

Quadratic Form and Covariance Matrix

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I. Notice & Review

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

I. Notice & Review

Understanding θ (L6.p11)

- θ can differ, what does it mean?
 - $\theta = 0^\circ$
 - Lin. Reg. reflects reality ()
 -
 - Small θ
 - Ax and b are
 - Lin. Reg. reflects reality ()
 - Large θ
 - Ax and b are
 - Lin. Reg. reflects reality ()
 - $\theta = 90^\circ$
 - Lin. Reg. reflects reality ()
 -
- $\cos \theta =$
 - [] measures explanatory power in percentage term
 - [] measures the percentage of variations explained by linear regression
- One can apply cosine law to find R^2 as well by

$$|b|^2 = |A\hat{x}|^2 + |b - A\hat{x}|^2 + 2|A\hat{x}| \cdot |b - A\hat{x}| \cdot \cos \theta$$

I. Notice & Review

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II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

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III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

Motivation

In orthogonal diagonalization at L7.p4-p5, we had

$$A = P \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{7} & & \\ & \sqrt{7} & \\ & & \sqrt{-2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{7} & & \\ & \sqrt{7} & \\ & & \sqrt{-2} \end{bmatrix} P^t$$

Then, it followed

$$\begin{aligned} A &= P\sqrt{D} \cdot \sqrt{D}P^t \\ &= (P\sqrt{D}) \cdot (P\sqrt{D})^t \end{aligned}$$

- This makes *less sense* (depending on the way you look at) since complex numbers are involved.
- If all eigenvalues (here, 7, 7, -2) were positive real numbers, then it will make more sense!

Definite matrix

- **Definition.** A symmetric matrix matrix is called
 - **positive definite (pd)** if all eigenvalues are positive
 - **positive semi-definite (psd)** if all eigenvalues are non-negative
 - **negative semi-definite (nsd)** if all eigenvalues are non-positive
 - **negative definite (nd)** if all eigenvalues are negative
 - **indefinite** if signs of eigenvalues are mixed
- What makes us to call ‘definitely positive’?
 - Since every eigenvalue is positive
 - If A is pd, then $[x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3] \cdot A \cdot [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3]^t$ is always positive no matter what $x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3$ values are.
 - **This is where second degree polynomial and matrix algebra meet!**
 - The following polynomial is always positive for nonzero x since all eigenvalues are positive (Check the eigenvalues yourself).

$$[x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 9 & 100 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 1x_1^2 + 18x_1x_2 + 100x_2^2$$

Why is the polynomial positive?

- pd matrix is symmetric, thus orthogonally diagonalizable.
- pd matrix has eigenvalues that are all positive.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & u_1 & - \\ - & u_2 & - \\ - & u_3 & - \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Letting $y = U^t x$ gives

$$= \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \lambda_3 y_3^2$$

- Since all λ_i are positive and y_i are real numbers, the above polynomial is positive.
- Of course, this applies to all classes of the other definite matrices (pd, psd, nd, nsd) as well.

Applications in optimization

- Linear Programming
 - Objective function & constraints → both linear
- Non-Linear Programming
 - Semi-definite programming
 - Objective function & constraints → semi-definite polynomial or linear
 - Some are introduced in our textbook
 - Other non-linear programming
 - Problems in this class are incredibly hard to solve

I. Notice & Review

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II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

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III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

Covariance matrix

- Covariance matrix is a representative example of psd.
 - Covariance matrix is symmetric, thus orthogonally diagonalizable (Theorem 2 in Section 7.1)
 - Covariance matrix is psd, since a variance of linear combination of random variable is always nonnegative. (Related fields include multivariate statistics and portfolio theory)

$$Cov = \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} Cov(X_1, X_1) & Cov(X_1, X_2) & Cov(X_1, X_3) \\ Cov(X_2, X_1) & Cov(X_2, X_2) & Cov(X_2, X_3) \\ Cov(X_3, X_1) & Cov(X_3, X_2) & Cov(X_3, X_3) \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthogonal diagonalization on psd

Since covariance matrix is symmetric, thus being orthogonally diagonalizable, let's do one with a sample covariance matrix S . Assume that eigenvalues are known as: $\lambda_1 = 9$, $\lambda_2 = 6$, $\lambda_3 = 3$,

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

I. Notice & Review

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II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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Principal component analysis (PCA)

From the previous example, we have

$$S = PDP^t = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & & \\ & 6 & \\ & & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & u_1 & - \\ - & u_2 & - \\ - & u_3 & - \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_3 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- When a covariance matrix went through orthogonal diagonalization, we call u_1, u_2, u_3 as **principal components(PC)** of original data.
- The first PC u_1 explains $\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3} = \frac{9}{9+6+3} = 50\%$ of overall variation
- The second PC u_2 explains $\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3} = \frac{6}{9+6+3} = 33\%$ of overall variation
- The third PC explains 17% of overall variation

- Though the original data had three variables, the first two PCs (u_1 and u_2) explains 83% of overall variation.
- The remaining third PC explains only 17% of overall variation
- If ignoring third PC, dimension would be reduced into two, but information loss is only 17%
- PCA is one of dimension reduction techniques and popular these days due to big data with a lot of variables.
- In statistical learning field, PCA is one of unsupervised learning methods.
- (google PCA on mnist if you like)
- **Conducting PCA is nothing but doing orthogonal diagonalization on a covariance matrix**

I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

Cholesky decomposition starts with LU-decomposition

- Another property of pd is the possibility of Cholesky decomposition
- Cholesky decomposition starts with your favorite LU-decomposition

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 26/5 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 26/5 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 81/13 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

and

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 2/5 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 10/26 & 1 & \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 2/5 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 10/26 & 1 & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 0 \\ 26/5 & 2 & \\ 81/13 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

I. Notice & Review

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II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

○○○○○○○○○

IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

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III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

○○○●○○○○○

I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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Cholesky decomposition

- $A = LU = LL^t$, i.e. $U = L^t$.
- This is possible when A is pd (symmetric with eigenvalues all positive)
- Some analogy for covariance matrix Σ
 - In univariate setting,
 - σ^2 vs σ
 - (variance) vs (standard deviation)
 - In multivariate setting,
 - Σ vs L (where $\Sigma = LL^t$)
 - (Covariance matrix) vs ~~(Standard deviation matrix)~~
 - No terminology such as ‘Standard deviation matrix’, but L is like a standard deviation in multivariate statistics.
- Applications in simulating normal random variable.
 - In univariate setting,
 - $Z \sim N(0, 1) \Rightarrow \mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 - In multivariate setting,
 - $Z \sim N(0, I) \Rightarrow \mu + LZ \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$,
 - where I is identity matrix and $\Sigma = LL^t$

Do it yourself

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 9 & 100 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 19 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

Check yourself

- Given symmetric matrix, can you perform orthogonal diagonalization?
- If the symmetric matrix is pd (now this is a legit covariance matrix), then can you interpret the results of orthogonal diagonalization as PCA?
- Understands R^2 in geometric sense
- Able to write ordinary and weighted normal equation.
- Perform Cholesky decomposition to a pd matrix by doing LU and some more treatment afterward?

I. Notice & Review

○○○

II. Quadratic forms and definite matrix

○○○○○

III. Covariance matrix & Principal component analysis

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IV. pd matrix & Cholesky decomposition

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"Optimism is the faith that leads to achievement - Hellen Keller"