

## Announcement

- wed (4/13) lecture will be on Zoom (by Prof. Ratliff)
- will start Module 2

# EE445 Mod1-Lec2: Linear Algebra V

## References:

- [VMLS]: Chapter 11
- [OM] by Calafiore & El-Ghaoui: 3.3

# Inverse of $A$

- if matrix  $A$  has both a left-inverse and a right-inverse, they are unique and equal
  - ▶  $A$  must be square
  - ▶ we say  $A$  is *invertible* or non-singular ( $\det(A) \neq 0$ )

- to see this: if  $AX = I$  and  $YA = I$ ,

$$X = \underbrace{(YA)}_I X = Y \underbrace{(AX)}_I = Y$$

- inverse of product:  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

(intuitively, order is reversed since we're reversing the role of input & output, or row & column)

# Inverse of $A$

- for a square matrix  $A$ , the following are equivalent:
  - ▶  $A$  is invertible
  - ▶ columns of  $A$  are linearly independent
  - ▶ rows of  $A$  are linearly independent

- examples:

- ▶ if  $Q$  is square with  $Q^T Q = I$ , then  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
- ▶ for a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A$  with  $\det(A) = \underline{A_{11}A_{22} - A_{21}A_{12}} \neq 0$ ,

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Inverse via QR factorization

$$A = QR = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \times & & \\ & \times & \\ 0 & & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

$n \times n$                        $n \times n$                        $n \times n$

- if  $A$  is invertible,  $Ax = b$  has the unique solution  $x = A^{-1}b$  for any  $b$
- if  $A = QR$ , the inverse is given by

$$\underline{A^{-1}} = (QR)^{-1} = R^{-1}Q^{-1} = R^{-1}Q^T$$

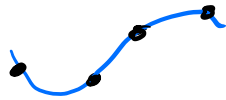
$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= b \\ QRx &= b \\ Rx &= Q^T b \end{aligned}$$

- easy way to solve for  $x$ :
  1. compute the QR factorization  $A = QR$
  2. compute  $Q^T b$
  3. solve the triangular equation  $Rx = Q^T b$  using back-substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & & \\ & \times & \\ 0 & & \times \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = Q^T b$$

- solve starting from last row  $\Rightarrow x_n$   
- then move up to solve for  $x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1$

# Ex: polynomial interpolation



let's find coefficients of polynomial  $p(x) = \underline{c_1} + \underline{c_2}x + \underline{c_3}x^2 + \underline{c_4}x^3$  that satisfies

$$p(-1.1) = b_1, \quad p(-0.4) = b_2, \quad p(0.1) = b_3, \quad p(0.8) = b_4$$

write as  $Ac = b$  with

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & (-1.1) & (-1.1)^2 & (-1.1)^3 \\ 1 & (-0.4) & (-0.4)^2 & (-0.4)^3 \\ 1 & (0.1) & ( )^2 & ( )^3 \\ 1 & (0.8) & ( )^2 & ( )^3 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Ex: polynomial interpolation

Vandermonde matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & \dots & t_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 & \dots & t_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 & \dots & t_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} \quad \text{assume } t_i \neq t_j \text{ for } i \neq j$$

we show  $A$  is invertible, by showing if  $Ay = 0$  then  $y = 0$

- $Ay = 0$  means  $p(t_1) = \dots = p(t_n) = 0$  where  $p(t)$  is polynomial of degree  $n - 1$  or less:

$$p(t) = \underline{y_1} + \underline{y_2}t + \underline{y_3}t^2 + \dots + \underline{y_n}t^{n-1}$$

- if  $y \neq 0$ ,  $p(t)$  cannot have more than  $n - 1$  distinct real roots
- so  $p(t_1) = \dots = p(t_n) = 0$  only possible if  $y = 0$

# Ex: polynomial interpolation

- coefficients given by  $c = A^{-1}b$  with

*$i^{\text{th}}$  row coeff's show how  $c_i$  depends on  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  - small coeff means  $c_i$  is not very sensitive*

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.0370 & 0.3492 & 0.7521 & -0.0643 \\ 0.1388 & -1.8651 & 1.6239 & 0.1023 \\ 0.3470 & 0.1984 & -1.4957 & 0.9503 \\ -0.5784 & 1.9841 & -2.1368 & 0.7310 \end{bmatrix}$$

