

Ex 1

$\text{rank}(A) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) \Rightarrow$ the dimension of $\mathcal{R}(A)$ is less than n . Or possibly more.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{R}(A) &= \{ y = Ax : x \in \mathbb{R}^n \} \\ &= \text{span}(\{a_1, \dots, a_n\})\end{aligned}$$

So the range of A is what can be built from the columns of A . Hence, $\text{rank}(A) < n$ means the columns of A are linearly dependent. It also means that there are vectors in \mathbb{R}^m that cannot be built from the columns of A , even when $m = n$.

Ex 2

Following pg. 3.24, we let $B^T = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ b_1 & \dots & b_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}$ and $A^T = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1^T - \\ \vdots \\ -a_n^T - \end{bmatrix}$
so that $p \times n$ $n \times m$

$$B^T A^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & \dots & b_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T \\ \vdots \\ a_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i a_i^T$$

Examining the j th column, we get

$$(B^T A^T)_{:j} = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{b_i}_{\text{vector}} \underbrace{a_{ij}}_{\text{scalar}}, \text{ which is a linear combination of the columns of } B^T \Leftrightarrow \text{of the rows of } B.$$

Ex 3

From pg. 3.24, we know that for $K=2$, $\text{rank}(A_1 A_2) \leq \min(\text{rank}(A_1), \text{rank}(A_2))$.

This can serve as the base case for an inductive proof. Now

assume

$$\text{rank}\left(\prod_{k=1}^{K-1} A_k\right) \leq \min\left\{\text{rank}(A_k)\right\}_{k=1}^{K-1}. \quad (\text{inductive hypothesis})$$

Let $B = \prod_{k=1}^{K-1} A_k$. Then

$$\text{rank}(BA_K) \leq \min(\text{rank}(B), \text{rank}(A_K)) \quad (\text{by base case})$$

$$\leq \min\left(\left\{\text{rank}(A_k)\right\}_{k=1}^{K-1}, \text{rank}(A_K)\right)$$

$$= \min\left\{\text{rank}(A_k)\right\}_{k=1}^K.$$

Ex 4

Since x, y are vectors, $\text{rank}(x) = 1$ and $\text{rank}(y) = 1 = \text{rank}(y^T)$. Therefore

$$\text{rank}(xy^T) \leq \text{rank}(x) \text{rank}(y^T) = 1.$$

Unless $x^T y = 0$, we still have $\text{rank}(xy^T) = 1$ even though all eigenvalues are 0, as we showed in HW1.

Ex 5

Unitary matrices are "like" rotation matrices, so they can be interpreted as a change of basis for the vectors/subspace. Changing the axes that define a vector does not change what vectors can be built.

Ex 6

We'll show a stronger statement, which is that $\mathcal{R}(AQ) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

Since these are two sets, to show equality we show that

$\mathcal{R}(AQ) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$ and $\mathcal{R}(A) \subset \mathcal{R}(AQ)$. First take $y \in \mathcal{R}(AQ)$.

We want to show $y \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ to prove $\mathcal{R}(AQ) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$.

$$\begin{aligned} y \in \mathcal{R}(AQ) &\Rightarrow y = AQx \quad \text{for some } x \\ &= Av \quad \text{for } v = Qx \end{aligned}$$

but $Av \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ by definition. Next show $\mathcal{R}(A) \subset \mathcal{R}(AQ)$ by taking an arbitrary $y \in \mathcal{R}(A)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} y &= Ax \\ &= AQQ^T x \quad \text{since } QQ^T = I \\ &= AQw \quad \text{for } w = Q^T x \end{aligned}$$

but $AQw \in \mathcal{R}(AQ)$ by definition, which completes the proof.

Ex 7

$\mathcal{R}^\perp(A) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y \perp Ax \text{ for any } x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ so y has size m .

$\mathcal{N}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = 0\}$ so x has size n .

