Matrix Forensics

A brief guide to efficient linear algebra

RICHARD BARNES

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1 Nomenclature

- \mathbf{A} Matrix. (Column) vector. \mathbf{a} Scalar. a \mathbf{A}_{ij} Matrix indexed. Returns ith row and jth column. $\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B}$ Hadamard (element-wise) product of matrices A and B. $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ Nullspace of the matrix \mathbf{A} . $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ Range of the matrix A. $det(\mathbf{A})$ Determinant of the matrix \mathbf{A} . $eig(\mathbf{A})$ Eigenvalues of the matrix \mathbf{A} . \mathbf{A}^H Conjugate transpose of the matrix A. \mathbf{A}^T Transpose of the matrix \mathbf{A} . \mathbf{A}^{+} Pseudoinverse of the matrix **A**. $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ The entries of the n-vector \mathbf{x} are all real numbers. $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ The entries of the matrix A with m rows and n columns are all real numbers. $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ The matrix \mathbf{A} is symmetric and has n rows and n columns. \mathbf{I}_n Identity matrix with n rows and n columns.
 - $\{0\}$ The empty set

2 Derivatives

For general A and X (no special structure):

$$\partial \mathbf{A} = 0 \text{ where } \mathbf{A} \text{ is a constant}$$

$$\partial(c\mathbf{X}) = c\partial \mathbf{X}$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y}) = \partial \mathbf{X} + \partial \mathbf{Y}$$

$$\partial(tr(\mathbf{X})) = tr(\partial(\mathbf{X}))$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{XY}) = (\partial \mathbf{X})\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{X}(\partial \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{X} \circ \mathbf{Y}) = (\partial \mathbf{X}) \circ \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{X} \circ (\partial \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{X}^{-1}) = -\mathbf{X}^{-1}(\partial \mathbf{X})\mathbf{X}^{-1}$$

$$\partial(\det(\mathbf{X})) = tr(\det(\mathbf{X})\partial \mathbf{X})$$

$$\partial(\det(\mathbf{X})) = \det(\mathbf{X}) tr(\mathbf{X}^{-1}\partial \mathbf{X})$$

$$\partial(\ln(\det(\mathbf{X}))) = tr(\mathbf{X}^{-1}\partial \mathbf{X})$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{X}^{T}) = (\partial \mathbf{X})^{T}$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{X}^{H}) = (\partial \mathbf{X})^{H}$$

$$(12)$$

3 | Matrix Rogue Gallery

3.1 Non-Singular vs. Singular Matrices

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ (initially drawn from [1, p. 574]):

Non-Singular

A is invertible

The columns are independent

The rows are independent

 $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0$ has one solution: $\mathbf{x} = 0$

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has one solution: $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$

A has n nonzero pivots **A** has full rank r = n

The reduced row echelon form is $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$

The column space is all of \mathbb{R}^n

The row space is all of \mathbb{R}^n

All eigenvalues are nonzero $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ is symmetric positive definite

 \mathbf{A} has n positive singular values

Singular

A is not invertible

The columns are dependent

The rows are dependent

 $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0$ has infinitely many solutions

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has either no or infinitely many solutions

A has r < n pivots

 ${\bf A}$ has rank r < n

 ${f R}$ has at least one zero row

The column space has dimension r < n

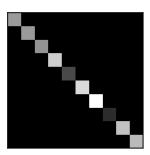
The row space has dimension r < n

Zero is an eigenvalue of $\bf A$

 $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ is only semidefinite

A has r < n singular values

3.2 Diagonal Matrix



$$A = \operatorname{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 (13)

3.3. DYADS 7

Square matrix. Entries above diagonal are equal to entries below diagonal. Number of "free entries": $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

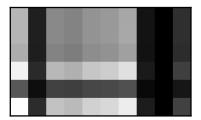
Special Properties

$$eig(A) = a_1, \dots, a_n \tag{14}$$

$$\det(A) = \prod_{i} a_{i} \tag{15}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{a_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{1}{a_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (16)