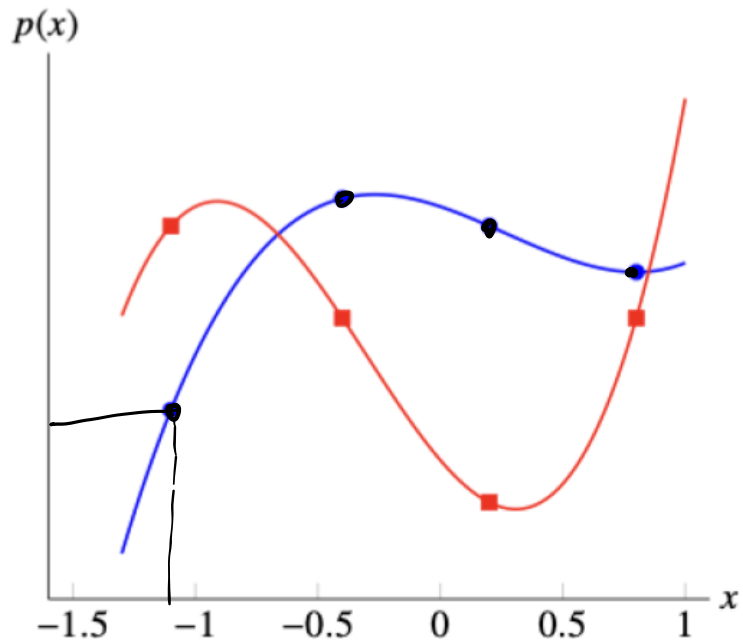
- observe, e.g.,  $c_1$  is not very sensitive to  $b_1$  or  $b_4$   $\leadsto$  because  $(A^{-1})_{11}$  and  $(A^{-1})_{14}$  are small
- first col gives coeffs of polynomial that satisfies

$$p(-1.1) = 1, \quad p(-0.4) = 0, \quad p(0.1) = 0, \quad p(0.8) = 0$$

called (first) *Lagrange polynomial*

$$A^{-1}e_1 = a_1 \Rightarrow Aa_1 = e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

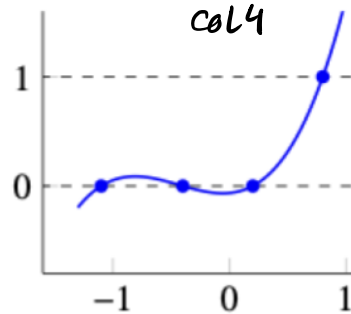
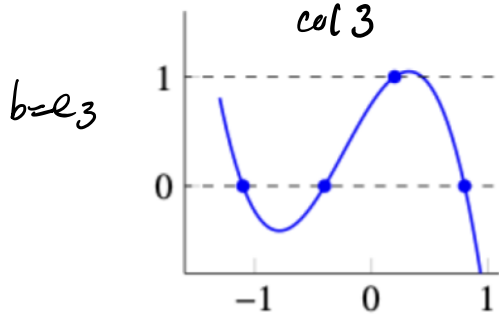
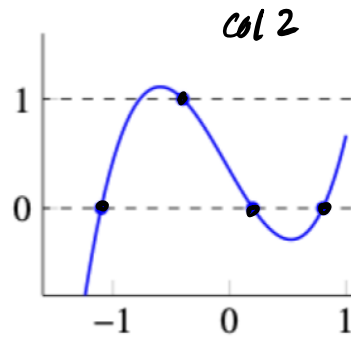
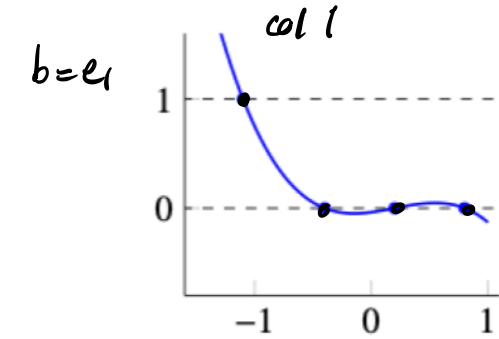
# Example





# Lagrange polynomials

Lagrange polynomials corresponding to points -1.1, -0.4, 0.2, 0.8



# Invertibility of Gram matrix

↪  $Ax=0$  only if  $x=0$

$A$  has linearly independent columns if and only if  $A^T A$  (Gram matrix of  $A$ ) is invertible

- to see this, we'll show  $Ax = 0 \Leftrightarrow A^T Ax = 0$
- $\Rightarrow$ : if  $Ax = 0$  then  $(A^T A)x = A^T(Ax) = A^T 0 = 0$
- $\Leftarrow$ : if  $(A^T A)x = 0$  then

$$0 = x^T \underbrace{(A^T A)}_{=0} x = \underbrace{(Ax)^T}_{(Ax)^T} (Ax) = \|Ax\|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow Ax=0$$
$$\underbrace{(x^T A^T)}_{(Ax)^T} (Ax)$$

