

## A. LINEAR ALGEBRA. CONVEX SETS

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# 1. Matrices and vectors

The elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  are called scalars.

An  $m \times n$  **matrix**  $\mathbf{A}$  is a rectangular array of scalars:

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

If a matrix has just one column,  $m \times 1$ , it is said to be a column vector.

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{pmatrix}$$

## 1.1 Matrix operations

### Addition of matrices

Given matrices  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\mathbf{B} = (b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , the **addition** of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , denoted by  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ , is the matrix  $\mathbf{C} = (c_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  obtained by performing the addition **componentwise**:

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

### Properties

1. The addition of matrices is an **inner operation**.

$$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

2. The addition of matrices is **commutative**.

$$\forall \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}.$$

3. The addition of matrices is **associative**.

$$\forall \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}).$$

4. There exists a **neutral element** for the addition.

$$\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

5. There exist **opposite elements** for the addition.

$$\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{A}) = (-\mathbf{A}) + \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0},$$

where  $-\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .

## Scalar multiplication

Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar and  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  a matrix. The operation of **multiplying**  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $\alpha$ , is represented by  $\alpha \cdot \mathbf{A}$  and is performed by multiplying every element of  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $\alpha$ . The result is a matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = (b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

where

$$b_{ij} = \alpha \cdot a_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

## Inner product

The multiplication of a row vector  $\mathbf{a}^T$  and a column vector  $\mathbf{b}$  is called the **inner product** of the two vectors, and is denoted by  $\mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{b}$ . The result of this multiplication is a real number, and it is obtained in the following way:

$$\mathbf{a}^T = (a_1 \ \cdots \ a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

$$\mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{b} = (a_1 \ \cdots \ a_n) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot b_i.$$

## Matrix multiplication

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix and  $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  an  $n \times p$  matrix.

The **product**  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}$  is defined as the  $m \times p$  matrix  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ , where the entry  $(i, j)$  in  $\mathbf{C}$  is the inner product of the  $i$ th row of  $\mathbf{A}$  and the  $j$ th column of  $\mathbf{B}$ .

## Properties

1. It is associative.  $\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \forall \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, \forall \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$

$$(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}).$$

2. It is distributive with respect to the sum.

$$\forall \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \forall \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, \quad (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}.$$

$$\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \forall \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, \quad \mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}.$$

3.  $\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{0}_{n \times p} = \mathbf{0}_{m \times p}, \quad \mathbf{0}_{q \times m} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}_{q \times n}.$

4.  $\forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad \mathbf{I}_m \cdot \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{A}.$

5.  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \forall \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \forall \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p},$

$$\alpha \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\alpha \cdot \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\alpha \cdot \mathbf{B}).$$

## 1.2 The rank of a matrix

**Definition 1** Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be a matrix, and let  $\mathbf{U}$  be the resulting matrix after performing Gaussian elimination. The *rank of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$*  is denoted by  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A}$  and is equal to the *number of pivot elements* of matrix  $\mathbf{U}$ .

## 2. Systems of linear equations

Let us consider a *system* with  $m$  *linear equations* of  $n$  variables

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b},$$

where  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = r$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . We shall solve the system by performing Gaussian elimination.

The following cases may arise:

- \*  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} \neq \text{rank } (\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{b})$ . The system has no solution. It is inconsistent.
- \*  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = \text{rank } (\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{b}) = r$ . There exists at least one solution to the system. It is consistent.
  - \*  $r = \text{number of variables}$ . There exists a unique (one and only one) solution.
  - \*  $r < \text{number of variables}$ . There exists an infinite number of solutions.

## 2.1. Basic solutions

Let  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  be a system, where  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $m < n$ , and  $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = \text{rank } (\mathbf{A} \ \mathbf{b}) = m$ .