3.3 Dyads



 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is a dyad if it can be written as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T \quad \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \tag{17}$$

Special Properties

- \bullet The columns of A are copies of u scaled by the values of v.
- The rows of **A** are copies of \mathbf{u}^T scaled by the values of \mathbf{v} .
- If **A** is a dyad, it acts on a vector **x** as $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T)\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u})\mathbf{x}$.
- $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = c\mathbf{u}$ (**A** scales **x** and points it along **u**).
- $\bullet \ \mathbf{A}_{ij} = \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_j.$
- If $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \neq 0$, then rank $(\mathbf{A}) = 1$.
- If m = n, **A** has one eigenvalue $\lambda = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}$ and eigenvector \mathbf{u} .

• A dyad can always be written in a normalized form $c\tilde{\mathbf{u}}\tilde{\mathbf{v}}^T$.

3.4 Hermitian Matrix

 $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{m,n}$ is Hermitian iff

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}^H \tag{18}$$

where \mathbf{H}^H is the conjugate transpose of \mathbf{H} .

For $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, Hermitian and symmetric matrices are equivalent.

Special Properties

$\mathbf{H}_{ii} \in \mathbb{R}$	(19)
$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^H = \mathbf{H}^H\mathbf{H}$	(20)
$\mathbf{x}^H\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R} \ \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}$	(21)
$\mathbf{H}_1 + \mathbf{H}_2 = \text{Hermitian}$	(22)
$\mathbf{H}^{-1} = \text{Hermitian}$	(23)
$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^H = \text{Hermitian}$	(24)
$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}^H = \text{Skew-Hermitian}$	(25)
$\mathbf{AB} = \text{Hermitian iff } \mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{BA}$	(26)
$\det(\mathbf{H}) \in \mathbb{R}$	(27)
$ ext{eig}(\mathbf{H}) \in \mathbb{R}$	(28)

3.5 Idempotent Matrix

A matrix **A** is idempotent iff

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \tag{29}$$

Special Properties

$$\mathbf{A}^n = A \ \forall n \tag{30}$$

$$\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A} \ \text{is idempotent} \tag{31}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^H \ \text{is idempotent} \tag{32}$$

$$\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^H \ \text{is idempotent} \tag{33}$$

$$\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) \tag{34}$$

$$\mathbf{A}(I - \mathbf{A}) = 0 \tag{35}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A} \tag{36}$$

$$f(s\mathbf{I} + t\mathbf{A}) = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})f(s) + \mathbf{A}f(s + t) \tag{37}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A} \implies \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} \text{ is idempotent} \tag{38}$$

$$\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A})_i \in \{0, 1\} \tag{39}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \text{ is always diagonalizable} \tag{40}$$

 $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{I}$ may not be idempotent.

3.6 Orthogonal Matrix

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(41)$$

A matrix ${\bf U}$ is orthogonal iff:

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T = I \tag{42}$$

Square matrix. The columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

Special Properties

- The eigenvalues of U are placed on the unit circle.
- The eigenvectors of **U** are unitary (have length one).
- \mathbf{U}^{-1} is orthogonal.

$$\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}^{-1} \tag{43}$$

$$\mathbf{U}^{-T} = \mathbf{U} \tag{44}$$

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} \tag{45}$$

$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I} \tag{46}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{U}) = \pm 1 \tag{47}$$

Orthogonal matrices preserve the lengths and angles of the vectors they operator on. The converse is true: any matrix which preserves lengths and angles is orthogonal.

$$\|\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}\|_{2}^{2} = (\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x})^{T}(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{x} = \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}^{2} \quad \forall \mathbf{x}$$
(48)

$$\|\mathbf{U}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}\|_{F} = \|\mathbf{A}\|_{F} \quad \forall \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V} \text{ with } U, Vorthogonal$$
 (49)

3.7 Positive Definite

 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is positive definite (denoted $\mathbf{A} \succ 0$) if any of the following are true:

