$09\text{-}04\text{-}05\text{-}04\text{-}Matrix Theory}$

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Chapter 1 Overall

 $\begin{array}{c} {\rm Matrix\ Theory} \\ {\rm Augmented\ matrix} \end{array}$

Chapter 2 Matrix Space

2.0.1 Matrix

2.0.1.1 Defination

If we have a serious of x, we have a serious of b, like this:

$$A_{mn} \cdot X_{nt} = B_{mt} \Longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ & \ddots & \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1t} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nt} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1t} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \cdots & b_{mt} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.1)

The normal definition of the product of two matrix is as above.

2.0.1.2 Complex Matrices

2.0.1.2.1 Conjugate Transposition for matrix $C \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, we mark the Conjugate Transposition as C^H , where $c_{ji}^T = \overline{c}_{ij}$

in representation, C = A + iB. Usually 4 real matrix multiplications are needed to calculate (C + iD)(E + iF), actually 3 multiplications are enough. (C + iD)(E + iF) = (C + D)(E - F) + CF - DE + i(DE + CF)

2.0.1.3 Multiplication

There are 6 views sorting with the loop order, we fully understand that. for example, we can think the order jki(j is the outer, i is the inner) as follows

$$i: | \cdot = |$$
 $k: [|] | = \sum |$
 $j: [|] [|] = [|]$

$$(2.2)$$

We collect the 6 vews into one table as fallows.

Order innerLoop MiddleLoop dataAccess view comment S-S:dot rowV-M $oldsymbol{A}_{lpha:}, [oldsymbol{X}_{:eta}], oldsymbol{B}_{lpha:}$ $[-] \cdot [|||] = [-]$ ijk dot view → [S-S:dot M-columnV $[oldsymbol{A}_{lpha:}],oldsymbol{X}_{:eta},oldsymbol{B}_{:eta}$ $[\equiv] \cdot [\parallel] = [\parallel]$ dot view ↓→ jik $oldsymbol{A}_{lpha:}, [oldsymbol{X}_{eta:}], oldsymbol{B}_{lpha:}$ $[_]gaxpy[\equiv] = [_]$ ikj S-rowV:saxpy rowV-M:gaxpy useOfA → [$\begin{array}{c} [|||]gaxpy[|] = [|] \\ \sum [||outProd[_|] = \sum [\equiv] \end{array}$ jki colV-S:saxpy M-colV:gaxpy $[oldsymbol{A}_{:lpha}],oldsymbol{X}_{:eta},oldsymbol{B}_{:lpha}$ useOfB ↓→ $egin{aligned} oldsymbol{A}_{:lpha}, oldsymbol{X}_{eta:}, \sum oldsymbol{B}_{row} \ oldsymbol{A}_{:lpha}, oldsymbol{X}_{eta:}, \sum oldsymbol{B}_{col} \end{aligned}$ S-rowV:saxpy colV-rowV:outP on $A \mid outProd \rightharpoonup$ kij $\sum[|]outProd[_] = \sum[|||]$ colV-rowV:outP on $X \mid outProd \rightharpoonup$ kji colV-S:saxpy

Table 2.1: $A_{ik}X_{kj} = B_{ij}$

Table 2.2: $\boldsymbol{A}_{ik}\boldsymbol{X}_{kj} = \boldsymbol{B}_{ij}$

Order	InnerLoop	MiddleLoop	OuterLoop
ijk	(rowV, colV) = S	(rowV,[colV]) = rowV	collection
jik	(rowV, colV) = S	([rowV], colV) = rowV	collection
ikj	(S, colV) = colV	$(rowV, [colV]) = \sum colV$	collection
jki	(colV, S) = colV	$([colV], colV) = \sum colV$	collection
kij	(S, rowV) = rowV	(colV, rowV) = [rowV]	collection and $\sum [rowV]$
kji	(colV, S) = colV	(colV, rowV) = [colV]	collection and $\sum [colV]$

 $^{^{1}\}sum$ comes with k.

