

# 1. WORKING WITH MATRICES AND VECTOR

Chapter 1 - 3 of Rancher & Schaalje

Defn 1.1: A column of real numbers is called a **vector**.

Examples:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $\mathbf{Y}$  has  $n$  elements it is said to have **order** (or dimension)  $n$ .

Defn 1.2: A rectangular array of elements with  $m$  rows and  $k$  columns is called an  $m \times k$  **matrix**.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mk} \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix is said to be of **order** (or dimension)  $m \times k$  where

$m$  is the row order (dimension)

$k$  is the column order (dimension)

Examples:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn 1.3: **Matrix addition:** If  $A$  and  $B$  are both  $m \times k$  matrices, then

$$C = A + B$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mk} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1k} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \cdots & b_{mk} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k} + b_{1k} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k} + b_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & a_{m2} + b_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mk} + b_{mk} \end{bmatrix}$$

Notation:  $C_{m \times k} = \{c_{ij}\}$  where  $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$

### Defn 1.4: **Matrix subtraction**

If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $m \times k$  matrices, then  $C = A - B$  is defined by

$$C = \{c_{ij}\} \text{ where } c_{ij} = a_{ij} - b_{ij} .$$

Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -4 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 2 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Defn 1.5: **Scalar multiplication**

Let  $a$  be a scalar and  $B = \{b_{ij}\}$  be an  $m \times k$  matrix, then

$$aB = Ba = \{ab_{ij}\}$$

Example:

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Defn 1.6: **Transpose**

The transpose of the  $m \times k$  matrix  $A = \{a_{ij}\}$  is the  $k \times m$  matrix with elements  $\{a_{ji}\}$ . The transpose of  $A$  is denoted by  $A^T$  (or  $A'$ ).

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 4 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$



Defn 1.7: If a matrix has the same number of rows and columns it is called a **square matrix**.

$$A_{k \times k} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}$$

is said to have order (or dimension)  $k$ .

Defn 1.8: A square matrix  $A = \{a_{ij}\}$  is **symmetric** if  $A = A^T$ , that is, if  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$  for all  $(i, j)$ .

Examples:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn 1.9: **Inner product** (crossproduct) of two vectors of order  $n$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{Y} &= [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= a_1 Y_1 + a_2 Y_2 + \dots + a_n Y_n \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n a_j Y_j\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{a}$ .

Defn 1.10: **Euclidean distance** (or length of a vector)

$$\|\mathbf{Y}\| = (\mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{Y})^{1/2} = \left( \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

### Defn 1.11: **Matrix multiplication**

The product of an  $n \times k$  matrix  $A$  and a  $k \times m$  matrix  $B$  is the  $n \times m$  matrix  $C = \{c_{ij}\}$  with elements

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1} b_{1j} + a_{i2} b_{2j} + \cdots + a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn 1.12: **Elementwise multiplication** of two matrices

$$\begin{aligned} A \# B &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \cdots & a_{km} \end{bmatrix} \# \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & \cdots & b_{km} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} b_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} b_{1m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{k1} b_{k1} & \cdots & a_{km} b_{km} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \# \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -5 \\ -3 & 4 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 \\ -6 & 16 \\ 0 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn 1.13: **Kronecker product** of two matrices

$$A_{k \times m} \otimes B_{n \times s} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} B & a_{12} B & \cdots & a_{1m} B \\ a_{21} B & a_{22} B & \cdots & a_{2m} B \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{k1} B & a_{k2} B & \cdots & a_{km} B \end{bmatrix}$$

Examples:

$$\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 Y_1 \\ a_1 Y_2 \\ a_2 Y_1 \\ a_2 Y_2 \\ a_3 Y_1 \\ a_3 Y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 6 & 20 & 12 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -10 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & -4 & -2 \\ 15 & 9 & -5 & -3 \\ 6 & 3 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Refer the handout slide1\_r1.pdf.**



Defn 1.14: The **determinant** of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is

$$|A| = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}(-1)^{i+j} |M_{ij}| \quad \text{for any row } i$$

or

$$|A| = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}(-1)^{i+j} |M_{ij}| \quad \text{for any column } j$$

where  $M_{ij}$  is the “minor” for  $a_{ij}$  obtained by deleting the  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column from  $A$ .

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A| = a_{11}(-1)^{1+1}|a_{22}| + a_{12}(-1)^{1+2}|a_{21}|$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = (7)(5) - (2)(4) = 27$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} |A| = & \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}(-1)^{1+1} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\ & + a_{12}(-1)^{1+2} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13}(-1)^{1+3} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

then

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = (1)(-1)^2 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} \\ + (2)(-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + (3)(-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{vmatrix} \\ = (1)(-3) - (2)(-6) + (3)(-3) = 0$$

Example:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = -3$$

## Properties of determinants:

(i)  $|A^T| = |A|$

(ii)  $|A|$  = product of the eigenvalues of  $A$

(iii)  $|AB| = |A| |B|$  when  $A$  and  $B$  are square matrices of the same order.