- $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $eig(\mathbf{A}) > 0$

Special Properties

- If **A** is PD and invertible, \mathbf{A}^{-1} is also PD.
- If **A** is PD and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ then c**A** is PD.
- The diagonal entries \mathbf{A}_{ii} are real and non-negative, so $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) \geq 0$.
- $det(\mathbf{A}) > 0$
- For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \succ 0 \iff \mathbf{A}$ is full-column rank $(\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n)$
- For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \succ 0 \iff \mathbf{A}$ is full-row rank $(\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = m)$
- $\mathbf{P} \succ 0$ defines a full-dimensional, bounded ellipsoid centered at the origin and defined by the set $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : x^T \mathbf{P}^{-1} x \leq 1\}$. The eigenvalues λ_i and eigenvectors u_i of \mathbf{P} define the orientation and shape of the ellipsoid. u_i are the semi-axes while the lengths of the semi-axes are given by $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$. Using the Cholesky decomposition, $\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$, an equivalent definition of the ellipsoid is $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}||_2 \leq 1\}$.

3.8 Positive Semi-Definite

A is positive semi-definite (denoted $\mathbf{A} \succeq 0$) if any of the following are true:

- $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \ge 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $eig(\mathbf{A}) \geq 0$

Special Properties

- For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \succeq 0$
- For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \succeq 0$
- The positive semi-definite matrices \mathbb{S}^n_+ form a convex cone. For any two PSD matrices $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$ and some $\alpha \in [0, 1]$:

$$\mathbf{x}^{T}(\alpha \mathbf{A} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{B})\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{x} \ge 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{x}$$
 (50)

$$\alpha \mathbf{A} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{S}_{+}^{n} \tag{51}$$

• For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$ and $\alpha \geq 0$, $\alpha \mathbf{A} \succeq 0$, so \mathbb{S}^n_+ is a cone.

3.9 Projection Matrix

A square matrix P is a projection matrix that projects onto a vector space S iff

$$\mathbf{P}$$
 is idempotent (52)

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{S} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \tag{53}$$

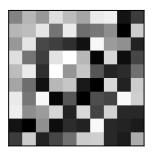
$$\mathbf{Pz} = \mathbf{z} \ \forall \mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S} \tag{54}$$

3.10 Singular Matrix

A square matrix that is not invertible.

 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ is singular iff $\det \mathbf{A} = 0$ iff $\mathcal{N}(A) \neq \{0\}$.

3.11 Symmetric Matrix



 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is a symmetric matrix if $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$ (entries above diagonal are equal to entries below diagonal).

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ b & g & l & m & o & p \\ c & l & h & n & q & r \\ d & m & n & i & s & t \\ e & o & q & s & j & u \\ f & p & r & t & u & k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(55)$$

Special Properties

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T \tag{56}$$

Number of "free entries": $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

If **A** is real, it can be decomposed into $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Q}$ where **Q** is a real orthogonal matrix (the columns of which are eigenvectors of **A**) and **D** is real and diagonal containing the eigenvalues of **A**.

For a real, symmetric matrix with non-negative eignevalues, the eigenvalues and singular values coincide.

3.12 Skew-Hermitian

A matrix $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{m,n}$ is Skew-Hermitian iff

$$\mathbf{H} = -\mathbf{H}^H \tag{57}$$

3.13 Toeplitz Matrix, General Form

Constant values on descending diagonals.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{0} & a_{-1} & a_{-2} & \dots & a_{-(n-1)} \\ a_{1} & a_{0} & a_{-1} & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{2} & a_{1} & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & a_{-1} & a_{-2} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & a_{1} & a_{0} & a_{-1} \\ a_{n-1} & \dots & \dots & a_{2} & a_{1} & a_{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

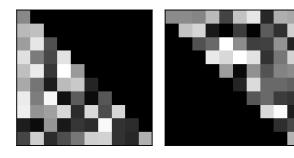
$$(58)$$

3.14 Toeplitz Matrix, Discrete Convolution

Constant values on main and subdiagonals.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
h_{m} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & h_{m} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\
h_{1} & \vdots & h_{m} & \dots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & h_{1} & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & h_{1} & \ddots & h_{m} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots & \vdots & h_{m} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & h_{1} & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & h_{1}
\end{bmatrix}$$
(59)