2.0.1.4 Transposition

Defination: $a_{ij}^T = a_{ji}$

Proposition 2.1.
$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

Proof:
$$L = (a_{ik}b_{kj})^T = c_{ij}^T = c_{ji} = b_{jk}a_{ki} = R \square$$

Proposition 2.2. We take a look a the product with reflect $T: x \to T \cdot x$. $(Tx)^T Ty =$ $\boldsymbol{x}^T(\boldsymbol{T}^T\boldsymbol{T})\boldsymbol{y} = [(\boldsymbol{T}\boldsymbol{T}^T)\boldsymbol{x}]^T\boldsymbol{y}. \ 0 \leqslant \|\boldsymbol{T}\boldsymbol{T}^T\| < 1, \ \boldsymbol{T} \ is \ a \ contractive \ mapping.$

2.0.2operation

2.0.2.1 procuct

$$Ax = y$$

2.0.2.2 dot procuct AX = B

Focus on each element of B.

2.0.2.2.1 vector vector for vector, $x \cdot y = x^T y$,

¹ S for scalar, V for vector, M for matrix; colV for column vector; outP for out product.

 $[\]begin{array}{l} ^{2}\left[-\right]gaxpy[\equiv]=\left[-\right] \text{ is } \sum[\cdot]gaxpy[-]=\sum[-]. \\ ^{3}\left[|||]gaxpy[|]=\left[|\right] \text{ is } \sum[|]gaxpy[\cdot]=\sum[|]. \end{array}$

2.0.2.2.2 matrix matrix for matrix, this is the definition of the multiplication of the matrix, $A_{mn} * B_{mn} = [a_{ij} \cdot b_{ij}]_{mn}$

2.0.2.3 outer procuct AX = B

Focus on each element of X, with X is seperated as row by row.

2.0.2.3.1 vector vector
$$AX = B$$
 $xy^T := [x_i]_{m1} \cdot [y_j]_{1n} = [x_iy_j]_{mn}$

In row view, we have $i \to: \mathbf{A}_{i:} = x_i \cdot \mathbf{y}^T$, this notation means that for each i, we do the follows. And $\mathbf{A}_{i:}$ means the ith row of the row separation of \mathbf{A}

In column view, we have $j \to : \mathbf{A}_{:j} = \mathbf{x} \cdot y_j$

2.0.2.3.2 matrix matrix [|||]outerProduct[-] = [], we just sum each matrix M, where M = [||outerProduct[-]|.

$$X_{mk} \cdot Y_{kn} = k \rightarrow: outerProduct \ of(X_{:k}, Y_{k:})$$

We carefully focus on the use of each element of the matrix Y, like $A_{11}, A_{12}, A_{13}, \cdots$, we can see it is true.

2.0.2.3.3 question

Question 2.1. power function 001 solve $(xy^T)^k$. If k=1, easy. if k>1, and $=(y^Tx)^{k-1}xy^T$

Question 2.2. power function 002

solve $(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T)^k, X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}$. Same trick like power function 001.

2.0.2.4 saxpi

2.0.2.4.1 scalar scalar y = ax + y

2.0.2.4.2 scalar vector $y = a \cdot x + y$

2.0.2.4.3 matrix vector $y = A \cdot x + y$

2.0.2.4.3.1 view row: $[-] \cdot | = [-]$ This is the basic view of the dot product of the matrix. in view row first, we have:

Algorithm 1: saxpyMatrixVectorRowAlgo1

 $egin{aligned} ext{Input:} & A_{mn}, x, y \ ext{Output:} & y \end{aligned}$

1 Initialization: i = 0, j = 0;

2 for
$$i \leftarrow 0$$
 to $m-1$ do

3 | for
$$j \leftarrow 0$$
 to $n-1$ do
4 | $y_i \leftarrow A_{ij}x_j + y_i$
5 | end

6 end

7 return y;

We separate \mathbf{A} as row, $\mathbf{A}_{mn} = [\mathbf{r}_i^T, ...]^T$, the j range can be shinked, the algorithm is as follows. This means that, we operate each row at a time, and think each row is one whole object.

