

△ Singular Value Decomposition

List of properties about $A^T A$ and AA^T

① $A^T A$ and AA^T are symmetric. Thus, orthogonally diagonalizable.

② All eigenvalues of $A^T A$ and AA^T are nonnegative (and real).

proof: Assume that λ is an eigenvalue of $A^T A$ with \vec{x} being an eigenvector.

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x} &= \vec{x}^T \lambda \vec{x} \\ (\lambda \vec{x})^T (\lambda \vec{x}) &= \lambda \vec{x}^T \vec{x} \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\|A\vec{x}\|^2}{\|\vec{x}\|^2} \quad \text{since } \vec{x} \neq \vec{0} \\ \text{Hence } \lambda &\geq 0 \quad \text{as } \|A\vec{x}\| \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, AA^T also contains nonnegative eigenvalues only.

③ $\text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(AA^T) = \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$. (See 5.2)

(Thm: $N(A^T A) = N(A)$, $N(AA^T) = N(A^T)$)

proof: (i) $N(A^T A) \subseteq N(A)$:

$\forall \vec{x} \in N(A^T A)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x} &= \vec{x}^T \vec{0} = 0 \rightarrow \|A\vec{x}\|^2 = 0 \rightarrow A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \\ \rightarrow \vec{x} &\in N(A) \end{aligned}$$

(ii) $N(A) \subseteq N(A^T A)$:

$$\forall \vec{y} \in N(A), A^T A \vec{y} = A^T \vec{0} = \vec{0} \rightarrow A^T A \vec{y} = \vec{0} \rightarrow \vec{y} \in N(A^T A)$$

$$N(A^T A) = N(A).$$

④ $A^T A$ and AA^T have the same non-zero eigenvalues.

proof: Assume that $\lambda \neq 0$ is an eigenvalue of $A^T A$ with a corresponding eigenvector \vec{x} .

$$A^T A \vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$$

$$A A^T A \vec{x} = A \lambda \vec{x}$$

$$A A^T (A \vec{x}) = \lambda (A \vec{x})$$

Since $N(A) = N(A^T A)$, then if $\vec{x} \in N(A)$, $\lambda \vec{x} = A^T A \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ which is impossible.

Hence $A \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ if \vec{x} is an eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda \neq 0$.

thus, λ is also an eigenvalue of AA^T with a corresponding eigenvector $A\vec{x}$.

Vice versa, any nonzero eigenvalue of AA^T is also an eigenvalue of $A^T A$.

⑤ $\text{rank}(A^T A) =$ the number of nonzero eigenvalues of $A^T A$.

proof: Since $A^T A$ is a real symmetric matrix, then it is (orthogonally) diagonalizable by some orthogonal matrix Q .

$$A^T A = Q D Q^T, \quad \text{where } D \text{ is diagonal.}$$

$$\text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(Q D Q^T) = \text{rank}(D)$$

Remark: For a general square matrix B ,

the $\text{rank}(B)$ is NOT necessarily equal to the number of nonzero eigenvalues of B .

$$\text{E.g. } B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\text{rank}(B) = 2$, but all eigenvalues of B are 0.

⑦ τ_i is the square root of eigenvalues of $A^T A$, nonnegative.

⑧ Columns of V are eigenvectors of $A^T A$.

Similarly, columns of U are eigenvectors of AA^T .

} proved in the last lecture

- (7) τ_i is the square root of eigenvalues of $A^T A$, nonnegative.

(8) Columns of V are eigenvectors of $A^T A$.
Similarly, columns of U are eigenvectors of $A A^T$.

(9) Any eigenvector of $A A^T$ belonging to a nonzero eigenvalue is in $\text{Col}(A)$

proof: Method 1: Recall the 4th property: If $\lambda \neq 0$ is a nonzero eigenvalue of $A^T A$ with eigenvector \vec{x} , then λ is also an eigenvalue of $A A^T$ with $A\vec{x} \in \text{Col}(A)$.

Method 2: Assume $\mu \neq 0$ is a nonzero eigenvalue of $A A^T$ with an eigenvector \vec{y} .
 $A(A^T \vec{y}) = A A^T \vec{y} = \mu \vec{y} \in \text{Col}(A)$ since $\mu \neq 0$.

- (10) Any eigenvector of AAT belonging to eigenvalue 0 is in $N(AT)$.

