# Linear Algebra

In this section, we present some linear algebra results that are useful in the context of this course. For more information, you can refer to the MAT-1200 course, Deisenroth, Faisal, and Ong (2020) (in English), and Grifone (2024) (in French).

# 1 Some matrix properties

Let  $M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$  be the set of matrices with n rows and m columns whose entries belong to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be the set of square matrices of size n, i.e., with n rows and n columns whose entries belong to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let M, N, and P be matrices in  $M_{n,m}(\mathbb{R})$ . Let A and B be matrices in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . Let  $I_n$  be the identity matrix of size n, i.e., containing 1s on the diagonal and 0s on the elements outside the diagonal. Let u and v in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e., column vectors of size n.

# Properties of the inverse of matrices

Suppose that the matrices A and B are invertible. Then the matrix product AB is invertible and is given by:

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}.$$

# Proof

Let C = AB and  $D = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ . Then

$$\begin{split} CD &= ABB^{-1}A^{-1} \\ &= AA^{-1} \\ &= I_n \end{split}$$

Similarly, we find that  $DC = I_n$ . Thus, AB is invertible and its inverse is given by  $B^{-1}A^{-1}$ .

# Properties of the determinant of matrices

Considering the matrices defined at the beginning of the section, we have:

- 1.  $\det(A^{\top}) = \det(A)$ ,
- 2. det(AB) = det(A)det(B),
- 3.  $\det(A^{-1}) = 1/\det(A)$ .

# Proof

The proofs of properties 1 and 2 are technical and are omitted, but can be found, for example, here. As for the third property, by definition, we have  $AA^{-1} = I_n$ . The determinant of  $I_n$  is equal to 1 (product of the elements on the diagonal). Therefore,  $\det(AA^{-1}) = 1$ . However, according to the second property,  $\det(AA^{-1}) = \det(A)\det(A^{-1})$ . We therefore have  $\det(A^{-1}) = 1/\det(A)$ .

### Properties of the trace of matrices

Considering the matrices defined at the beginning of the section, we have:

- 1.  $tr(A) = tr(A^{\top}),$
- 2. tr(A + B) = tr(A) + tr(B),
- 3.  $\operatorname{tr}(MN^{\top}) = \operatorname{tr}(N^{\top}M)$ .

#### Proof

For a square matrix A, let  $a_{ij}$  be the element of matrix A in row i and column j. The trace of A is given by the sum of the diagonal elements, i.e.  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$ .

- 1. Since transposition does not change the diagonal elements, the result is straightforward.
- 2. Let C=A+B. Since A and B are square matrices, C is a square matrix. We have  $c_{ij}=a_{ij}+b_{ij}$  for all  $i,j=1,\ldots,n$ . Therefore

$$\operatorname{tr}(A+B) = \operatorname{tr}(C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} + b_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ii} = \operatorname{tr}(A) + \operatorname{tr}(B).$$

3. The matrices  $MN^{\top}$  and  $N^{\top}M$  are square, with dimensions  $n \times n$  and  $m \times m$ 

respectively, so we can calculate their traces. Let  $C = MN^{\top}$  and  $D = N^{\top}M$ .

$$\operatorname{tr}(MN^\top) = \operatorname{tr}(C) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m m_{ij} n_{ji} = \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^n n_{ji} m_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^m d_{jj} = \operatorname{tr}(D) = \operatorname{tr}(N^\top M).$$

#### Definition

- 1. Let A be a symmetric matrix in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . A is **positive definite** if  $u^{\top}Au > 0$  for all  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $u \neq 0$ .
- 2. Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . A is **orthogonal** if  $A^{\top}A = AA^{\top} = I_n$ .

# 2 Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

#### Definition

Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . We say that  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an **eigenvalue** of A if there exists a nonzero vector  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$Au = \lambda u. \tag{1}$$

The vector u is called an **eigenvector** of A corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . The set of real numbers  $\lambda$  satisfying Equation 1 is called the **spectrum** of the matrix A and is denoted by  $\operatorname{sp}(A)$ .

## Property of eigenvectors

- 1. If u is an eigenvector of A corresponding to an eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then the vector cu,  $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$  is also an eigenvector of A corresponding to  $\lambda$ .
- 2. If A is symmetric and  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues of A, then  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are orthogonal, i.e.  $u_1^{\top}u_2 = 0$ .

