















Review of MATRIX OPERATIONS

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction
- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

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(1) Transpose

Transpose: You can think of it as – "flipping" the rows and columns

e.g.
$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$
• $(A^{T})^{T} = A$
• $(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$
• $(A+B)^{T} = A^{T} + B^{T}$





OPERATION on MATRIX

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction
- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
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(3) Products of Matrices

- In order to multiply matrices, they must be conformable (the number of columns in the premultiplier must equal the number of rows in postmultiplier)
- Note that
 - an $(m \times n) \times (n \times p) = (m \times p)$
 - an (m x n) x (p x n) = cannot be done
 - $a(1 \times n) \times (n \times 1) = a \text{ scalar } (1 \times 1)$





Some Properties of Matrix Multiplication

- Note that
 - Even if conformable, **AB** does not necessarily equal **BA** (i.e., matrix multiplication is *not commutative*)
 - Matrix multiplication can be extended beyond two matrices
 - matrix multiplication is associative, i.e.,
 A(BC) = (AB)C





containing the products of each pair of elements from the two matrices (called the *outer product*) - If

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$

then **ab^T** gives us

$$\mathbf{ab}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3\\ 4\\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 & 6 & 24\\ 20 & 8 & 32\\ 30 & 12 & 48 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

Outer Product of two Vectors, e.g. a special case :

As an example of how the outer product can be useful, let $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denote an *n*-dimensional vector whose entries are all equal to 1. Furthermore, consider the matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ whose columns are all equal to some vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Using outer products, we can represent A compactly as,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ x & x & \cdots & x \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_1 & \cdots & x_1 \\ x_2 & x_2 & \cdots & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m & x_m & \cdots & x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = x \mathbf{1}^T.$$

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

• Sum the Squared Elements of a Vector

Premultiply a column vector **a** by its transpose
 If

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\ 8\end{bmatrix}$$

then premultiplication by a row vector \mathbf{a}^{T}

$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 5 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right]$

will yield the sum of the squared values of elements for **a**, i.e.

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 8 \\ 5 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 8 \\ 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 8 \\ 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 2 & 8 \\ 6 & 1 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 2 & 8 & 8 \\ 6 & 1 & 5 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

• Matrix-Vector Products (I)

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

If we write A by rows, then we can express Ax as,

$$y = Ax = egin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \ - & a_2^T & - \ & \vdots & \ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} x = egin{bmatrix} a_1^Tx \ a_2^Tx \ \vdots \ a_m^Tx \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

• Matrix-Vector Products (II)

Alternatively, let's write A in column form. In this case we see that,

$$y = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ x_1 + \begin{bmatrix} a_2 \\ x_2 + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} x_n .$$

In other words, y is a *linear combination* of the *columns* of A, where the coefficients of the linear combination are given by the entries of x.

Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

• Matrix-Vector Products (III)

to multiply on the left by a row vector. This is written, $y^T = x^T A$ for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$y^{T} = x^{T}A = x^{T} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ a_{1} & a_{2} & \cdots & a_{n} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^{T}a_{1} & x^{T}a_{2} & \cdots & x^{T}a_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

which demonstrates that the *i*th entry of y^T is equal to the inner product of x and the *i*th column of A.

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

• Matrix-Vector Products (IV)

so we see that y^T is a linear combination of the *rows* of A, where the coefficients for the linear combination are given by the entries of x.

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(4) Vector norms

A norm of a vector ||x|| is informally a measure of the "length" of the vector.

$$||x||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

– Common norms: L₁, L₂ (Euclidean)

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \qquad \|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

- L_{infinity}

 $||x||_{\infty} = \max_i |x_i|$

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More General : Norm

 A norm is any function g() that maps vectors to real numbers that satisfies the following conditions:

- Non-negativity: for all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $g(\boldsymbol{x}) \geq 0$
- Strictly positive: for all $\boldsymbol{x}, g(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0$ implies that $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- Homogeneity: for all x and a, g(ax) = |a| g(x), where |a| is the absolute value.
- Triangle inequality: for all $x, y, g(x + y) \le g(x) + g(y)$

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Vector	Norm (L2, whe	n p=2)	
	• •		•	
	• •	• •	•	
$\left\ \left(\begin{array}{c} 1\\ 2 \end{array} \right) \right\ _{2}$	$=\sqrt{1^2+2^2}=\sqrt{2}$	/5	5	42



Orthonormal matrices

• A is orthonormal if:

(1) $u_k \cdot u_k = 1$ or $||u_k|| = 1$, for every *k*

(2) $u_j \cdot u_k = 0$, for every $j \neq k$ (u_j is perpendicular to u_k)

• Note that if A is orthonormal, it easy to find its inverse:

$$AA^T = A^T A = I \quad (i.e., A^{-1} = A^T)$$

Property: ||Av|| = ||v|| (does not change the magnitude of v)

