in \mathbb{R}^m

Interpretation of $y = f(x)$: x given **input**, y corresponding **output**



- f is a **linear function** if and only if superposition holds:

$$f(\alpha x + \beta v) = \alpha f(x) + \beta f(v), \quad \text{for all } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, x, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

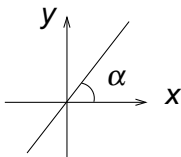
- f is linear $\iff \exists A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, such that $f(x) = Ax$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 A is a **matrix representing the linear function f**

Q: How can you find a matrix representation of a linear function f , if you are allowed to evaluate f at points $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of your choice?

Examples of linear functions

- Scalar function of a scalar argument

$$y = \tan(\alpha)x, \quad \text{where } \alpha \in [0, 2\pi)$$



- Identity function $x = f(x)$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
is a linear function represented by the identity matrix

$$I_n := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

Matrix–vector multiplication

Partition $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ elementwise, column-wise, and row-wise

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{11} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m1} & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \mathbf{c}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{c}_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & r_1 & \text{---} \\ & \vdots & \\ \text{---} & r_m & \text{---} \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix–vector product $y = Ax$ can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{a}_{1j} x_j \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{a}_{mj} x_j \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{c}_j x_j = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 x \\ \vdots \\ r_m x \end{bmatrix}$$

Interpretation: a_{ij} **gain factor** from the j th input x_j to the i th output y_i .
(e.g., $a_{ij} = 0$ means that j th input has no influence on i th output.)

Linearization

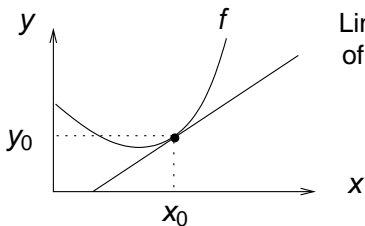
Consider a differentiable function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. Then for given $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$y = f(x_0 + \tilde{x}) \approx \underbrace{f(x_0)}_{y_0} + A\tilde{x} \quad \text{where} \quad A = [a_{ij}] = \left[\left. \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right|_{x_0} \right].$$

When the input deviation $\tilde{x} = x - x_0$ is “small”, the output deviation

$$\tilde{y} := y - y_0$$

is approximately a linear function of \tilde{x} , $\tilde{y} = A\tilde{x}$



Linear approximation
of $f : x \mapsto y$ at $x = x_0$

Rank of a matrix and inversion

- the set of vectors $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is **independent** if

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = 0 \quad \text{only if} \quad \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$$

- rank of a matrix** — number of lin. indep. columns (or rows)
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is **full row rank (f.r.r.)** if $\text{rank}(A) = m$

Interpretation: A not f.r.r. — there are redundant outputs

- Inversion problem:** given $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, find x , such that $y = Ax$.

Interpretation: design an input that achieves a desired output.

- When is the inversion problem solvable? Is the solution unique?

Inversion problem

Given $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, find x , such that $y = Ax$.

Solution may not exist, be unique, or there may be ∞ many solutions.
(Why it is not possible to have a finite number of solutions?)

Interpretations:

- **Control:** x is a **control input**, y is a **desired outcome**
- **Estimation:** x is a **vector of parameters**, y is a **set of measurements**

Typically

in control, the solution is **nonunique** and we aim to find the “best” one.

in estimation, there is **no solution** and we aim to find the “best” approximation.

Inverse of a matrix

If $m = n = \text{rank}(A)$, then there exists a matrix A^{-1} , such that

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

Then for all $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$y = \underbrace{(AA^{-1})}_I y = A \underbrace{(A^{-1}y)}_x = Ax.$$

The inversion problem is solvable and the solution is unique.

Q: Can you find a matrix representation of a linear function f , from given values y_1, \dots, y_n of f at given points x_1, \dots, x_n ? If so, how?

Vector and matrix norms

Mathematical formalisation of the geometric notion of **size or distance**.

Norm is a function $\|x\| : x \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the following properties:

- Nonnegativity: $\|x\| \geq 0$ for all x
- Definiteness: $\|x\| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- Homogeneity: $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$ for all x and α
- Triangle inequality: $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

Examples:

- **Vector 2-norm:** $\|x\|_2 := \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = \sqrt{x^\top x}$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- **Frobenius matrix norm:** $\|A\|_F := \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2}$, for all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

Unit ball: $\mathcal{U} = \{x \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$

Least-squares solution

Assumption $m \geq n = \text{rank}(A)$, i.e., A is full column rank.

The inversion problem typically has no solution.

The least-squares solution

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y} =: A^+ \mathbf{y}$$

minimizes the approximation error

$$\| \underbrace{\mathbf{y} - A\mathbf{x}}_e \|_2 := \sqrt{e_1^2 + \cdots + e_m^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e}}.$$

The matrix

$$A^+ := (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \quad (\text{if } m > n = \text{rank}(A))$$

is called **pseudo-inverse of A** .

