

09-04-05-04-MatrixTheory

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Chapter 1 Overall

Matrix Theory

Augmented matrix

Chapter 2 Matrix Space

2.0.1 Matrix

2.0.1.1 Defination

If we have a serious of \mathbf{x} , we have a serious of \mathbf{b} , like this:

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

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

in representation, $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + i\mathbf{B}$. Usually 4 real matrix multiplications are needed to calculate $(\mathbf{C} + i\mathbf{D})(\mathbf{E} + i\mathbf{F})$, actually 3 multiplications are enough. $(\mathbf{C} + i\mathbf{D})(\mathbf{E} + i\mathbf{F}) = (\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{D})(\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{F}) + \mathbf{CF} - \mathbf{DE} + i(\mathbf{DE} + \mathbf{CF})$

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

$$\begin{aligned} i : | \cdot &= | \\ k : [|] &= \sum | \\ j : [|] [|] &= [|] \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

We collect the 6 vews into one table as fallows.

Table 2.1: $\mathbf{A}_{ik}\mathbf{X}_{kj} = \mathbf{B}_{ij}$

Order	innerLoop	MiddleLoop	dataAccess	view	comment
ijk	S-S:dot	rowV-M	$\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}, [\mathbf{X}_{:\beta}], \mathbf{B}_{\alpha:}$	$[-] \cdot [] = [-]$	dot view $\rightarrow \downarrow$
jik	S-S:dot	M-columnV	$[\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}], \mathbf{X}_{:\beta}, \mathbf{B}_{\beta:}$	$[=] \cdot [] = []$	dot view $\downarrow \rightarrow$
ikj	S-rowV:saxpy	rowV-M:gaxpy	$\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}, [\mathbf{X}_{\beta:}], \mathbf{B}_{\alpha:}$	$[-]gaxpy[=] = [-]$	useOfA $\rightarrow \downarrow$
jki	colV-S:saxpy	M-colV:gaxpy	$[\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}], \mathbf{X}_{:\beta}, \mathbf{B}_{\alpha:}$	$[]gaxpy[] = []$	useOfB $\downarrow \rightarrow$
kij	S-rowV:saxpy	colV-rowV:outP	$\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}, \mathbf{X}_{\beta:}, \sum \mathbf{B}_{row}$	$\sum []outProd[-] = \sum [=]$	on A $\downarrow outProd \rightarrow$
kji	colV-S:saxpy	colV-rowV:outP	$\mathbf{A}_{\alpha:}, \mathbf{X}_{\beta:}, \sum \mathbf{B}_{col}$	$\sum []outProd[-] = \sum []$	on X $\downarrow outProd \rightarrow$

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

² $[-]gaxpy[=] = [-]$ is $\sum [\cdot]gaxpy[-] = \sum [-]$.

³ $[|||]gaxpy[||] = [||]$ is $\sum [||]gaxpy[\cdot] = \sum [||]$.

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

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

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 $T : \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{x}$. $(\mathbf{T}\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{T}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{T}) \mathbf{y} = [(\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}^T) \mathbf{x}]^T \mathbf{y}$. $0 \leq \|\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}^T\| < 1$, \mathbf{T} is a contractive mapping.

2.0.2 operation

2.0.2.1 product

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$$

2.0.2.2 dot product $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$

Focus on each element of B.

2.0.2.2.1 vector vector for vector, $\mathbf{x} * \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$,

2.0.2.2.2 matrix matrix for matrix, this is the definition of the multiplication of the matrix,
 $\mathbf{A}_{mn} \cdot \mathbf{B}_{mn} = [a_{ij} \cdot b_{ij}]_{mn}$

2.0.2.3 outer product $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$

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

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

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

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

2.0.2.3.2 matrix matrix `[[[]]]outerProduct[-] = []`, we just sum each matrix \mathbf{M} , where $\mathbf{M} = [[]]outerProduct[-]$.

$\mathbf{X}_{mk} \cdot \mathbf{Y}_{kn} = k \rightarrow: outerProduct\ of(\mathbf{X}_{:,k}, \mathbf{Y}_{k:})$

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

2.0.2.3.3 question

Question 2.1. *power function 001 solve $(\mathbf{xy}^T)^k$. If $k=1$, easy. if $k>1$, ans = $(\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x})^{k-1} \mathbf{xy}^T$*

Question 2.2. *power function 002*

solve $(\mathbf{XY}^T)^k, X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}$. 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 $y = \mathbf{A} \cdot x + y$

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

Input: $A_{mn}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ **Output:** \mathbf{y}

```

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  $\mathbf{y}$ ;
```

We separate \mathbf{A} as row, $\mathbf{A}_{mn} = [\mathbf{r}_i^T, \dots]^T$, 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: $\mathbf{A}_{mn} = [\mathbf{r}_i^T, \dots]^T, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ **Output:** \mathbf{y}

```

1 Initialization:  $i = 0, j = 0$ ;
2 for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $m - 1$  do
3    $y_i \leftarrow \mathbf{r}_i^T \cdot \mathbf{x} + y_i$ 
4 end
5 return  $\mathbf{y}$ ;
```