3.15 Triangular Matrix



$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ g & h & i & j & k \\ & l & m & n & o \\ & & & p & q & r \\ & & & & s & t \\ & & & & & u \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & & & & & \\ b & g & & & & \\ c & h & l & & & \\ d & i & m & p & & \\ e & j & n & q & s \\ f & k & o & r & t & u \end{bmatrix}$$
(60)

Square matrices in which all elements either above or below the main diagonal are zero. An upper (left) and a lower (right) triangular matrix are shown above.

For an upper triangular matrix $A_{ij} = 0$ whenever i > j; for a lower triangular matrix $A_{ij} = 0$ whenever i < j.

Special Properties

$$eig(A) = diag(A) \tag{61}$$

$$\det(A) = \prod_{i} \operatorname{diag}(A)_{i} \tag{62}$$

The product of two upper (lower) triangular matrices is still upper (lower) triangular.

The inverse of a nonsingular upper (lower) triangular matrix is still upper (lower) triangular.

3.16 Vandermonde Matrix

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 & \dots & \alpha_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 & \dots & \alpha_2^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_3 & \alpha_3^2 & \dots & \alpha_3^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \alpha_m & \alpha_m^2 & \dots & \alpha_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
(63)

Alternatively,

$$V_{i,j} = \alpha_i^{j-1} \tag{64}$$

Uses

Polynomial interpolation of data.

Special Properties

•
$$\det(V) = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (x_j - x_i)$$

4 Matrix Decompositions

4.1 LLT/UTU: Cholesky Decomposition

If **A** is symmetric, positive definite, square, then

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^T \tag{65}$$

where ${\bf U}$ is a unique upper triangular matrix and ${\bf L}$ is a unique lower-triangular matrix.

4.2 LDLT

If **A** is a non-singular symmetric definite square matrix, then

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{D}\mathbf{L} \tag{66}$$

where **L** is a unit lower triangular matrix and **D** is a diagonal matrix. If $\mathbf{A} \succ 0$, then $\mathbf{D}_{ii} > 0$.

4.3 PCA: Principle Components Analysis

Find normalized directions in data space such that the variance of the projections of the centered data points is maximal. For centered data $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$, the mean-square variation of data along a vector \mathbf{x} is $\mathbf{x}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{x}$.

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1} \mathbf{x}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{x}$$
 (67)

Taking an SVD of $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T$ gives $H = \mathbf{U}_r\mathbf{D}^2\mathbf{U}^T$, which is maximized by taking $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u}_1$. By repeatedly removing the first principal components and recalculating, all the principal axes can be found.

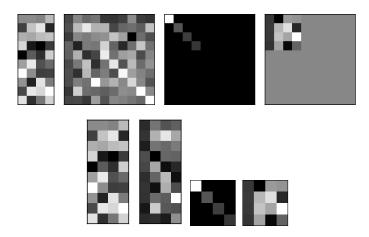
4.4 QR: Orthogonal-triangular

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}$ where \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal and \mathbf{R} is an upper triangular matrix. If \mathbf{A} is non-singular, then \mathbf{Q} and \mathbf{R} are uniquely defined if diag(\mathbf{R}) are imposed to be positive.

Algorithms

Gram-Schmidt.

4.5 SVD: Singular Value Decomposition



Any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T \tag{68}$$

where

$$U = \text{eigenvectors of } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \qquad \mathbb{R}^{m,m} \tag{69}$$

$$D = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_i) = \sqrt{\operatorname{diag}(\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T))} \qquad \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$$
 (70)

$$V = \text{eigenvectors of } \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$$
 $\mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ (71)

Let σ_i be the non-zero singular values for $i=1,\ldots,r$ where r is the rank of \mathbf{A} ; $\sigma_1 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_r$.