Notes

- x_{ls} is a **linear function of y** (given by the pseudo inverse matrix A^+)
- If A is square $x_{ls} = A^{-1}y$ (in other words $A^+ = A^{-1}$)
- x_{ls} is an exact solution if $Ax = y$ has an exact solution
- $\hat{y} = Ax_{ls} = A(A^T A)^{-1}A^T y$ is a least-squares approximation of y
- **Statistical interpretation:** assume that

$$y = Ax_0 + e$$

where e is zero mean Gaussian random vector with covariance $\sigma^2 I$

Then x_{ls} is the **best linear unbiased estimator for x_0** .

Least-norm solution

Assumption $n \geq m = \text{rank}(A)$, i.e., A is full row rank.

The inversion problem has infinitely many solutions.

The least-norm solution

$$x_{\text{ln}} = A^{\top} (AA^{\top})^{-1} y =: A^{+} y$$

minimizes the 2-norm of the solution x , i.e.,

$$\text{minimize } \|x\|_2 \quad \text{subject to } Ax = y$$

The matrix

$$A^{+} := A^{\top} (AA^{\top})^{-1} \quad (\text{if } n > m = \text{rank}(A))$$

is called **pseudo-inverse of A** .

Set of all solutions

$$\{x \mid Ax = y\} = \{x_p + z \mid Az = 0\}$$

where x_p is a particular solution, *i.e.*, $Ax_p = y$.

Note that $x_{\text{In}} = A^\top(AA^\top)^{-1}y$ is a particular solution

$$Ax_{\text{In}} = (AA^\top)(AA^\top)^{-1}y = y.$$

Moreover, x_{In} is the minimum 2-norm solution.

Inner product

- The inner product of two vectors $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as

$$\langle a, b \rangle := a^\top b = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k b_k.$$

- Matrix–matrix product $H = GF$, $F: \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$, $G: \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ gives pm inner products between the rows of G and the columns of F

$$H = GF = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & g_1 & \text{---} \\ & \vdots & \\ \text{---} & g_m & \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ f_1 & \cdots & f_p \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle g_1, f_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle g_1, f_p \rangle \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \langle g_m, f_1 \rangle & \cdots & \langle g_m, f_p \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

- The **Gram matrix** of the vectors f_1, \dots, f_m is defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} f_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ f_m^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_1 & \cdots & f_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$|\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y}| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

equality holds if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{y}$, for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

Application: optimization of a linear function over the unit ball

Given $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\text{maximize } \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} \quad \text{subject to } \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$$

The solution follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{opt}} = \frac{\mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{y}\|}$$

Angle between vectors

The angle between the vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as

$$\angle(x, y) = \cos^{-1} \frac{x^\top y}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

- $x \neq 0$ and y are **aligned** if $y = \alpha x$, for some $\alpha \geq 0$
In this case, $\angle(x, y) = 0$.
- $x \neq 0$ and y are **opposite** if $y = -\alpha x$, for some $\alpha \geq 0$
In this case, $\angle(x, y) = \pi$.
- x and y are **orthogonal** (denoted $x \perp y$) if $x^\top y = 0$
In this case, $\angle(x, y) = \pi/2$.

Q: Given $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, which x minimize $|x^\top y|$ subject to $\|x\| \geq 1$?

Subspace, basis, and dimension

- $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a **subspace** of a vector space \mathbb{R}^n if \mathcal{V} is a vector space

$$v, w \in \mathcal{V} \implies \alpha v + \beta w \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \text{for all } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$

- The set $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a **basis** of \mathcal{V} if

- v_1, \dots, v_n span \mathcal{V} , i.e.,

$$\mathcal{V} = \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_n) := \{ \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

- $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is an independent set of vectors.

- **dim**(\mathcal{V}) — number of basis vectors (does not depend on the basis)

Null space of a matrix (kernel)

- **kernel of A** — the set of vectors mapped to zero by $f(x) := Ax$

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

- $y = A(x + \tilde{x})$, for all $\tilde{x} \in \ker(A)$

Interpretation: $\ker(A)$ is the uncertainty in finding x , given y .

Interpretation: $\ker(A)$ is the freedom in the x 's that achieve y .

- $\ker(A) = \{0\} \iff f(x) := Ax$ is **one-to-one**
- $\ker(A) = \{0\} \iff A$ is full column rank

Range of a matrix (image)

- **image of A** — the set of all vectors obtainable by $f(x) := Ax$

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

- $\text{image}(A) = \text{span of the columns of } A$
- $\text{image}(A) = \text{set of vectors } y \text{ for which } Ax = y \text{ has a solution}$
- $\text{image}(A) = \mathbb{R}^m \iff f(x) := Ax \text{ is onto (image}(f) = \mathbb{R}^m)$
- $\text{image}(A) = \mathbb{R}^m \iff A \text{ is full row rank}$

Change of basis

- **standard basis vectors in \mathbb{R}^n** — the columns e_1, \dots, e_n of I_n
- Elements of $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are coordinates of x w.r.t. standard basis.
- A new bases is given by the columns t_1, \dots, t_n of $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
- The coordinates of x in the new basis are $\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n$, such that

$$x = \tilde{x}_1 t_1 + \dots + \tilde{x}_n t_n = T\tilde{x} \quad \implies \quad \tilde{x} = T^{-1}x$$

- T^{-1} transforms standard basis coordinates x into T -coordinates

Similarity transformation

- Consider linear operator $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, given by $f(x) = Ax$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
- Change standard basis to basis defined by columns of $T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
- The matrix representation of f changes to $T^{-1}AT$:

$$x = T\tilde{x}, \quad y = T\tilde{y} \quad \implies \quad \tilde{y} = (T^{-1}AT)\tilde{x}$$

- $A \mapsto T^{-1}AT$ — similarity transformation of A

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is **eigenvalue** of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: \iff there is $v \neq 0$, s.t. $Av = \lambda v$
: \iff $\lambda I_n - A$ is singular

Any nonzero $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $Av = \lambda v$ is called an **eigenvector** of A associate with the eigenvalue λ .