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

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

Algorithm 3: saxpyMatrixVectorColumnAlgo1

Input: $\mathbf{A}_{mn}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ **Output:** \mathbf{y}

```

1 Initialization:  $i = 0, j = 0$ ;
2 for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
3   for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $m - 1$  do
4      $y_i \leftarrow A_{ij}x_j + y_i$ 
5   end
6 end
7 return  $\mathbf{y}$ ;
```

Also with column separation of $\mathbf{A}_{mn} = [\mathbf{c}_i, \dots]$, we have the vector view algorithm:

Algorithm 4: saxpyMatrixVectorColumnAlgo2

Input: $\mathbf{A}_{mn} = [\mathbf{c}_i, \dots], \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$

Output: \mathbf{y}

```

1 Initialization:  $i = 0, j = 0$ ;
2 for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
3    $\mathbf{y} \leftarrow \mathbf{c}_i \cdot x_j + \mathbf{y}$ 
4 end
5 return  $\mathbf{y}$ ;
```

2.0.3 properties

2.0.3.1 geometry properties

2.0.3.2 4 subspace

$R(\mathbf{A})$: \mathbf{A} 的列空间

$N(\mathbf{A})$: \mathbf{A} 的右零空间, 即满足 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ 的所有 \mathbf{x} 在的空间

$R(\mathbf{A}^T)$: \mathbf{A} 的行空间

$N(\mathbf{A}^T)$: \mathbf{A} 的左零空间

Lemma 2.1. $N(\mathbf{A}) = R(\mathbf{A}^T)^\perp$

proof: $\forall \mathbf{x} \in N(\mathbf{A}), \boldsymbol{\beta} \in R(\mathbf{A}^T)$, we have $\mathbf{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\beta} = 0$, which means that $\mathbf{x} \in R(\mathbf{A}^T)^\perp$, \square .

Chapter 3 Linear System

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

3.0.1 linear equation $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{B}$

3.0.1.1 Defination

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_m^T \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.1)$$

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:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ & \ddots & \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.2)$$

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

If $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$, called homogeneous linear equations, homogeneous because 所有非 0 项是 1 次的。if $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$, 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。

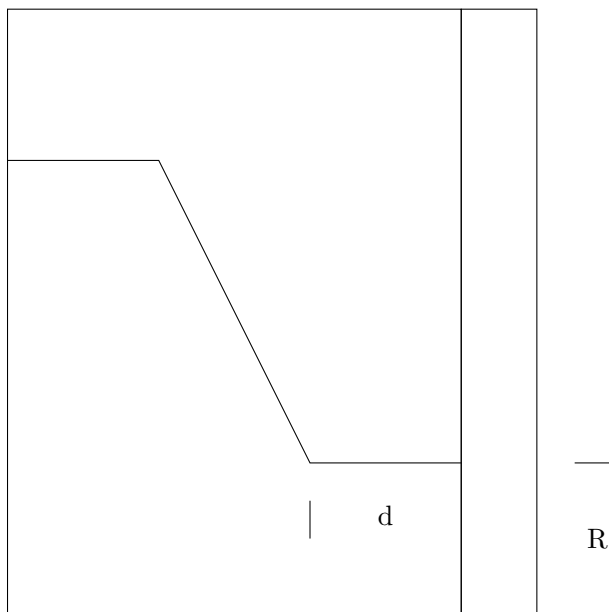


Figure 3.1: 【number of solution】

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*, $\text{tr} \mathbf{A}_{mn} = m$.
- (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, $d \neq 1$, $\text{tr} \mathbf{A}_{mn} < m$, *infinity solution*, 最后一行是解的超平面方程, 图中 d 是解的维度, $d = n - \text{tr} \mathbf{A}_{mn}$, 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 $r \leq s < n$, 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。

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

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

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 $ax_1 \cdots x_t b$, 经过 t 次对换变为 $x_1 \cdots x_t ab$, 经过 $t+1$ 次对换变为 $bx_1 \cdots x_t a$, 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

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

4.0.2 Eigenvalue of special matrix

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

4.0.3 最小多项式

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

4.0.4 圆盘定理

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

Chapter 5 polynomial

因式分解定理，多项式的根，多元多项式。

Chapter 6 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: $A \xrightarrow{\lambda(i)} B$

3) 某行乘以不为 0 的数加到另一行上: $A \xrightarrow{\lambda(i)+(j)} B$

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 A , 等于初等变换作用于单位阵之后得到的初等矩阵 E 再作用于 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 $y = Bx$, in current base, B is difficult to compute, we have a simple transformation A , and we want to find a good base transformation P where we have $Py = APx$, therefore we have $B = P^{-1}AP$. If $\exists P$, we note as $A \sim B$.

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

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

For the simplest \mathbf{A} is diag.