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(5) Inverse of a Matrix

- The inverse of a matrix A is commonly denoted by A⁻¹ or inv A.
- The inverse of an *n x n* matrix **A** is the matrix
 A⁻¹ such that **AA**⁻¹ = **I** = **A**⁻¹**A**
- The matrix inverse is analogous to a scalar reciprocal
- A matrix which has an inverse is called *nonsingular*

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(5) Inverse of a Matrix

- For some *n x n* matrix **A**, an inverse matrix **A**⁻¹ may not exist.
- A matrix which does not have an inverse is singular.
- An inverse of $n \times n$ matrix **A** exists iff $|\mathbf{A}| \boxtimes 0$

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THE DETERMINANT OF A MATRIX

◆The determinant of a matrix A is denoted by |A| (or det(A)).

 Determinants exist only for square matrices.

$$\blacklozenge \text{E.g. If A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \mathbf{a}_{11}\mathbf{a}_{22} - \mathbf{a}_{12}\mathbf{a}_{21}$$

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THE DETERMINANT OF A MATRIX

2 x 2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$$

3 x 3

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{21} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{31} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix}$$

n x n

$$det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} (-1)^{j+k} a_{jk} det(A_{jk}), \text{ for any } k: 1 \le k \le m$$
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det(AB) = det(A)det(B) $det(A + B) \neq det(A) + det(B)$

diagonal matrix: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & . & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & . & 0 \\ . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . \\ 0 & 0 & . & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$, then $det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$

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♦ If
A = $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and |A| ≥ 0
A⁻¹ = $\frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$



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$$A^+A = I$$
 (provided that $(A^TA)^{-1}$ exists)

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(6) Rank: Linear independence

• A set of vectors is linearly independent if none of them can be written as a linear combination of the others.

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\1\\5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\-3\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x3 = -2x1 + x2$$

→ NOT linearly independent



(6) Rank of a Matrix

• Equal to the dimension of the largest square sub-matrix of *A* that has a non-zero determinant

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & 2 & 14 \\ 3 & 9 & 6 & 21 \\ 8 & 10 & 7 & 28 \\ 1 & 2 & 9 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 has rank 3

$$det(A) = 0, \text{ but } det\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 9 & 6 \\ 8 & 10 & 7 \end{pmatrix} = 63 \neq 0$$

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(6) Rank and singular matrices

If A is nxn, rank(A) = n iff A is nonsingular (i.e., invertible).

If A is nxn, rank(A) = n iff $det(A) \neq 0$ (full rank).

If A is nxn, rank(A) < n iff A is singular

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Some important rules for taking derivatives

- Scalar multiplication: $\partial_x[af(x)] = a[\partial_x f(x)]$
- Polynomials: $\partial_x[x^k] = kx^{k-1}$
- Function addition: $\partial_x [f(x) + g(x)] = [\partial_x f(x)] + [\partial_x g(x)]$
- Function multiplication: $\partial_x [f(x)g(x)] = f(x)[\partial_x g(x)] + [\partial_x f(x)]g(x)$
- Function division: $\partial_x \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{[\partial_x f(x)]g(x) f(x)[\partial_x g(x)]}{[g(x)]^2}$
- Function composition: $\partial_x [f(g(x))] = [\partial_x g(x)][\partial_x f](g(x))$
- Exponentiation: $\partial_x[e^x] = e^x$ and $\partial_x[a^x] = \log(a)e^x$
- Logarithms: $\partial_x[\log x] = \frac{1}{x}$





Even more general Matrix Calculus: Types of Matrix Derivatives

	Scalar	Vector	Matrix
Scalar	$rac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{y}}{\mathrm{d}x} = \left[\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x}\right]$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{Y}}{\mathrm{d}x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y_{ij}}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}$
Vector	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j} \end{bmatrix}$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{y}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \left[\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_j}\right]$	
Matrix	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{ji}} \end{bmatrix}$		

By Thomas Minka. Old and New Matrix Algebra Useful for Statistics

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Review: Hessian Matrix / n==2 case



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Review: Hessian Matrix

Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function that takes a vector in \mathbb{R}^n and returns a real number. Then the **Hessian** matrix with respect to x, written $\nabla_x^2 f(x)$ or simply as H is the $n \times n$ matrix of partial derivatives,

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Today Recap

Data Representation

Linear Algebra and Matrix Calculus Review

References
http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~zkolter/course/linalg/ index.html
Prof. James J. Cochran's tutorial slides "Matrix Algebra Primer II"
<u>http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~aarti/Class/10701/</u> recitation/LinearAlgebra Matlab Review.ppt
Prof. Alexander Gray's slides
Prof. George Bebis' slides
Prof. Hal Daum e III' notes
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