We also have that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_i = \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \tag{72}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \sigma_i \mathbf{v}_i \tag{73}$$

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} \tag{74}$$

$$\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I} \tag{75}$$

 ${f D}$ can be written in an expanded form:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{D}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} & 0_{r,n-r} \\ 0_{m-r,r} & 0_{m-r,n-r} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (76)

The final n-r columns of **V** give an orthonormal basis spanning $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$. An orthonormal basis spanning the range of **A** is given by the first r columns of **U**.

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 = \text{Frobenius norm} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^2$$
 (77)

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_2^2 = \sigma_1^2 \tag{78}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{*} = \text{nuclear norm} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i}$$
 (79)

The **condition number** κ of an invertible matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ is the ratio of the largest and smallest singular value. Matrices with large condition numbers are closer to being singular and more sensitive to changes.

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n} = \|A\|_2 \cdot \left\|A^{-1}\right\|_2 \tag{80}$$

Low-Rank Approximation

Approximating $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ by a matrix \mathbf{A}_k of rank k>0 can be formulated as the optimization probem

$$\min_{\mathbf{A}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}} \|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}_k\|_F^2 : \operatorname{rank} \mathbf{A}_k = k, 1 \le k \le \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A})$$
(81)

The optimal solution of this problem is given by

$$\mathbf{A}_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \tag{82}$$

where

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{A}_k\|_F^2}{\|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2} = \frac{\sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_k^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_r^2}$$
(83)

$$1 - \frac{\|\mathbf{A}_k\|_F^2}{\|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2} = \frac{\sigma_{k+1}^2 + \ldots + \sigma_r^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_r^2}$$
(84)

is the fraction of the total variance in **A** explained by the approximation \mathbf{A}_k .

Range and Nullspace

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{V}_{nr}) \tag{85}$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})^{\perp} \equiv \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^T) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{V}_r) \tag{86}$$

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{U}_r) \tag{87}$$

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})^{\perp} \equiv \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{U}_{nr}) \tag{88}$$

where \mathbf{V}_r is the first r columns of V and $V_n r$ are the last [r+1,n] columns; similarly for \mathbf{U} .

Projectors

The projection of \mathbf{x} onto $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ is $(\mathbf{V}_{nr}\mathbf{V}_{nr}^T)\mathbf{x}$. Since $\mathbf{I}_n = \mathbf{V}_r\mathbf{V}_r^T + \mathbf{V}_{nr}\mathbf{V}_{nr}^T$, $(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{V}_r\mathbf{V}_r^T)\mathbf{x}$ also works. The projection of \mathbf{x} onto $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ is $(\mathbf{U}_r\mathbf{U}_r^T)\mathbf{x}$.

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is full row rank $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T \succ 0)$, then the minimum distance to an affine set $\{x : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is given by $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is full column rank $(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \succ 0)$, then the minimum distance to an affine set $\{x : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is given by $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$.

Computational Notes

Since $\sigma \approx 0$, a numerical rank can be estimated for the matrix as the largest k such that $\sigma_k > \epsilon \sigma_1$ for $\epsilon \geq 0$.

4.6 Eigenvalue Decomposition for Diagonalizable Matrices

For a square, diagonalizable matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$

$$\mathbf{A} = U\Lambda U^{-1} \tag{89}$$

where $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n}$ is an invertible matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of **A** and Λ is a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ of **A** in the diagonal.

The columns $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ satisfy

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{90}$$

4.7 Eigenvalue (Spectral) Decomposition for Symmetric Matrices

A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ can be factored as

$$\mathbf{A} = U\Lambda U^T = \sum_{i}^{n} \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \tag{91}$$

where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ is an orthogonal matrix whose columns \mathbf{u}_i are the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} and Λ is a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_n$ of \mathbf{A} in the diagonal. These eigenvalues are always real. The eigenvectors can always be chosen to be real and to form an orthonormal basis.