Assume that the first  $m$  columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  are **linearly independent**. Let  $\mathbf{B}$  be the  $m \times m$  **submatrix** of  $\mathbf{A}$  formed by its first  $m$  columns. Let  $\mathbf{N}$  denote the last  $n - m$  columns of  $\mathbf{A}$ . We can write the system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  in the following way:

$$(\mathbf{B} \ \mathbf{N}) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_B \\ \mathbf{x}_N \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b},$$

or

$$\mathbf{Bx}_B + \mathbf{Nx}_N = \mathbf{b}.$$

Variables in  $\mathbf{x}_B$ : **basic variables**.

Variables in  $\mathbf{x}_N$ : **nonbasic variables**.

$$\mathbf{Bx}_B = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Nx}_N.$$

Setting all the nonbasic variables equal to zero,  $\mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{0}$ , we obtain a system whose solution is unique:

$$\mathbf{Bx}_B = \mathbf{b}.$$

The solution thus calculated is called a **basic solution** of the system.

The maximum number of basic solutions:

$$\binom{n}{m} = \frac{n!}{m! (n - m)!}$$

### 3. Vector spaces

**Definition 2 (Linear combination)** A *linear combination* of vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is:

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n,$$

where  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$  are real numbers.

#### 3.1 Linear dependence and independence

**Definition 3** The vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are said to be *linearly independent* if for every linear combination such that

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

it implies that  $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$ .

**Definition 4** The vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are said to be *linearly dependent* if there exist  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$  *not all of them zero*, such that  $\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$ . Obviously, they are not linearly independent.



## 3.2 Basis and dimension

**Definition 5** A set of vectors  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  is said to be a **spanning set** of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  if every vector  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  can be represented as a linear combination of the vectors in  $S$ , that is, if there exist  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_p \mathbf{v}_p.$$

**Definition 6** A collection  $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  of vectors forms a **basis** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  if the following conditions hold:

- The vectors of  $B$  are **linearly independent**.
- $B$  is a **spanning set** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

There are infinite bases in a vector space. However, all of them contain the same number of vectors. This number is the **dimension** of the vector space.

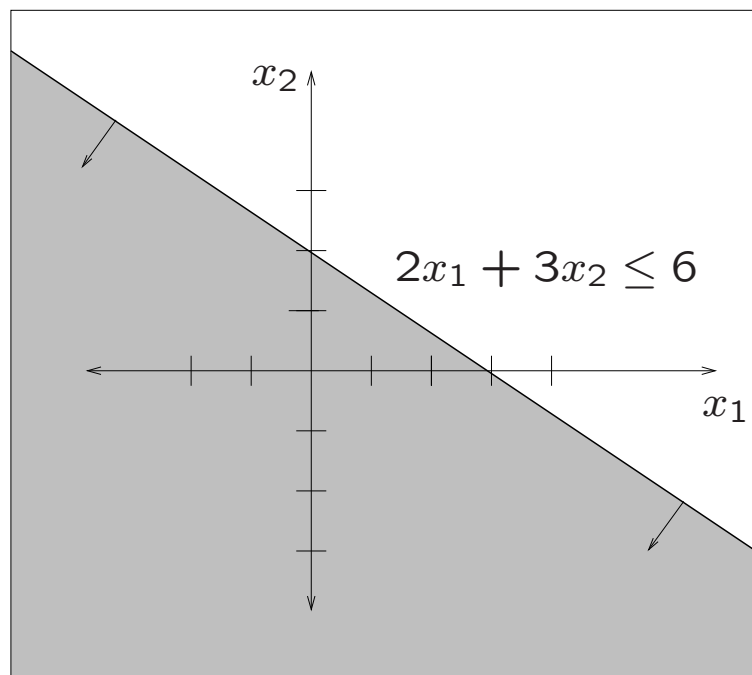
**Theorem 1** Let  $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\}$  be a basis in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Then, every vector  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  can be expressed as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m$ , and the coefficients of that linear combination are unique.