# Pseudo-inverse of tall matrix

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{ } \\ \hline \end{array} \right]_{m \times n} = QR \quad \begin{array}{l} m \times n \\ n \times n \end{array}$$

- for  $A$  with linearly independent cols, the pseudo-inverse is

$$A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$$

*dagger*

- it is a left-inverse of  $A$ :

$$A^\dagger A = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T A = I$$

- reduces to  $A^{-1}$  when  $A$  is square  $\longrightarrow A^\dagger = A^{-1} \underbrace{A^{-T} A^T}_{=I} = A^{-1}$
- in terms of QR factorization:  $A^\dagger = R^{-1} Q^T$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} Q \\ R \end{bmatrix}$$

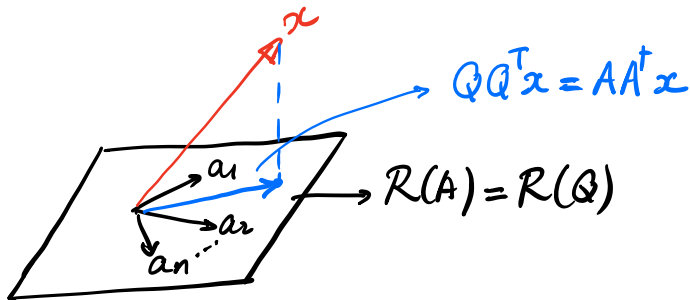
## Projection on range

- for  $A$  with linearly independent cols, combining  $A = QR$  and  $A^\dagger = R^{-1}Q^T$  gives

$$AA^\dagger = QRR^{-1}Q^T = QQ^T = \begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$

(note order of product in  $AA^\dagger$  and difference with  $A^\dagger A = I$ )

- $QQ^T x$  gives the orthogonal projection of  $x$  on the range of  $Q$  (we'll see more in Module 3):



# Pseudo-inverse of wide matrix

- similarly, if  $A$  is wide, with linearly independent rows,  $AA^T$  is invertible. pseudo-inverse is defined as

$$A^\dagger = A^T(AA^T)^{-1}$$

- it is a right-inverse of  $A$  (can check)
- reduces to  $A^{-1}$  when  $A$  is square

# Pseudo-inverse of a general matrix

$$A_{m \times n} = B_{m \times r} C_{r \times n}$$

suppose  $A$  is  $m \times n$  with rank  $r$  ( $r < \min\{m, n\}$ ), so has a factorization  $A = BC$

- $B$  is  $m \times r$  with linearly independent columns, its pseudo-inverse is:

$$\underline{B^\dagger = (B^T B)^{-1} B^T}$$

- $C$  is  $r \times n$  with linearly independent rows, its pseudo-inverse is:

$$\underline{C^\dagger = C^T (C C^T)^{-1}}$$

we define the pseudo-inverse of  $A$  as

$$A^\dagger = C^\dagger B^\dagger \quad A^\dagger = (BC)^\dagger = C^\dagger B^\dagger$$

- extends def of pseudo-inverse to non-full-rank matrices. also known as *Moore-Penrose (generalized) inverse*.
- (later, we'll also give expression in terms of SVD...)

# Ex: psuedo-inverse of diagonal matrix

- rank of diagonal matrix = # of nonzero diagonal entries
- $A^\dagger$  is a diagonal matrix with

$$(A^\dagger)_{ii} = \begin{cases} 1/A_{ii} & \text{if } A_{ii} \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } A_{ii} = 0 \end{cases}$$

example:

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

# Meaning of $AA^\dagger$ and $A^\dagger A$

if  $A$  does not have full rank,  $A^\dagger$  is not a left or right inverse

$$A_{m \times n} = B_{m \times r} C_{r \times n}$$

$r = \text{rank}(A)$

- interpretation of  $AA^\dagger$ :

$$AA^\dagger = \underbrace{B}_{=I} \underbrace{C^\dagger B^\dagger}_{=I} = BB^\dagger = B(B^T B)^{-1} B^T$$

- $BB^\dagger$  gives the orthogonal projection on  $\mathcal{R}(B)$  (and  $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(B)$ )
- interpretation of  $A^\dagger A$ :

$$A^\dagger A = C^\dagger \underbrace{B^\dagger B}_{=I} C = C^\dagger C = C^T (C C^T)^{-1} C$$

- orthogonal projection onto  $\mathcal{R}(A^T) = \mathcal{R}(C^T)$



# Eigenvalues & eigenvectors

a nonzero vector  $x$  is an eigenvector of the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , if

$$Ax = \lambda x \quad (A - \lambda I)x = 0$$

- the matrix  $\lambda I - A$  is singular,  $x$  is a (nonzero) vector in  $\mathcal{N}(\lambda I - A)$
- the eigenvalues of  $A$  are the roots of the characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = \lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + c_1\lambda + (-1)^n \det(A) = 0$$

