

Rob 501 - Mathematics for Robotics

Recitation #6

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1 Matrices

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric if $A^\top = A$.
 - $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is skew symmetric if $A^\top = -A$.
 - $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal if $A^\top A = AA^\top = I$.
 - $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is normal if $A^\top A = AA^\top$.
- Given a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
 - A is positive definite if $\forall x \neq 0, x^\top Ax > 0$. We denote it as $A \succ 0$.
 - A is positive semi-definite or non-negative definite if $\forall x \neq 0, x^\top Ax \geq 0$. We denote it as $A \succeq 0$.
 - A is negative definite if $\forall x \neq 0, x^\top Ax < 0$. We denote it as $A \prec 0$.
 - A is negative semi-definite or non-positive definite if $\forall x \neq 0, x^\top Ax \leq 0$. We denote it as $A \preceq 0$.
- Given a real matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$, $\Delta_k = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}$ is called the leading principal minor of order k .
- We have proven the following statement in the lecture. Given a symmetric matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
$$P \succeq 0 \iff (\exists N \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : P = NN^\top)$$
- Given a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. The following are equivalent (TFAE):
 - A is positive definite.
 - All the eigenvalues of A are positive, or the minimum eigenvalue of A is positive.
 - All the leading principal minors of A are positive definite.
 - All the leading principal minors of A have positive determinants.
- Theorem 1: For any symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there exists an orthogonal matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $Q^\top A Q = \Lambda$, where $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix. In other words, any real symmetric matrix is orthogonally diagonalizable.
- Matrix inversion lemma: Suppose the following matrix product are compatible and the inverses exists

$$(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}$$

This is also called Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula or Woodbury matrix identity.

8. Other useful matrix identities: Given $A, P, Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then

- $(I + A)^{-1} = I - (I + A)^{-1}A$,
- $(I + PQ)^{-1}P = P(I + QP)^{-1}$,

if the inverses exist.

- $(I + A)^{-1} = (I + A)^{-1}(I + A - A) = (I + A)^{-1}(I + A) - (I + A)^{-1}A = I - (I + A)^{-1}A$,
- $P + PQP = P(I + QP)$ and $P + PQP = (I + PQ)P$, thus $P(I + QP) = (I + PQ)P$, pre-multiplying both sides by $(I + PQ)^{-1}$ and then post-multiplying both sides by $(I + QP)^{-1}$ yield the result.

Ex:

(1) Which of the following matrices are orthogonally diagonalizable?

$$\text{a) } \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{b) } \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{c) } \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) A is symmetric, so it is orthogonally diagonalizable.

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} A^*A &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \\ AA^* &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = A^*A \implies A \text{ is normal.} \\ \det(\lambda I - A) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -1 \\ 1 & \lambda - 2 \end{bmatrix} = (\lambda - 2)^2 + 1 \implies \lambda_{1,2} = 2 \pm i \\ &\implies A \text{ is not orthogonally diagonalizable.} \end{aligned}$$

(c)

$$\begin{aligned} A^*A &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ AA^* &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \neq A^*A \implies A \text{ is not normal.} \end{aligned}$$

(2) For those matrices that are normal in (1) find Q and Λ .

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\lambda I - A) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -1 \\ -1 & \lambda - 2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 \implies \lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = 1 \\ \lambda_1 I - A &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies v_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \lambda_2 I - A &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \implies v_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \therefore \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

(3) Prove matrix inversion lemma.

$$\begin{aligned}
(A + BCD)^{-1} &= ((I + BCDA^{-1})A)^{-1} = A^{-1}(I + BCDA^{-1})^{-1} \\
&= A^{-1}\left(I - (I + \underbrace{BC}_P \underbrace{DA^{-1}}_Q)^{-1} \underbrace{BC}_P DA^{-1}\right) \\
&= A^{-1}\left(I - \underbrace{BC}_P (I + \underbrace{DA^{-1}}_Q \underbrace{BC}_P)^{-1} DA^{-1}\right) \\
&= A^{-1} - A^{-1}BC(I + DA^{-1}BC)^{-1}DA^{-1} \\
&= A^{-1} - A^{-1}B\left((I + DA^{-1}BC)C^{-1}\right)^{-1}DA^{-1} \\
&= A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

(4) Given $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $D = B^T$. Is $(A + BCD)$ invertible?