For any eigenvector \vec{v} of AA^T w.r.t. $\lambda=0$,

$$\vec{x} \in N(AA^T - 0 \cdot I) \rightarrow \vec{x} \in N(AA^T) = N(A^T).$$

- (ii) Comparing the j^{th} column of each side of the equation

$$A \vee = \cup \Sigma$$

we get

$$A\vec{v}_j = \tau_j \vec{u}_j \quad j=1, 2, \dots, r$$

Similarly,

$$A^T U = V \Sigma^T$$

and hence

$$\pi w_j = v_j v_j^*, \quad j=1,2,\dots,N.$$

$$A^T \bar{u}_j = \bar{o} \quad , \quad j=1, \dots, m$$

$$\vec{u}_j = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma_j} A \vec{v}_j & , \text{ for } \sigma_j \neq 0 \\ \in N(A^\top) & , \text{ if } \sigma_j = 0. \end{cases}$$

$$\rightarrow A^T [\vec{u}_1 \dots \vec{u}_m] = [\vec{v}_1 \dots \vec{v}_n] \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thm (The SVD Theorem) of rank r

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then A has a singular value decomposition. That is,

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times m} \sum_{m \times m} V^T_{n \times n}$$

where

U is an $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix

V is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix

and

Σ is an $m \times n$ sparse matrix whose diagonal elements

$$\tau_1 \geq \tau_2 \geq \dots \geq \tau_r > \tau_{r+1} = \dots = \tau_{\min\{m,n\}} = 0$$

$$\sum = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \sigma_1 & \\ \sigma_2 & \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_m & \end{array} | \quad O_{(m \times (n-m))} \right]_{m \times n} \quad \text{or} \quad \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \sigma_1 & \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_2 & \sigma_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n & \end{array} | \quad O_{((n-m) \times 1)} \right]_{m \times n} \quad \text{if } m > n$$

The σ_i 's are unique and called the singular values of A .

Remark : The proof of this theorem is based on the construction of U , Σ and V . (构造法)

Please read the textbook for more details.

As a result, consider $A = U\Sigma V^T$, then

(without loss of generality, assume $m > n$)

$$\begin{aligned} (A^T A)_{mn} &= U \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T \\ &= U_{mn} \underbrace{\Sigma^T}_{\text{square}} \underbrace{U^T}_{m \times m} \Sigma_{mn} V^T_{mn} \\ &= U_{mn} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \\ & 0 & \end{bmatrix}_{mn} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \\ & 0 & \end{bmatrix}_{mn} V^T \\ &= U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & \\ & \sigma_2^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}_{mn} V^T \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > \sigma_{r+1} = \dots = \sigma_m = 0$$

orthogonal diagonalization of $A^T A$

$$\begin{aligned} AA^T &= U \Sigma V^T V \Sigma^T U^T \\ &= U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_n & \\ & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}_{mn} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_n & \\ & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}_{mn} U^T \\ &= U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & \\ & \sigma_2^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}_{mn} U^T \end{aligned}$$

there could be zero eigenvalues within $\{\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2\}$.

orthogonal diagonalization of AA^T

$\Sigma \Sigma^T$ contains eigenvalues of AA^T

Columns of U contains corresponding eigenvectors of AA^T .

$\Sigma^T \Sigma$ contains eigenvalues of $A^T A$

Columns of V contains the corresponding eigenvectors of $A^T A$.

the procedure of finding SVD :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{mn} = \begin{bmatrix} & & \dots & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{mn} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_n & \\ & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}_{mn} \begin{bmatrix} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{mn} V^T$$

Step 1 : Singular values σ_i :

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \quad \text{for each } i$$

where λ_i is the eigenvalue of $A^T A$.

$$\text{let } \underbrace{\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r}_{\text{nonzero eigenvalues}} > \sigma_{r+1} > \sigma_{r+2} = \dots = \sigma_m = 0 = \underbrace{0}_{\text{zero eigenvalues}}$$

Step 2 : Columns in V are eigenvectors of $A^T A$ corresponding to $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2$ (orthonormal)

This might involve normalization of vectors and Gram-Schmidt process.

Step 3 : Columns in U :

Method 1 : eigenvectors of AA^T corresponding to $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2, 0, \dots, 0$ (orthonormal)

$$\text{Method 2: } \vec{v}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A \vec{x}_i \quad \text{for nonzero } \sigma_i's.$$

For $\sigma_j = 0$, take $\vec{v}_j \in N(A^T)$, use Gram-Schmidt.