We can only compute $x^T y$ if $m=n$ (i.e., if A is square), but even if this is the case, we cannot say anything about $x^T y$ in general.

Ex 8

Recall $S^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle s, v \rangle = 0 \ \forall s \in S\}$. Thus

$$\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v^T x = 0 \ \forall x \in \mathcal{N}(A)\}$$

which implies $x_0^T x_1 = 0$. Similarly, $y_0^T y_1 = 0$.

Ex 9

$\mathcal{R}^\perp(A) \subset \mathcal{N}(A^T)$: Take $x \in \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$. Then $x^T A y = 0 \ \forall y$, and $(A^T x)^T y = 0 \ \forall y$,

which can only hold if $A^T x = 0$, so $x \in \mathcal{N}(A^T)$.

$\mathcal{N}(A^T) \subset \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$: Take $x \in \mathcal{N}(A^T)$, so that $A^T x = 0$. Then $y^T (A^T x) = 0$

for all y , which implies

$$(y^T A^T) x = 0 \Leftrightarrow (A y)^T x = 0 \ \forall y$$

so x is orthogonal to anything in $\mathcal{R}(A)$, meaning $x \in \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$.

Ex 10

Recall the four fundamental subspaces are $\mathcal{R}(A)$, $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$, $\mathcal{N}(A)$, and $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A)$.

Let $\text{rank}(A) = r$. Then the SVD is broken down as

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} U_r & U_o \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_r^T \\ V_o^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$U_r = \text{basis for } \mathcal{R}(A)$

$V_r = \text{basis for } \mathcal{N}^\perp(A)$

$U_o = \text{basis for } \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$

$V_o = \text{basis for } \mathcal{N}(A)$

Ex 11

For $\text{range}(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$, A must have m linearly independent columns. This implies $n \geq m$. If $n < m$, some columns of A are linearly dependent.

Ex 12

For the full SVD, the matrices U and V are square and orthogonal, while Σ is diagonal. For the thin SVD, U_r and V_r are tall with orthonormal columns (but not orthonormal rows in general), and Σ_r is square. Both are always valid ways to write a matrix.

Ex 13

Let A be size $m \times n$. Similar to the above, we get

$$UU^T = U^T U = I_m$$

$$U_r^T U_r = I_r$$

$$U_r U_r^T = ?? \quad (\text{projection matrix onto } \mathcal{R}(A) - \text{discussed next week})$$

Ex 14

$$\begin{aligned} \|U_r U_r^T x\|_2^2 &= (U_r U_r^T x)^T (U_r U_r^T x) \\ &= x^T \underbrace{U_r U_r^T U_r U_r^T}_{I_r} x \\ &= x^T U_r U_r^T x \\ &= \|U_r^T x\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

So $\|U_r^T x\| = \|U_r U_r^T x\|$. Unfortunately, $\|U_r^T x\| \neq \|x\|$ in general.

Ex 15

Following 3.42, $z^T z$ is the only nonzero eigenvalue of A and has corresponding eigenvector z . Therefore, normalizing z , we get

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \lambda_1 q_1 q_1^T = (z^T z) \frac{z}{\|z\|} \frac{z^T}{\|z\|} \\ &= \|z\|^2 \frac{z z^T}{\|z\|^2} = z z^T \quad \leftarrow \text{this line is a sanity check} \end{aligned}$$

Ex 16

Check: All eigenvectors and singular vectors have unit norm, singular values are nonnegative, and $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ or $A = U\Sigma V^T$. \Rightarrow on your own $\ddot{\circ}$

Ex 17

$$y = Ax = U\Sigma V^T x = U_r \Sigma_r V_r^T x = U_r (\Sigma_r V_r^T x)$$

We can either think of the coordinates as elements of the vector $\Sigma_r V_r^T x$ or as elements of $V_r^T x$ with gains defined by Σ_r . The latter is a more intuitive description. See pg. 3.45.