The columns $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$ satisfy

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n \tag{92}$$

4.8 Schur Complements

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{S}^n$, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$ with $\mathbf{B} \succ 0$ and the block matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{X}^T & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix} \tag{93}$$

and the Schur complement of A in M

$$S = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{T} \tag{94}$$

Then

$$\mathbf{M} \succeq 0 \iff S \succeq 0 \tag{95}$$

$$\mathbf{M} \succ 0 \iff S \succ 0 \tag{96}$$

5 | Matrix Properties

$$A(B+C) = AB + AC$$
 (left distributivity) (97)

$$(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}$$
 (right distributivity) (98)

$$\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$$
 (in general) (99)

$$(\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC})$$
 (associativity) (100)

6 | Transpose Properties

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T \tag{101}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{B}^T \tag{102}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = (\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \tag{103}$$

7 Determinant Properties

Geometrically, if a unit volume is acted on by \mathbf{A} , then $|\det(\mathbf{A})|$ indicates the volume after the transformation.

$$\det(I_n) = 1 \tag{104}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^T) = \det(\mathbf{A}) \tag{105}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})} = \det(\mathbf{A})^{-1}$$
(106)

$$\det(AB) = \det(BA) \tag{107}$$

$$\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) \quad \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$$
(108)

$$\det(c\mathbf{A}) = c^n \det(\mathbf{A}) \quad \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$$
 (109)

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod \operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}) \tag{110}$$

8 | Trace Properties

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{A}_{ii} \tag{111}$$

$$tr(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = tr(\mathbf{A}) + tr(\mathbf{B}) \tag{112}$$

$$tr(c\mathbf{A}) = c tr(\mathbf{A}) \tag{113}$$

$$tr(\mathbf{A}) = tr(\mathbf{A}^T) \tag{114}$$

For A, B, C, D of compatible dimensions,

$$tr(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B}) = tr(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^T) = tr(\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}) = tr(\mathbf{B} \mathbf{A}^T)$$
(115)

$$tr(\mathbf{ABCD}) = tr(\mathbf{BCDA}) = tr(\mathbf{CDAB}) = tr(\mathbf{DABC})$$
(116)

(Invariant under cyclic permutations)

9 | Inverse Properties

The inverse of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n}$ is denoted \mathbf{A}^{-1} and defined such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_n \tag{117}$$

where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. **A** is nonsingular if \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists; otherwise, **A** is singular.

If individual inverses exist

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \tag{118}$$

more generally

$$(\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{A}_2 \dots \mathbf{A}_n)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}_n^{-1} \dots \mathbf{A}_2^{-1} \mathbf{A}_1^{-1}$$
 (119)

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = (\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \tag{120}$$

10 | Pseudo-Inverse Properties

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, a pseudoinverse satisfies:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \tag{121}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{+} = \mathbf{A}^{+} \tag{122}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+)^T = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+ \tag{123}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A})^{T} = \mathbf{A}^{+}\mathbf{A} \tag{124}$$

10.1 Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse

$$\mathbf{A}^{+} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{U}^{T} \tag{125}$$

where the foregoing comes from a singular-value decomposition and $\mathbf{D}^{-1} = \operatorname{diag}(\frac{1}{\sigma_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sigma_r})$

Special Properties

- $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ if $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ and \mathbf{A} is square and nonsingular.
- $\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T$, if $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is full column rank $(r = n \le m)$. \mathbf{A}^+ is a left inverse of \mathbf{A} , so $\mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{V}_r^T = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{I}_n$.
- $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1}$, if $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is full row rank $(r = m \le n)$. \mathbf{A}^+ is a right inverse of \mathbf{A} , so $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{U}_r^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}_m$.