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} = U \Sigma V^T, \text{ notice that } \text{rank}(A) = 1$$

Step 1 : Singular Values of A

$$\text{The eigenvalues of } A^T A : \quad A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \quad \text{rank}(A^T A) = 1$$

$$\lambda_1 = 4, \quad \lambda_2 = 0$$

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1} = 2, \quad \sigma_2 = 0, \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$$

Step 2 : Columns in V (eigenvector of $A^T A$)

$$\text{For } \sigma_1 = 4, \quad (A^T A - 4I) \vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 = \vec{0} \rightarrow \vec{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{For } \lambda_2 = 0, \quad A^T A \vec{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}_2 = \vec{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Step 3 : Columns in U

$$\sigma_1=2 \quad \vec{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A \vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \text{Col}(A)$$

$$\sigma_2=0 : \quad \vec{u}_2 \in N(A^T), \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{let } \vec{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{since } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \perp \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ we don't need})$$

to perform Gram-Schmidt

Then

$$U = [\vec{u}_1 \ \vec{u}_2 \ \vec{u}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Exercise: } A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvectors of $A^T A$ belonging to 2
 eigenvectors of $A^T A$ belonging to 0
 eigenvectors of $A^T A$ belonging to 0

Example: U and V are not unique.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

orthonormal basis of $\text{Col}(A)$
 orthonormal basis of $N(A)$
 $\text{Col}(A) \oplus N(A) = \mathbb{R}^3$

In addition, if $\{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}\}$ forms an orthonormal basis of $\text{Col}(A^T)$, then $\{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\}$ forms an orthogonal basis of $\text{Col}(A)$.
 If $\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_m\}$ in $\text{Col}(A^T)$, eigenvectors of $A^T A$
 then $\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} A \vec{u}_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} A \vec{u}_2, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} A \vec{u}_m, \vec{u}_{m+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis of $\text{Col}(A)$.
 Orthonormal basis of $\text{Col}(A)$ is $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m\}$ in $N(A^T)$.

A Brief Summary :

Eigenvalues : could be complex, could be real

Square Matrices : $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$
 (general matrix)
 $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

Eigenvectors : For $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$, \vec{v}_i and \vec{v}_j are linearly independent

Diagonalizable? Some yes, some no

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $A = P D P^{-1}$ $A = C J C^{-1}$

Symmetric Matrices: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
 $A^T = A$

Eigenvalues : All real

Eigenvectors: For $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$, $\vec{v}_i \perp \vec{v}_j$

Diagonalizable? Yes! Orthogonally diagonalizable.
 $A = Q D Q^T$

Non-square Matrices : $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

Eigenvalues? No eigenvalues, but it has singular values

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\text{eigenvalues of } A^T A}$$

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

△ Quadratic form (Sec. 6.6)

o. Quadratic Equation of two variables x, y.

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cxy + dx + ey + f = 0 \quad \rightarrow [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} a & \frac{c}{2} \\ \frac{c}{2} & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + [d \ e] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + f = 0$$

- Quadratic Equation of two variables x, y .

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cxy + dx + ey + f = 0 \rightarrow \vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} a & \frac{c}{2} \\ \frac{c}{2} & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + (\text{d e}) \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + f = 0$$

The term

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cxy \rightarrow \vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & \frac{c}{2} \\ \frac{c}{2} & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the quadratic form of the above equation.

- Quadratic Equation of three variables x, y, z .

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + dxy + exz + fyz + gx + hy + kz + l = 0 \rightarrow$$

The term

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + dxy + exz + fyz \rightarrow \vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} x & y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & \frac{c}{2} & \frac{e}{2} \\ \frac{c}{2} & b & \frac{f}{2} \\ \frac{e}{2} & \frac{f}{2} & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the quadratic form of the above eqn.

- A Quadratic Equation in n variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n has the form

$$\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} + B \vec{x} + c = 0$$

where $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$, A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, B is a $1 \times n$ matrix and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

The vector function $f(\vec{x})$ is a quadratic form in n variables associating with the quadratic eqn.

$$f(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = [x_1 \dots x_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} x_i \right) x_j$$

Example $x_1 x_2 - x_1^2 + 2x_2 = 0$ is a quadratic eqn. and $x_1 x_2 - x_1^2$ is its quadratic terms.