Algorithm 2: saxpyMatrixVectorRowAlgo2

Input: $A_{mn} = [r_i^T, ...]^T, x, y$

Output: y

- 1 Initialization: i = 0, j = 0;
- 2 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to m-1 do

$$y_i \leftarrow \boldsymbol{r}_i^T \cdot \boldsymbol{x} + y_i$$

4 end

5 return y;

2.0.2.4.3.2 view column: [|||]outerProduct[$_$] = [] $A_{mn}x = y$, we separate A column by column, x row by row, use outer product, focus on the use of x.

in column view, we add each column of A to the same output column to get the new y, and the weight of each column comes from each row of x

Algorithm 3: saxpyMatrixVectorColumnAlgo1

Input: A_{mn}, x, y

Output: y

- 1 Initialization: i = 0, j = 0;
- 2 for $j \leftarrow 0$ to n-1 do

$$egin{array}{c|cccc} \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{for} \ i \leftarrow 0 \ \mathbf{to} \ m-1 \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{4} & y_i \leftarrow A_{ij}x_j + y_i \\ \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{end} \end{array}$$

6 end

7 return y;

Also with column separation of $A_{mn} = [c_i, ...]$, we have the vector view algorithm:

Algorithm 4: saxpyMatrixVectorColumnAlgo2

Input: $A_{mn} = [c_i, ...], x, y$

Output: y

1 Initialization: i = 0, j = 0;

2 for
$$j \leftarrow 0$$
 to $n-1$ do

$$m{y} \leftarrow m{c}_i \cdot x_j + m{y}$$

- 4 end
- 5 return y;

2.0.3 geometry properties

2.0.3.1 orthogonal bases

2.0.3.2 Gram-Schmidt Algorithm

In 1907, Erhard Schmidt introduced an orthogonalization algoritm, and he claimed the procedure was essentially the same as a paper by J. P. Gram in 1883.

2.0.3.2.1 description form an orthogonal sequence q_n from a linearly independent sequence x_n of members from inner-product space by defining q_n inductively as:

$$m{q}_1 = m{x}_1, m{q}_n = m{x}_n - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} rac{}{||m{q}_k||^2} m{q}_k, n \geqslant 2.$$

2.0.3.2.2 proof the construction is like this, first we have $q_1 = x_1$, then $q_2 = x_2 - k_1 q_1$.

for now, we have $span(\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2) = span(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$. With constraints $\langle \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \rangle = 0, k_1 = \frac{\langle \mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{x}_n \rangle}{||\mathbf{q}_1||^2}$. Keep doing, like

 $q_3 = x_3 - k_1 q_1 - k_2 q_2$. From the construction, we can see it is right.

数学归纳法 (Mathematical Induction, MI)

2.0.3.2.3 QR factorization the construction is like this:

$$[m{a}_1,m{a}_2,\cdots,m{a}_n] = [m{q}_1,m{q}_2,\cdots,m{q}_n] \cdot egin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \ & r_{22} & & \ & & \ddots & \ 0 & 0 & 0 & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

2.0.3.2.4 least squares problems

- ${\bf 2.0.3.2.5} \quad {\bf projection \ problem}$
- $\mathbf{2.0.3.2.6} \quad \text{example}$
- 2.0.3.2.7 exercises

Chapter 3 Linear System

Normally, we consider vector space over the fields of real or complex numbers.

3.0.1 linear equation Ax = B

3.0.1.1 Defination

linear equation in n variables. $\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} a_i x^i = b$, which can be written as $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} = b$. We collect m equations and write like this:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_{1}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{a}_{m}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{m} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(3.1)$$

Noticed that x_1 is only applied to the first column of the left matrix, we can say that \mathbf{x} is one point, or a specific composition, of the space spanned by the column vector of the matrix. Then it is easy to see that this equation has the solution, only if the vector \mathbf{b} is in the space spanned by the column vector of the matrix.