Meaning of λ and v : the action of A in the direction defined by v is equivalent to scalar multiplication by λ

Characteristic polynomial of A : $p_A(\lambda) := \det(\lambda I_n - A)$, $\deg(p_A) = n$

λ is an eigenvalue of A if and only if λ is a root of p_A

Geometric multiplicity of λ : $\dim((\lambda I_n - A))$

Algebraic multiplicity of λ : multiplicity of the root λ of p_A

Eigenvalue decomposition

Suppose $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a lin. indep. set of eigenvectors of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$Av_i = \lambda_i v_i, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

written in a matrix form is

$$A \underbrace{[v_1 \ \cdots \ v_n]}_V = \underbrace{[v_1 \ \cdots \ v_n]}_V \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}}_\Lambda$$

V is nonsingular, so that

$$AV = V\Lambda \quad \implies \quad V^{-1}AV = \Lambda$$

Diagonalization by similarity transformation

- V is nonsingular since by assumption $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is lin. indep.
- similarity transformation with $T = V^{-1}$ diagonalizes A

Conversely if there is a nonsingular $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, such that

$$V^{-1}AV = \Lambda$$

then $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ and $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a lin. indep. set of eigenvectors

A is **diagonalizable** if

- there is nonsingular T , such that TAT^{-1} is diagonal
- there is a set of n lin. indep. eigenvectors of A

if A is not diagonalizable, it is called **defective**

Jordan canonical form

Distinct eigenvalues \implies diagonalizable matrix (converse not true)

Prototypical example of a defective matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Defective matrices have an eigenvalue which algebraic multiplicity is higher than the corresponding geometric multiplicity.

Jordan form: generalization of $TAT^{-1} = \Lambda$ for defective matrices

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of symmetric matrix

Theorem: A symmetric matrix A has real eigenvalues and a full set of eigenvectors, that can be chosen to form an orthonormal set.

Symmetric matrix \implies

- real eigenvalues
- orthonormal eigenvectors

Summary

- f is **linear** if superposition holds $f(\alpha x + \beta v) = \alpha f(x) + \beta f(v)$
- f is linear \iff there is matrix A , such that $f(x) = Ax$
- **image** (column span, range) of A — $\text{image}(A) := \{Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$
- **kernel** (null space) of A — $\text{ker}(A) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = 0\}$
- $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is **subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n if $\alpha v + \beta w \in \mathcal{V}$ for all $v, w \in \mathcal{V}$
- **basis** of a subspace — set of linearly indep. vectors that span \mathcal{V}
- **dimension** of a subspace — the number of basis vectors
- $\text{image}(A)$ and $\text{ker}(A)$ are subspaces

- **rank** of A — number of linearly independent rows (or columns)
- $\dim(\text{image}(A)) = \text{rank}(A)$, $\text{col dim}(A) - \dim(\ker(A)) = \text{rank}(A)$
- A is **full row rank** if $\text{rank}(A) = \text{row dim}(A)$
- A is **full column rank** if $\text{rank}(A) = \text{col dim}(A)$
- A is **full rank** if either full row or column rank
- A is **nonsingular** if A is square and full rank
- **inversion problem**: given $y = Ax$, find x
- A^+ is **left inverse** of A if $A^+A = I$
- solution of the inversion problem: $x = A^+y$, $A^+A = I$

- left inverse exists iff A is full column rank
- **least-squares left inverse** $A_{ls} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$
- A^+ is **right inverse** of A if $AA^+ = I$
- right inverse exists iff A is full row rank
- **least-norm right inverse** $A_{ln} = A^T (AA^T)^{-1}$
- A^{-1} is **inverse** of A if $A^{-1}A = A^{-1}A = I$
- for A to have inverse, A should be square and full rank
- **2-norm** of a vector $\|x\| = \sqrt{x^T x}$, **unit ball** $\{x \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$
- **inner product** of $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ — $\langle a, b \rangle := a^T b$

- **Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:** $|\mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{b}| \leq \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|$
- $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **orthogonal** if $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = 0$
- **similarity transformation** — $A \mapsto T^{-1}AT$, T nonsingular
- **eigenvalue decomposition** — $A = T^{-1}\Lambda T$, Λ diagonal
- **characteristic polynomial of A** — $p_A(\lambda) := \det(\lambda I - A)$
- **symmetric matrix $A = A^\top$** \implies real eigenvalues
orthonormal eigenvectors

References

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