$x_1 x_2 - x_1^2 + 2x_2 = 0$ is not a quadratic eqn.

$$f_1(\vec{x}) = x_1^2 + 2x_1 x_2 + x_2^2 = [x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is a quadratic form.}$$

$$f_2(\vec{x}) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 2x_1 x_2 - 4x_1 x_3 + 2\sqrt{2} x_2 x_3 = [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & \sqrt{2} \\ -2 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is a quadratic form.}$$

Remark: It is possible to write the quadratic form as $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ for some non-symmetric matrix A .

For example,

$$f_1(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} \text{ However, we prefer symmetry due to a lot of good properties.}$$

Exercise Let $Q(\vec{x}) = 2x_1^2 - 3x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 + 2x_1 x_3 = \vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} 2 & & 1 \\ & -3 & \\ 1 & & 2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$

Recall:

Chap6.6-6.7 Definite Matrices

- Definitions of different types of definite matrices
- Some important theorems
- Applications: Hessian matrix and identifying local extrema/saddle point

Thm A is a real symmetric matrix

$\Leftrightarrow A$ is orthogonally diagonalizable.

Thm If A is a real symmetric matrix, and $\lambda \neq \mu$ are two distinct eigenvalues of A . \vec{v} and \vec{w} are corresponding eigenvectors. Then $\vec{v} \perp \vec{w}$.

Example (Motivating) Consider the function

$$g(\vec{x}) = 8x_1^2 - 4x_1 x_2 + 5x_2^2$$

from $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Determine whether $g(0,0)$ is a global max/min or neither.

Note that $g(\vec{x}) = [x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$

Rotation

where A is symmetric and orthogonally diagonalizable by

$$Q = [\vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_2] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Denote $B = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$ as a ordered orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^2 , then write

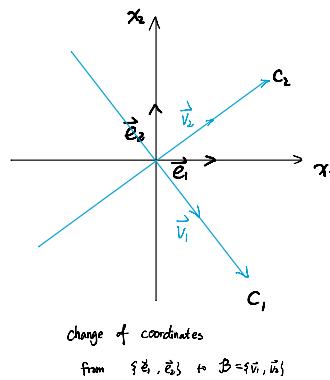
$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 = [\vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_2] \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = Q \vec{c}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} q_p(\vec{x}) &= \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = \underbrace{\vec{x}^T Q^T}_{\vec{x}^T} \underbrace{Q D Q^T}_{A} \underbrace{\vec{x}}_{\vec{c}} = \vec{c}^T D \vec{c} = [c_1 \ c_2] \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 9c_1^2 + 4c_2^2 > 0 \quad \text{for nonzero } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2. \end{aligned}$$

So $q_p(\vec{x}) = 0$ is a global minimum.

Notice that $q_p(\vec{x}) = 9c_1^2 + 4c_2^2$ is easier to work with than $8x_1^2 - 4x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2$
since there's no term involving c_1c_2 .



Example: Consider the equation

$$9x^2 - 18x + 4y^2 + 16y - 11 = 0$$

then in matrix form:

$$\vec{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} + [-18 \ 16] \vec{x} - 11 = 0$$

but 1st order term exists

Complete the squares to absorb the 1st order terms:

$$9x^2 - 18x + 9 + 4y^2 + 16y + 16 - 36 = 0$$

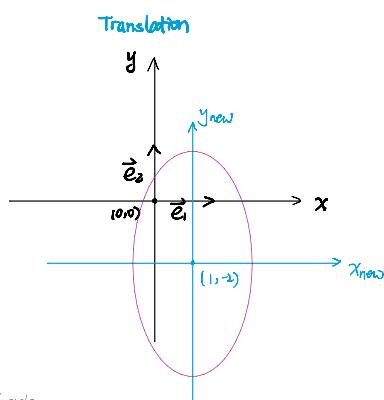
$$\rightarrow 9(x-1)^2 + 4(y+2)^2 - 36 = 0$$

$$\text{or } \frac{(x-1)^2}{9} + \frac{(y+2)^2}{4} = 1 \quad \text{an ellipse centered at } (1, -2) \text{ in the standard system}$$

$$\text{Set } x_{\text{new}} = x-1, \quad y_{\text{new}} = y+2,$$

↓ translation (平移), not a linear transformation

$$\frac{x_{\text{new}}^2}{9} + \frac{y_{\text{new}}^2}{4} = 1 \quad \text{an ellipse centered at the origin in } x_{\text{new}}-y_{\text{new}}\text{-plane}$$