Or we can write like this:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ & \ddots & \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(3.2)$$

The equation Ax = b has solution, means y 可由 A 的列向量线性表出。

If b = 0, called homogeneous linear equations, homogeneous because 所有非 0 项是 1 次的。 if $b \neq 0$, it is inhomogeneous. 显然 0 向量 (zero solution, or trivial solution) 是一个解. A 的列向量正交,只有零解;若 A 的列向量线性相关,有多解,即可按多种方式回到原点。

3.0.1.2 Number of solution

3.0.1.2.1 非齐次线性 n 元线性方程组解的个数等解集结构的研究,期待在不求解的情况下有所了解,就需要研究系数矩阵表示的 n 维向量空间的性质。

构造增广矩阵 [A,b] 后,初等行变换化为阶梯型,如??所示,解的个数讨论。

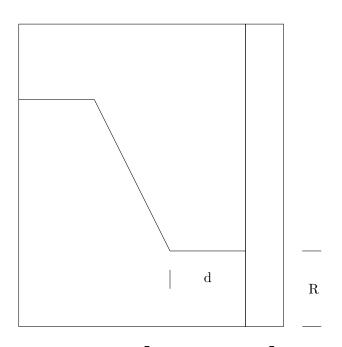


Figure 3.1: [number of solution]

总共有 n+1 列, 下面 r 行都是 0.

(1)d=0, 即最后一个个主元在第 n+1 列, 即存在方程 0=1, 无解, no solution。

(2)d=1, 即最后一个个主元在第 n 列, 唯一解, one solution, $tr A_{mn}=m$ 。

(3)d > 1,即最后一个个主元在第 t 列,t < n。高度 R 所在的行号记为 r。有无穷个解。解可以这样写出,共 R 行,即 R 个主元,每个主元都用所在行的常数项 d 和 n-r 个自由元表示出来。

根据主元的构造过程, t 的列号一定大于等于 r。

当 A_{ii} 都是主元的时候, $d \neq 1$, $tr A_{mn} < m$, inifinity solution,最后一行是解的超平面方程,图中 d 是解的维度, $d = n - tr A_{mn}$,如 d 为 3,有 3 列独立的,即解空间是三维的。齐次方程组的未知数个数大于方程个数,有无数解。

 $\det \mathbf{A} = 0$, no solution, or infinite solution. $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$, one solution.

3.0.1.2.2 齐次线性 一定有 0 解,因而当有非 0 解时,有无穷个解。n 列时,系数矩阵的秩 r < n。

方程个数 s < n 时,由于 $r \le s < n$,易知有无穷个解。

3.0.2 solve equation

 $A_{mn}x = y$ 求解方法,如消元法、迭代法等。

3.0.2.1 elimination 消元法

3.0.2.1.1 Gaussian Elimination 基础步骤的 O(n) 的,但是最终组合起来就是 $O(n^3)$ 的。 利用初等变换化(同解变换)为"阶梯形(或称上三角形)". 从下往上回代。

阶梯型: 1) 0 行在下方; 2) 每行首个非 0 元的列号随行号增大而严格增大。

简化阶梯型: 1) 阶梯型; 2) 主元是 1; 3) 主元所在列其他元素是 0.

简化阶梯型后,可直接写出一般解,如下方程,其中主变量是 x_1,x_3 ,其余是自由未知量。

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.3)

 $Ans: x_1 = x_2 + 2; x_3 = -1$

3.0.3 排列

3.0.3.0.1 偶排列 如 2431, 顺序对有 24, 23, 逆序对有 21, 43, 41, 31, 逆序数是 4, 记为 $\tau(2431) = 4$, 是偶数则为偶排列。

Lemma 3.1. 对换改变奇偶性, 如 2431 是偶排列, 对换 4 和 1 后得到的 2134 是奇排列。证明: 对换 ab,

若 ab 相邻:偏序函数原来查询 (ab),记为 P(a,b),对换后改为 P(b,a),反号,而 b 更后面的元素相关的查询不受影响,因而改变符号;