11 | Hadamard Identities

$$(\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B})_{ij} = A_{ij}B_{ij} \ \forall i,j$$

$$\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \circ \mathbf{A}$$

$$(127) [2]$$

$$\mathbf{A} \circ (\mathbf{B} \circ \mathbf{C}) = (\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B}) \circ \mathbf{C}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \circ (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{C}$$

$$a(\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B}) = (a\mathbf{A}) \circ \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} \circ (a\mathbf{B})$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \circ \mathbf{B}^T) = (\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B})^T$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \circ \mathbf{B}^T) = (\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B})^T$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \circ \mathbf{B}^T) = (\mathbf{A} \circ \mathbf{B})^T$$

$$(132)$$

$$(x^T \mathbf{A}x) = \sum_{i,j} ((xx^T) \circ \mathbf{A})$$

$$(133)$$

12 | Eigenvalue Properties

 $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ and $u \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is a corresponding eigenvector if $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{u} \neq 0$. Equivalently, $(\lambda \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{u} = 0$ and $\mathbf{u} \neq 0$. Eigenvalues satisfy the equation $\det(\lambda \mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{A}) = 0$.

Any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$ has n eigenvalues, though some may be repeated. λ_1 is the largest eigenvalue and λ_n the smallest.

$$\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T) = \operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}) \tag{134}$$

(Note that the number of entries in $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ may differ significantly leading to different compute times.)

$$\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \ge 0 \tag{135}$$

Computation

TODO: eigsh, small eigen value extraction, top-k

13 Norms

13.1 Matrices

Matrix norms satisfy some properties:

$$f(\mathbf{A}) \ge 0 \tag{136}$$

$$f(\mathbf{A}) = 0 \iff \mathbf{A} = 0 \tag{137}$$

$$f(c\mathbf{A}) = |c|f(\mathbf{A}) \tag{138}$$

$$f(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \le f(\mathbf{A}) + f(\mathbf{B}) \tag{139}$$

Many popular matrix norms also satisfy "sub-multiplicativity": $f(\mathbf{AB}) \leq f(\mathbf{A})f(\mathbf{B})$.

13.1.1 Frobenius norm

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^H} \tag{140}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{F} = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{H}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\mathbf{A}_{ij}|^{2}}$$

$$(140)$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \operatorname{eig}(A^{H}A)_{i}}$$
 (142)

Special Properties

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_{F} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \tag{143}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\|_{F} \le \|\mathbf{A}\|_{F} \|\mathbf{B}\|_{F} \tag{144}$$

13.1.2**Operator Norms**

For $p = 1, 2, \infty$ or other values, an operator norm indicates the maximum inputoutput gain of the matrix.

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{p} = \max_{\|\mathbf{u}\|_{p}=1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\|_{p} \tag{145}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_1 = \max_{\|\mathbf{u}\|_1 = 1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\|_1 \tag{146}$$

$$= \max_{j=1,\dots,n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} |\mathbf{A}_{ij}| \tag{147}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\infty} = \max_{\|\mathbf{u}\|_{\infty} = 1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\|_{\infty} \tag{149}$$

$$= \max_{j=1,\dots,m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\mathbf{A}_{ij}| \tag{150}$$

$$= Largest absolute row sum (151)$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 = \text{``spectral norm''} \tag{152}$$

$$= \max_{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2=1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\|_2 \tag{153}$$

$$= \sqrt{\max(\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}))}$$
 (154)

= Square root of largest eigenvalue of
$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$$
 (155)

Special Properties

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}\|_{p} \le \|\mathbf{A}\|_{p} \|\mathbf{u}\|_{p} \tag{156}$$

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\|_{p} \le \|\mathbf{A}\|_{p} \|\mathbf{B}\|_{p} \tag{157}$$

(158)

13.1.3 Spectral Radius

Not a proper norm.

$$\rho(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{spectral\ radius}(\mathbf{A}) = \max_{i=1,\dots,n} |\operatorname{eig}(\mathbf{A})_i|$$
 (159)

Special Properties

$$\rho(\mathbf{A}) \le \|\mathbf{A}\|_p \tag{160}$$

$$\rho(\mathbf{A}) \le \min(\|\mathbf{A}\|_1, \|\mathbf{A}\|_{\infty}) \tag{161}$$

(162)

13.2. VECTORS 31

13.2 Vectors

P-norm:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{p} = (\sum_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|^{p})^{1/p}$$
 (163)

14 | Bounds

14.1 Matrix Gain

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \le \frac{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2} \le \lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})$$
 (164)

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}} = \|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A})} \implies \mathbf{x} = u_{1}$$
 (165)

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A})} \implies \mathbf{x} = u_{n}$$
 (166)

14.2 Norms

For $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1} \leq \sqrt{\operatorname{card}(\mathbf{x})} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{n} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq n \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \quad (167)$$

For any $0 we have that <math>\|\mathbf{x}\|_q \le \|\mathbf{x}\|_p$.