By rotating and translating the axes, it is possible to rewrite the equation into the standard form:

$$(i) \quad \lambda_1(x_{\text{new}})^2 + \lambda_2(y_{\text{new}})^2 + \alpha_{\text{new}} = 0, \quad \text{when } A \text{ is nonsingular}$$

or

$$(ii) \quad \lambda_1(x_{\text{new}})^2 + \beta_{\text{new}} y_{\text{new}} + \alpha_{\text{new}} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda_2(y_{\text{new}})^2 + \beta_{\text{new}} x_{\text{new}} + \alpha_{\text{new}} = 0, \quad \text{when } A \text{ is singular.}$$

E.g. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

check:

forall nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} &= [x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 5x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 + 5x_2^2 \\ &= 5(x_1^2 + \frac{4}{5}x_1x_2 + \frac{4}{25}x_2^2) + (5 - \frac{4}{5})x_2^2 \\ &= 5(x_1 + \frac{2}{5}x_2)^2 + \frac{21}{5}x_2^2 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow A$ is positive definite.

Exercise: $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is negative definite

forall nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = -(x_1^2 + x_2^2) < 0$

$B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is indefinite.

△ Definition of Definite Matrices

A real symmetric matrix A_{nm} is said to be

(i) positive definite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} > 0$ for all nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(ii) negative definite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} < 0$ for all nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(iii) positive semidefinite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} \geq 0$ for all nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(iv) negative semidefinite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} \leq 0$ for all nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(v) indefinite if $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ takes on values that differ in sign.

Theorem: Let A be a real symmetric $n \times n$ matrix. Then A is positive definite if and only if all its eigenvalues are positive.

Thm Let A be a real symmetric $n \times n$ matrix. Then A is positive definite if and only if all its eigenvalues are positive.

proof: (i) Let A be positive definite.

Assume that \vec{x} is an eigenvector of A w.r.t λ_1 , then $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$

$$\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = \vec{x}^T (\lambda \vec{x}) = \lambda \vec{x}^T \vec{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}}{\vec{x}^T \vec{x}} > 0$$

$$\text{Since } \vec{x}^T \vec{x} = \|\vec{x}\|^2 > 0$$

(ii) All eigenvalues of A are positive.

let $A = QDQ^T$ for an orthogonal matrix Q and

$$D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

A nonzero $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = \underbrace{\vec{x}^T Q}_{\vec{y}^T} \underbrace{D Q^T}_{\vec{y}} \vec{x} = \vec{y}^T D \vec{y} = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

$$\geq \min \{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n (y_1^2 + y_2^2 + \dots + y_n^2) = \min \{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n \|\vec{y}\|^2 > 0$$

since $\min \{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is positive and $\vec{y} = Q^T \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$ for non-singular Q^T .

$$\text{E.g. } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symmetric $A \rightarrow$ All eigenvalues real $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \text{Tr}(A) = 3 \\ \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2 = \det(A) = -6 \end{array} \right.$

$$\rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_1 = 4 \\ \lambda_2 = -1 \end{cases} \quad A \text{ is indefinite}$$

$$\text{E.g. } A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 5 & 3 \\ -2 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

By eigenvalue test,

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \begin{vmatrix} 6-\lambda & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 5-\lambda & 3 \\ -2 & 3 & 6-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (6-\lambda)[(5-\lambda)(6-\lambda)-9] \\ &\quad - 4[4(6-\lambda)+6] \\ &= (6-\lambda)(\lambda^2 - 11\lambda + 30 - 25) - 4(5-\lambda) - 48 \\ &= -\lambda^3 + 17\lambda^2 + 67\lambda - 38 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda_1 = -0.5015, \lambda_2 = 7.8569, \lambda_3 = 9.6465$$

$\Rightarrow A$ is indefinite.

△ Eigenvalue Test

- (i) A is positive definite \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are positive.
- (ii) A is negative definite \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are negative.
- (iii) A is indefinite \Leftrightarrow Some eigenvalues of $A > 0$ and some < 0 .
- (iv) A is positive semidefinite \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are non-negative.
- (v) A is negative semidefinite \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are non-positive.