若 ab 不相邻: 记为 $ax_1\cdots x_tb$, 经过 t 次对换变为 $x_1\cdots x_tab$, 经过 t+1 次对换变为 $bx_1\cdots x_ta$, 即改变符号。若 ab 不相邻, 还可以这样考虑: 对换前后,与 a 和 b 有关的查询为 $(a,[x_i,b]),(x_i,b)$, 对换后即将其中 a 和 b 互换, 影响的查询共有 2t+1 个, 即改变符号。即证。

Chapter 4 Eigenvalue problem

4.0.1 Eigenvalue of Linear transformation

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4.0.2 Eigenvalue of special matrix

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4.0.3 最小多项式

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4.0.4 圆盘定理

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$Chapter \, 5 \quad polynomial$

因式分解定理, 多项式的根, 多元多项式。

$Chapter\, 6 \quad operation$

代数运算、分块运算、乘法、秩

Chapter 7 Transformation

坐标变换、像与核、特征向量、特征子空间、商空间 正交变换规范变换 酉相似

7.0.1 Elementary Transformation

初等变换。

- 1) 交换两行: $A \xrightarrow{(i,j)} B$
- 2) 某行乘以不为 0 的数: $\mathbf{A} \xrightarrow{\lambda(i)} \mathbf{B}$
- 3) 某行乘以不为 0 的数加到另一行上: $\mathbf{A} \xrightarrow{\lambda(i)+(j)} \mathbf{B}$ 初等矩阵: 单位矩阵执行一系列初等变换得到的矩阵. 初等变换作用于矩阵 \mathbf{A} , 等于初等变换作用于单位阵之后得到的初等矩阵 \mathbf{E} 再作用于 \mathbf{A} .

7.0.2 Linear Transformation

线性变换

7.0.3 Base Transformation

[Defination: similarity] Transformation Simplification

The motivation is about the base. Changing the bases of a transformation can help simplify the computation. We want to compute $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}$, in current base, \mathbf{B} is difficult to compute, we have a simple transformation \mathbf{A} , and we want to find a good base transformation \mathbf{P} where we have $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}$, therefore we have $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}$. If $\exists \mathbf{P}$, we note as $\mathbf{A} \sim \mathbf{B}$.

Lemma 7.1. If $A \sim B$, then $\lambda_A = \lambda_B$.

[Prove] We use the defination of λ_A , for \mathbf{x} , we have $\mathbf{PBP}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \lambda_A\mathbf{x}$, which means $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_A(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_B(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{x})$ \square .

For the simpest A is diag.

Chapter 8 正交矩阵和酉矩阵

8.1 Orthogonal matrix

$$A^T A = A A^T = I$$

which means, $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$

For complex matrix, we use conjugate transpose, and note as Unitary matrix.

8.2 Orthogonal Bases

8.2.1 GS 正交化

8.2.2 Householder Reflection

point p, hyperplane with normal n, the reflection of p about the plane:

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{q} &= oldsymbol{p} - 2 < oldsymbol{p}, oldsymbol{n} > oldsymbol{n} \ &= (oldsymbol{I} - 2 oldsymbol{n} oldsymbol{n}^T) oldsymbol{p} \ &= oldsymbol{H} oldsymbol{p} \end{aligned}$$

 $m{H}$ is Householder matrix.

Lemma 8.1. H is orthogonal.

[prove]

$$(\boldsymbol{H})_{ij} = \begin{cases} -2n_i n_j, & i \neq j \\ 1 - 2n_i n_j, & i = j \end{cases}$$

we calculate $c = ((\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{H})(\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{H}^T))_{ij}$. For $i \neq j$, we have,

$$c = + (-n_i n_0)(-n_j n_0) + \cdots$$

$$+ (\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i)(-n_j n_i) + \cdots$$

$$+ (-n_i n_j)(\frac{1}{2} - n_j n_j) + \cdots$$

$$+ (-n_i n_{n-1})(-n_j n_{n-1}) = 0$$

For i = j, we have,

$$c = + (-n_i n_0)(-n_i n_0) + \cdots$$

$$+ (\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i)(\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i) + \cdots$$