- the polynomial roots (and eigenvectors) may be complex
- there are exactly  $n$  eigenvalues (counted with their multiplicity)
- set of eigenvalues called the *spectrum* of  $A$

# Similarity transform

two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are *similar* if  $B = T^{-1}AT$  for some nonsingular matrix  $T$  also known as 'coordinate change' matrix

- similarity transforms preserve eigenvalues:

$$\det(\lambda I - B) = \det(\lambda I - \underbrace{T^{-1}T}_{I} T^{-1}AT) = \det(T^{-1}(\lambda I - A)T) = \det(\lambda I - A)$$

$$\det(ABC) = \det(CAB)$$

↳ a property of det

- if  $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  then  $y = T^{-1}x$  is an eigenvector of  $B$ :

$$By = (T^{-1}AT)(T^{-1}x) = T^{-1}Ax = T^{-1}(\lambda x) = \lambda y$$

↖ scalar

special interest will be orthogonal similarity transforms

$$T^{-1} = (T)^T$$

# Diagonalizable matrices

- a matrix is diagonalizable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix:

$$T^{-1}AT = \Lambda$$

for some nonsingular matrix  $T$

- diagonal entries of  $\Lambda$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$
- cols of  $T$  are eigenvectors of  $A$ :

$$A(Te_i) = T\Lambda e_i = \Lambda_{ii}(Te_i)$$

- cols of  $T$  give  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors
- (not all square matrices are diagonalizable)

# Spectral decomposition

suppose  $A$  is diagonalizable, with

$$\begin{aligned} A = T^{-1}\Lambda T &= \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1^T \\ w_2^T \\ \vdots \\ w_n^T \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \lambda_1 v_1 w_1^T + \lambda_2 v_2 w_2^T + \dots + \lambda_n v_n w_n^T \end{aligned}$$

this is a spectral decomposition of the linear function  $f(x) = Ax$

- entries of  $T^{-1}x$  are coeffs of  $x$  in the eigenvector basis  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ :

$$x = TT^{-1}x = (w_1^T x)v_1 + \dots + \cancel{w_n^T x} + (w_n^T x)v_n$$

- by superposition for  $f(x) = Ax$ ,  $Ax = (w_1^T x)\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + (w_n^T x)\lambda_n v_n = T\Lambda T^{-1}x$

# Ex: Google PageRank

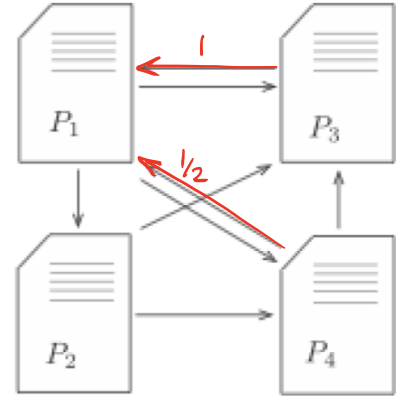
- ranks page importance (for display order)

- nodes: pages
- edges: directed link from  $k_1$  to  $k_2$ , if page  $k_1$  contains a link to  $k_2$

[OM, example 3.5]

- say web is composed of  $n$  pages, labeled with  $j = 1, \dots, n$ , and model as a directed graph.
- denote by  $x_j$  the importance score (or "voting power") of page  $j$ , to be evenly divided among outgoing links from node  $j$ :  $x_j/n_j$
- let  $B_k$  be set of "backlinks" for page  $k$  (pages point to  $k$ ). score of page  $k$  is:

$$x_k = \sum_{j_k \in B_k} \frac{x_j}{n_j}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n$$



$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x_3 + \frac{1}{2}x_4 \\ x_2 = \frac{1}{3}x_1 \\ x_3 = \frac{1}{3}x_1 + \frac{1}{2}x_2 + \frac{1}{2}x_4 \\ x_4 = \frac{1}{3}x_1 + \frac{1}{2}x_2 \end{cases}$$

# Ex: Google PageRank

$\nearrow$  # of outgoing edges from page

- in figure, we have  $n_1 = 3$ ,  $n_2 = 2$ ,  $n_3 = 1$ ,  $n_4 = 2$ , hence we get system of linear eq's:

$$x = Ax, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1/2 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $A$  is called *link matrix*.  $x$  is eigenvector of  $A$  associated with  $\lambda = 1$
- here we get

$$x = v_1 = (12, 4, 9, 6)$$

- thus page 1 appears to be the most relevant according to PageRank scoring (larger score)
- real-world challenge: computing  $v_1$  for a HUGE matrix...