**Theorem 2** Given a basis  $B$  for  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and a vector  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathbf{v} \notin B$  and  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , it is always possible to form another basis, by replacing a vector in  $B$  by the vector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

## 4. Convex sets

An equation of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = c$ , where  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$  and  $c$  are constants, represents a **straight line** in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

An inequality of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 \leq c$  is the set of all points lying on the line  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = c$ , together with all those points lying to one side of the line.



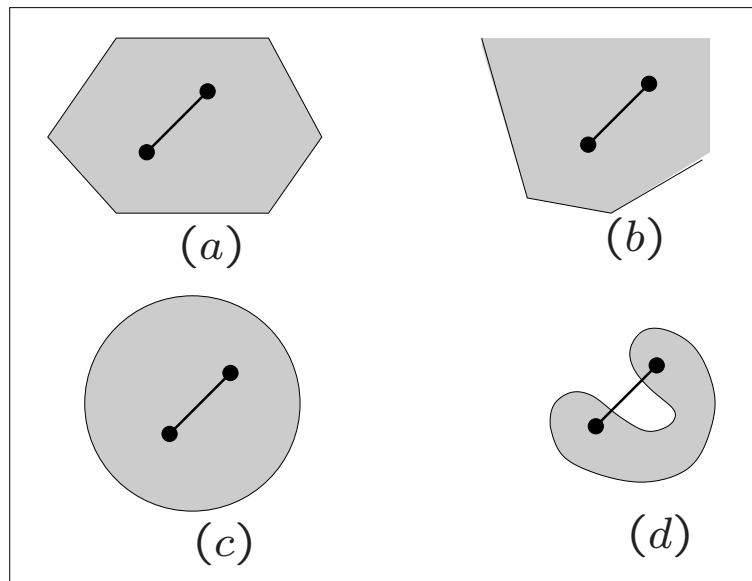
A **half-space** of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is the set of all points of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  which satisfies an inequality of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 \leq c$  or  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 \geq c$ , where at least one of the constants  $a_1$  or  $a_2$  is nonzero.

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  the equation  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = c$ , where  $a_1, \dots, a_n, c \in \mathbb{R}$  are constants, represents a **hyperplane**.

A **half-space** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all points which satisfies an inequality of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n \leq c$  or  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n \geq c$ .

**Definition 7** A subset  $C$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a **convex set** if  $C$  is empty, if  $C$  contains a single point, or if for every two distinct points in  $C$ , the line segment connecting them lies entirely in  $C$ .

The sets (a), (b) and (c) in the Figure are convex, (d) is not convex.



The following results can be proved: (1) A hyperplane is a convex set. (2) A half-space is a convex set. (3) The intersection of a finite number of convex sets is a convex set.

In linear programming, convex sets such as **hyperplanes**, **half-spaces** and the **intersection of a finite number of convex sets** are of special significance, because they appear in the study of linear models.