$$+ (-n_i n_{n-1})(-n_i n_{n-1}) = \frac{1}{4} \quad \Box.$$

8.2.3 Application

When we need the reflection collinear to the vector $\mathbf{e}_1 = [1, 0, \cdots, 0]^T$, the normal of the reflection superplane is

$$m{n} = rac{m{p} - ||m{p}||m{e}_1}{||m{p} - ||m{p}||m{e}_1||}$$

and

$$m{H_1}m{A} = egin{bmatrix} lpha_1 & & \cdots & \ 0 & & \ dots & m{A_1'} \ 0 & & \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} lpha_1 & & \ 0 & m{A_1''} \ dots & \ 0 & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$m{H}_k = egin{bmatrix} m{I}_{k-1} & 0 \ 0 & m{H}_k' \end{bmatrix}, m{T}_k = egin{bmatrix} m{I}_{k-1} & 0 \ 0 & m{H}_k'' \end{bmatrix}$$

where \mathbf{H}'_k is the Householder of \mathbf{A}'_k , it is obviously orthogonal. And we have $\mathbf{H}_n \cdots \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}$, therefore we have the QR decomposition of \mathbf{A}

$$A = H_1^T \cdots H_n^T R = QR$$

We want to rewrite each line, we can apply a householder \mathbf{H} to $\mathbf{A}_k''^T$, and then transpolate the result, $(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{A}_k''^T)^T = \mathbf{A}_k''\mathbf{H}$, we mark the row-Householder as \mathbf{T} , and we have

$$H_n \cdots H_1 A T_2 \cdots T_n = B$$

where B is the bidiagonal, therefore,

$$oldsymbol{A} = oldsymbol{H}_1^T \cdots oldsymbol{H}_n^T oldsymbol{B} oldsymbol{T}_n^T \cdots oldsymbol{T}_2^T$$

.

$Chapter\,9\quad special\ matrix$

- 9.1 schur 定理
- 9.2 正规矩阵
- 9.3 实对称矩阵和 Hermite 矩阵

$Chapter\,10\quad Decomposition$

10.1 Transformation Decomposition

If we have $y = Bx = P^{-1}APx = U\Sigma U^Tx$, where U is rotation or reflection, Σ is scaling, the transformation is simplified.

10.2 Eigen Decomposition

For square matrix.

10.2.1 Defination by transformation

 $A = U\Sigma U^{-1}$, where U is rotation or reflection, Σ is scaling.

10.2.2 Defination by defination

For the given transformation A, if $\exists v, \lambda$, such that $Av = \lambda v$, and maybe we have some equations with different λ , we collect as λ as a diagonal matrix, and the equations as $AQ = Q\lambda$, where $Q = [v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}]$, therefore we have $A = Q\lambda Q^T$, we call this is the Eigen Decomposition of A.

10.3 QR

10.4 SVD: Singular Value Decomposition

10.4.1 Defination

When the matrix is not square, the form $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$.

Lemma 10.1.
$$C$$
 is the Gram matrix of A , $\Sigma^2 = \lambda_C$

$$[Prove] C = A^T A = V \Sigma U^T U \Sigma V^T = V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

10.4.2 Algorithm 1: QR

```
Algorithm 5: SVD:QR
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```
Input: A_{mn}
```

Output: U, Σ, V

1
$$C = A^T A$$
;

2 use symmetric QR: $C = V \Sigma^2 V^T$;

з
$$oldsymbol{U} = oldsymbol{AV}oldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1};$$

4 return U, Σ, V ;

Chapter 11 Form

11.0.1 Jordan

Jordan 型、根子空间分解、循环子空间、多项式矩阵相抵不变量、特征方阵与相似标准型

11.0.1.1 不变子空间

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11.0.1.2 特征值全 0 矩阵的 Jordan 标准型

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11.0.1.3 Jordan 标准型计算

11.0.2 二次

配方法构造、对称方阵的相合、相合不变量

Chapter 12 参考文献说明

《矩阵理论-陈大新》[?]: 好的观点的来源。