14.3 Rayleigh quotients

The Rayleigh quotient of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is given by

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} \quad \mathbf{x} \neq 0 \tag{168}$$

$$\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}) \le \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} \le \lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}) \quad \mathbf{x} \ne 0$$
 (169)

$$\lambda_{\max}(A) = \max_{\mathbf{x}: \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = u_1$$
 (170)

$$\lambda_{\min}(A) = \min_{\mathbf{x} : \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = u_n$$
 (171)

where u_1 and u_n are the eigenvectors associated with λ_{\max} and λ_{\min} , respectively.

15 | Linear Equations

The linear equation $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ admits a solution iff $\operatorname{rank}([\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}]) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A})$. If this is satisfied, the set of all solutions is an affine set $\mathcal{S} = \{\mathbf{x} = \bar{\mathbf{x}} + z : z \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})\}$ where $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ is any vector such that $\mathbf{A}\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{y}$. The solution is unique if $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \{0\}$.

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is overdetermined if it is tall/skinny (m > n); that is, if there are more equations than unknowns. If $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ then $\dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = 0$, so there is either no solution or one solution. Overdetermined systems often have no solution $(\mathbf{y} \notin \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}))$, so an approximate solution is necessary.

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is underdetermined if it is short/wide (n > m); that is, if has more unknowns than equations. If $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = m$ then $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbb{R}^m$, so $\dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = n - m > 0$, so the set of solutions is infinite. Therefore, finding a single solution that optimizes some quantity is of interest.

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ is square if n = m. If \mathbf{A} is invertible, then the equations have the unique solution $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$.

15.1 Least-Squares

For an overdetermined system we wish to find:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 \tag{172}$$

Since $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$, we need a point $\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ closest to \mathbf{y} . This point lies in the nullspace of \mathbf{A}^T , so we have $\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$. There is always a solution to this problem and, if $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$, it is unique.

$$\mathbf{x}^* = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} \tag{173}$$

15.2 Minimum Norm Solutions

For undertermined systems in which $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ with m < n. We wish to find

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}: \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \tag{174}$$

The solution \mathbf{x}^* must be orthogonal to $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$, so $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^T)$, so $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^T c$ for some c, so $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T c = \mathbf{y}$, therefore:

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \tag{175}$$

$\mathbf{16} \mid \mathbf{1}_r^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{1}_c$

Reduces to: Scalar

Notation: For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times c}$, $\mathbf{1}_r$ is in $\mathbb{R}^{r \times 1}$ and $\mathbf{1}_c$ is in $\mathbb{R}^{c \times 1}$.

Plain English: The sum of the elements of the matrix.

Algorithm: Traverse all the element of the matrix in order keeping track of the sum. For applications where accuracy is important and the matrices have a large dynamic range, Kahan summation or a similar technique should be used.

Update Algorithm: If an entry changes, subtract its old value from the sum and add its new value to the sum.

$\mathbf{17} \mid \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

Reduces to: Scalar

Notation: A must be in $\mathbb{R}^{i \times i}$. \mathbf{x} is in $\mathbb{R}^{i \times 1}$.

Plain English: TODO
Algorithm: TODO

Update Algorithm: We make use of the identity $(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i,j} ((\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T) \circ \mathbf{A})$. If an entry $\mathbf{A}_{i,j}$ in the matrix changes subtract its old value $\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{A}_{ij}$ and add

the new value $\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{A}'_{ij}$. If an entry \mathbf{x}_i changes TODO.

18 | Algorithms

18.1 Gram-Schmidt

TODO

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