Notice that $(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}$ cannot be applied here since C is not invertible, but it is cumbersome to calculate the inverse of a 4-by-4 matrix. So we try $(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}BC(I + DA^{-1}BC)^{-1}DA^{-1}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
DA^{-1}BC &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25/12 & 0 \\ 25/6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
(I + DA^{-1}BC)^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 37/12 & 0 \\ 25/6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{12}{37} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -25/6 & 37/12 \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Then we can compute $(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}BC(I + DA^{-1}BC)^{-1}DA^{-1}$.

(5) Given two vectors $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, when is the matrix $(I + uv^T)$ invertible?

If $(I + uv^T)$ is nonsingular, by applying matrix inversion lemma, we get

$$(I + uv^T)^{-1} = I - u(1 + v^T u)^{-1}v^T = I - \frac{1}{1 + v^T u}uv^T,$$

When $v^T u \neq -1$, $(I + uv^T)^{-1} = I - \frac{1}{1 + v^T u}uv^T$.

2 Block Matrices / Partitioned Matrices

1. What is a block matrix? Examples.

2. Given two block matrices $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1q} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{p1} & \cdots & A_{pq} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & \cdots & B_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B_{q1} & \cdots & B_{qr} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times l}$, where

$$A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i \times n_j} \text{ and } B_{jk} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_j \times l_k} \text{ are block matrices and } \sum_{i=1}^p m_i = m, \sum_{j=1}^q n_j = n, \sum_{k=1}^r l_k = l.$$

- $A^\top = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^\top & \cdots & A_{p1}^\top \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1q}^\top & \cdots & A_{pq}^\top \end{bmatrix}.$

- For $k \in \mathbb{R}$, $kA = \begin{bmatrix} kA_{11} & \cdots & kA_{1q} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ kA_{p1} & \cdots & kA_{pq} \end{bmatrix}.$

- Suppose $C = AB$, then C can be partitioned as $C = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & \cdots & C_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{p1} & \cdots & C_{pr} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l}$, where

$$C_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^q A_{ij} B_{jk} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i \times l_j}.$$

3. A block matrix of the form $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & A_p \end{bmatrix}$ is called a block diagonal matrix.

If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq p$, A_i is a square matrix, then $\det A = \prod_{i=1}^p \det A_i$, and the eigenvalues of A are the collection of the eigenvalues of A_i , i.e., $\{\lambda \mid Ax = \lambda x, x \neq 0\} = \{\lambda_i \mid \forall 1 \leq i \leq p, A_i y = \lambda_i y, y \neq 0\}$

4. Block LDU decomposition:

Given a block matrix $M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$ where A, D are square matrices, and D is invertible, then

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}.$$

This is called block LDU decomposition of M . Also,

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & BD^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A - BD^{-1}C & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ D^{-1}C & I \end{bmatrix}.$$

$D - CA^{-1}B$ is called Schur complement of A in M , and $A - BD^{-1}C$ is called Schur complement of D in M .

Lemma:

- If M is symmetric, i.e., $A = A^\top$, $D = D^\top$, $C = B^\top$, then the following are equivalent:
 - $M \succ 0$.
 - $A \succ 0$ and $D - B^\top A^{-1}B \succ 0$.
 - $D \succ 0$ and $A - BD^{-1}B^\top \succ 0$.
- $\det(M) = \det(A) \det(D - CA^{-1}B) = \det(D) \det(A - BD^{-1}C)$
- Suppose in a given matrix M , $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $B = -u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $C = v^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$, $D = 1$, we obtain the matrix determinant lemma using the first lemma here:

$$\det(A + uv^\top) = (1 + v^\top A^{-1}u) \det(A)$$

- In general,

$$\det(A + U W V^\top) = \det(A) \det(W) \det(W^{-1} + V^\top A^{-1}U)$$

if A, W are invertible square matrices.

- Note that even if A, B, C, D are square matrices of the same size, $\det(M) \neq \det(AD - BC)$ in general.

Ex: Given $M = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 & 4 \\ 6 & 6 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Is M positive definite?

We can use any method given in the first part. However, to calculate the determinant or eigenvalues of a 3-by-3 matrix could be cumbersome. Here we can use Schur complement instead.

$$M = \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 7 & 6 & 4 \\ 6 & 6 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & 4 & 4 \end{array} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

- D is positive definite since $4 > 0$.
- $A - BD^{-1}C = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} 4^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.
 $A - BD^{-1}C$ is positive definite since $3 > 0$ and $2 - 2 \times \frac{1}{3} \times 2 > 0$.
- Thus, M is positive definite.