#### Proof

1. Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$  and u be an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . We have:

$$A(cu) = cAu = c\lambda u = \lambda(cu).$$

Therefore, the vector cu is also an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

2. Let  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  be the eigenvalues associated with  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ , such that  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ . We

have  $Au_1 = \lambda_1 u_1$  and  $Au_2 = \lambda_2 u_2$ . Then

$$\lambda_1 u_1^{\top} u_2 = u_1^{\top} A u_2 = \lambda_2 u_1^{\top} u_2.$$

This implies that  $(\lambda_1-\lambda_2)u_1^\top u_2=0$ . However,  $\lambda_1\neq\lambda_2$ . Therefore, necessarily,  $u_1^\top u_2=0$ .

This second property will be useful when we look at dimension reduction and, in particular, principal component analysis.

# Characterization of matrices with their eigenvalues

- 1. If A is symmetric, then **all** its eigenvalues are real.
- 2. If A is positive definite, then all its eigenvalues are strictly positive.

### Proof

1. Consider the more general case where A is a Hermitian matrix. The matrix A is equal to the transpose of its conjugate, denoted  $A^*$ . Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue associated with an eigenvector u, which may be complex. We have:

$$\overline{u}^{\top} A u = \overline{u}^{\top} \lambda u = \lambda \overline{u}^{\top} u, \tag{2}$$

$$\overline{u}^{\top} A u = \overline{u}^{\top} A^* u = \overline{A u}^{\top} u = \overline{\lambda} \overline{u}^{\top} u. \tag{3}$$

This implies that  $(\lambda - \overline{\lambda})\overline{u}^{\top}u = 0$ . Since  $u \neq 0$ , we have  $\lambda = \overline{\lambda}$ . Therefore,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

2. Consider u, an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . We have that  $u^{\top}Au = \lambda u^{\top}u$ . However, since  $u \neq 0$ ,  $u^{\top}u \neq 0$ . Therefore,

$$\lambda = \frac{u^{\top} A u}{u^{\top} u}.$$

Since A is positive definite,  $u^{\top}Au > 0$  for all nonzero vectors u. We can therefore deduce that  $\lambda > 0$ .

# 3 Diagonalization of matrices

### Definition

Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . We say that A is **diagonalizable** if there exists a non-singular matrix  $P \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  and a diagonal matrix  $D \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$P^{-1}AP = D \iff A = PDP^{-1}$$
.

# Spectral decomposition theorem

Let A be a symmetric matrix in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\lambda_1,\dots,\lambda_n$  its n eigenvalues. Then there exists an orthogonal matrix P in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$A = P \Lambda P^\top, \quad \text{where} \quad \Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

If A has n distinct positive eigenvalues, then we can take P to be the matrix whose kth column is the normalized eigenvector corresponding to the kth eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$  of A.

Given two symmetric matrices, A and B, how can we determine the vector u such that  $u^{T}Au$  is maximal, knowing that  $u^{T}Bu = 1$ ? We simply take u as the eigenvector of  $B^{-1}A$  associated with  $\lambda$ , the maximal eigenvalue of  $B^{-1}A$ . We thus obtain

$$u^{\top} A u = u^{\top} \lambda M u = \lambda U^{\top} M u = \lambda.$$

Characterization of the determinant and trace of matrices with their eigenvalues

If A has eigenvalues (real, but not necessarily distinct)  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , then

- 1.  $det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$
- 2.  $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$ .

# Proof

Using the spectral decomposition theorem, there exists an invertible matrix P such that  $A = P\Lambda P^{-1}$ , where  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues. We therefore have, for the determinant,

$$\det(A) = \det(P\Lambda P^{-1}) = \det(P)\det(\Lambda)\det(P^{-1}) = \det(P)\det(\Lambda)\det(P)^{-1} = \det(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i,$$

and, for the trace,

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \operatorname{tr}(P\Lambda P^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr}(P^{-1}P\Lambda) = \operatorname{tr}(\Lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i.$$

Deisenroth, Marc Peter, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong. 2020. *Mathematics for Machine Learning*. 1st ed. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108679930. Grifone, Joseph. 2024. *Algèbre Linéaire*. 7e edition. Toulouse: CEPADUES.