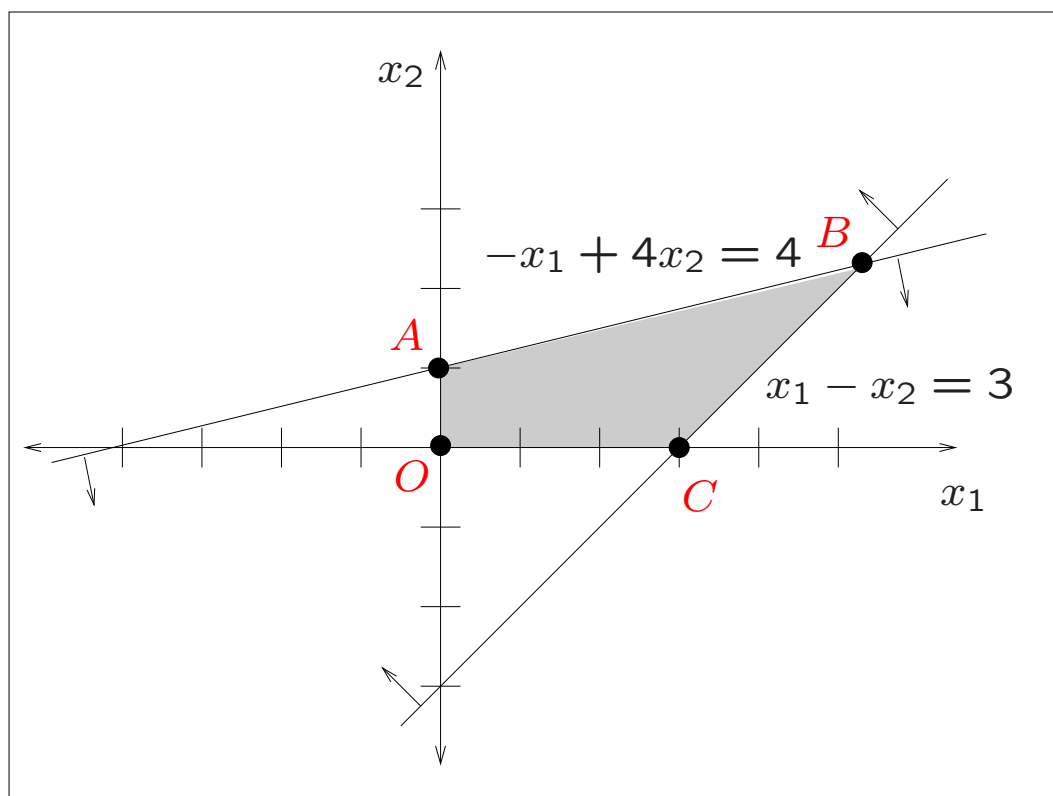
The intersection of a finite number of half-spaces is a convex set of the form (a), where the vertices of the set are called **extreme points**.

## 5. Extreme points and basic feasible solutions

Consider the following inequations,  $x_1 \geq 0$  and  $x_2 \geq 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} -x_1 + 4x_2 &\leq 4 \\ x_1 - x_2 &\leq 3 \end{aligned}$$

The intersection of the two half-spaces, together with  $x_1 \geq 0$  and  $x_2 \geq 0$ , is a **convex set**; a polygon in this case. The polygon has a finite number of vertices: **extreme points**.



$$O = (0, 0), \quad A = (0, 1), \quad B = \left(\frac{16}{3}, \frac{7}{3}\right), \quad C = (3, 0).$$

Convert inequations into equations by adding nonnegative variables  $x_3$  and  $x_4$ .

$$\begin{aligned} -x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 &= 4 \\ x_1 - x_2 + x_4 &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Compute the **basic solutions** and choose the ones with **all the variables greater than or equal to zero**; we can confirm that they correspond to the **extreme points** of the polygon.

- $x_3 = x_4 = 0$ , solve  $-x_1 + 4x_2 = 4$ ,  $x_1 - x_2 = 3$ :  $x_1 = \frac{16}{3}$  and  $x_2 = \frac{7}{3}$ . Extreme point **B**.
- $x_2 = x_4 = 0$ , solve  $-x_1 + x_3 = 4$ ,  $x_1 = 3$ :  $x_1 = 3$  and  $x_3 = 7$ . Extreme point **C**.
- $x_2 = x_3 = 0$ , solve  $-x_1 = 4$ ,  $x_1 + x_4 = 3$ :  $x_1 = -4$  and  $x_4 = 7$ . It does not correspond to any extreme point.
- $x_1 = x_4 = 0$ , solve  $4x_2 + x_3 = 4$ ,  $-x_2 = 3$ :  $x_2 = -3$  and  $x_3 = 16$ . It does not correspond to any extreme point.
- $x_1 = x_3 = 0$ , solve  $4x_2 = 4$ ,  $-x_2 + x_4 = 3$ :  $x_2 = 1$  and  $x_4 = 4$ . Extreme point **A**.
- $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ , solve  $x_3 = 4$ ,  $x_4 = 3$ :  $x_3 = 4$  and  $x_4 = 3$ . Extreme point **O**.