Chapter 8 Orthogonal

8.1 Orthogonal matrix

正交矩阵和酉矩阵

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

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 Gram-Schmidt Algorithm: GS 正交化

normalize a given set $\{\alpha_i\}$ to $\{\beta_i\}$, such that $\beta_i \beta_j = 0, \forall i, j$, and $\text{span}\{\alpha_i\} = \text{span}\{\beta_i\}$

Algorithm 5: Algorithm Normalize:GS

Input: $\{\alpha_i\}$

Output: a normalized base $\{\beta_i\}$

1 $\beta_1 = \alpha_1;$

2 $\beta_2 = \alpha_2 - k_1 \beta_1;$

3 let $\beta_1 \beta_2 = 0 \Rightarrow k_1 = \frac{\beta_1 \alpha_2}{\beta_1 \beta_1};$

4 keep doing, we have

$$\beta_k = \alpha_k - \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\beta_i \alpha_k}{\beta_i \beta_i} \beta_i$$

return $\{\beta_i\};$

8.2.1.1 description

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

form an orthogonal sequence \mathbf{q}_n from a linearly independent sequence \mathbf{x}_n of members from inner-product space by defining \mathbf{q}_n inductively as:

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{q}_n = \mathbf{x}_n - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{\langle \mathbf{q}_k, \mathbf{x}_n \rangle}{\|\mathbf{q}_k\|^2} \mathbf{q}_k, n \geq 2.$$

8.2.1.2 proof

the construction is like this, first we have $\mathbf{q}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1$, then $\mathbf{q}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - k_1 \mathbf{q}_1$.

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

Keep doing, like

$\mathbf{q}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 - k_1 \mathbf{q}_1 - k_2 \mathbf{q}_2$. From the construction, we can see it is right.

数学归纳法 (Mathematical Induction, MI)

8.2.1.3 least squares problems

8.2.1.4 projection problem

8.2.1.5 example

8.2.1.6 exercises

8.2.2 Householder Reflection

point \mathbf{p} , hyperplane with normal \mathbf{n} , the reflection of \mathbf{p} about the plane:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{q} &= \mathbf{p} - 2 \langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{n} \rangle \mathbf{n} \\ &= (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{n}\mathbf{n}^T)\mathbf{p} \\ &= \mathbf{H}\mathbf{p} \end{aligned}$$

\mathbf{H} is Householder matrix.

Lemma 8.1. \mathbf{H} is orthogonal.

[prove]

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} c &= +(-n_i n_0)(-n_j n_0) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i)(-n_j n_i) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-n_i n_j)(\frac{1}{2} - n_j n_j) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-n_i n_{n-1})(-n_j n_{n-1}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

For $i = j$, we have,

$$\begin{aligned} c &= +(-n_i n_0)(-n_i n_0) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i)(\frac{1}{2} - n_i n_i) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-n_i n_{n-1})(-n_i n_{n-1}) = \frac{1}{4} \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

8.2.3 Application

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

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{p} - \|\mathbf{p}\|\mathbf{e}_1}{\|\mathbf{p} - \|\mathbf{p}\|\mathbf{e}_1\|}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{A} &= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \cdots \\ 0 & \\ \vdots & \mathbf{A}'_1 \\ 0 & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \\ 0 & \mathbf{A}''_1 \\ \vdots & \\ 0 & \cdots \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{H}_k &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{k-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{H}'_k \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{T}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{k-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{H}''_k \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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}

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{H}_1^T \cdots \mathbf{H}_n^T \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R}$$

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

$$\mathbf{H}_n \cdots \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{T}_2 \cdots \mathbf{T}_n = \mathbf{B},$$

where \mathbf{B} is the bidiagonal, therefore,

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

.

Chapter 9 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 *Decomposition*

10.1 Transformation Decomposition

If we have $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{x}$, where \mathbf{U} is rotation or reflection, $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ is scaling, the transformation is simplified.

10.2 Eigen Decomposition

For square matrix.

10.2.1 Defination by transformation

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

10.2.2 Defination by defination

For the given transformation \mathbf{A} , if $\exists \mathbf{v}, \lambda$, such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$, and maybe we have some equations with different λ , we collect as $\mathbf{\lambda}$ as a diagonal matrix, and the equations as $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\lambda}$, where $\mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}]$, therefore we have $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\lambda}\mathbf{Q}^T$, we call this is the Eigen Decomposition of \mathbf{A} .

10.3 QR

10.3.0.0.1 QR factorization the construction is like this:

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

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. \mathbf{C} is the Gram matrix of \mathbf{A} , $\mathbf{\Sigma}^2 = \lambda_{\mathbf{C}}$

[Prove] $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^2 \mathbf{V}^T$ □.

10.4.2 Algorithm 1: QR

Algorithm 6: SVD:QR

Input: \mathbf{A}_{mn}

Output: $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{\Sigma}, \mathbf{V}$

- 1 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A};$
 - 2 use symmetric QR: $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^2 \mathbf{V}^T;$
 - 3 $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1};$
 - 4 return $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{\Sigma}, \mathbf{V};$
-

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

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

11.0.1.2 特征值全 0 矩阵的 *Jordan* 标准型

《矩阵理论-陈大新》

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》^[7]：好的观点的来源。