(iv)  $\begin{vmatrix} P & 0 \\ X & Q \end{vmatrix} = |P| |Q|$  when  $P$  and  $Q$  are square matrices of the same order and  $0$  is a matrix of zeros.

(v)  $|AB| = |BA|$  when the matrix product is defined

(vi)  $|cA| = c^k |A|$  when  $c$  is a scalar and  $A$  is a  $k \times k$  matrix

Defn 1.15: A set of  $n$ -dimensional vectors  $\mathbf{Y}_1 \mathbf{Y}_2 \cdots \mathbf{Y}_k$  are **linearly independent** if there is no set of scalars  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_k$  such that

$$\mathbf{0} = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j \mathbf{Y}_j$$

and at least one  $a_j$  is non-zero.

Example:

$$\mathbf{Y}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{Y}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{Y}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are linearly independent.

Example:

$$\mathbf{Y}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{Y}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{Y}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are not linearly independent because

$$(1) \mathbf{Y}_1 + (1) \mathbf{Y}_3 + (-2) \mathbf{Y}_2 = \mathbf{0}$$

Any two of these vectors are linearly independent, and it is said that this set contains two linearly independent vectors.



Defn 1.16: The **row rank** of a matrix is the number of linearly independent rows, where each row is considered as a vector.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The row rank of  $A$  is 2 because

$$(-2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + (1) \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + (-3) \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and there are no scalars  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  such that

$$a_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + a_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

except for  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ .

Defn 1.17: The **column rank** of a matrix is the number of linearly independent columns, with each column considered as a vector.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

has column rank 2 because

$$(-2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + (1) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + (1) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and there are no scalars  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  such that

$$a_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + a_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

except  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ .

Result 1.1: The row rank and the column rank of a matrix are equal.

Defn 1.18 The **rank** of a matrix is either the row rank or the column rank of the matrix.

Defn 1.19: A square matrix  $A_{k \times k}$  is **nonsingular** if its rank is equal to the number of rows (or columns).

This is equivalent to the condition

$$A_{k \times k} \mathbf{b}_{k \times 1} = \mathbf{0}_{k \times 1} \text{ only when } \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

A matrix that fails to be nonsingular is called **singular**.

Result 1.2: If  $B$  and  $C$  are non-singular matrices and products with  $A$  are defined, then

$$\text{rank}(BA) = \text{rank}(AC) = \text{rank}(A).$$

Result 1.3:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{rank}(A^T A) &= \text{rank}(AA^T) \\ &= \text{rank}(A) \\ &= \text{rank}(A^T).\end{aligned}$$

Defn 1.20: The **identity matrix**, denoted by  $I$ , is a  $k \times k$  matrix of the form

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn 1.21: The **inverse** of a square, non-singular matrix  $A$  is the matrix, denoted by  $A^{-1}$ , such that

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$$

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 6/8 & -4/8 \\ -1/8 & 2/8 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Result 1.4

(i) The inverse of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$  is

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \begin{bmatrix} a_{22} & -a_{12} \\ -a_{21} & a_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

(ii) In general, the  $(i, j)$  element of  $A^{-1}$  is

$$\frac{(-1)^{i+j} |A_{ji}|}{|A|}$$

where  $A_{ji}$  is the matrix obtained by deleting the  $j$ -th row and  $i$ -th column of  $A$ .

Result 1.5: For a  $k \times k$  matrix  $A$ , the following are equivalent:

- (i)  $A$  is nonsingular
- (ii)  $|A| \neq 0$
- (iii)  $A^{-1}$  exists

Result 1.6: For  $k \times k$  nonsingular matrices  $A$  and  $B$

- (i)  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- (ii)  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
- (iii)  $|A^{-1}| = 1/|A|$
- (iv)  $A^{-1}$  is unique and nonsingular
- (v)  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$
- (vi) If  $A$  is symmetric, then  $A^{-1}$  is symmetric

## Result 1.7: Inverse of a Diagonal Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & & \\ & a_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/a_{11} & & & \\ & 1/a_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1/a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}$$

Result 1.8: If  $B$  is a  $k \times k$  non-singular matrix and  $B + \mathbf{c}\mathbf{c}^T$  is non-singular, then

$$\left(B + \mathbf{c}\mathbf{c}^T\right)^{-1} = B^{-1} - \frac{B^{-1}\mathbf{c}\mathbf{c}^TB^{-1}}{1 + \mathbf{c}^TB^{-1}\mathbf{c}}$$

Result 1.9: Let  $I_n$  be an  $n \times n$  identity matrix and let  $J_n = \mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^T$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix where each element is one, then

$$(aI_n + bJ_n)^{-1} = \frac{1}{a} \left( I_n - \frac{b}{a + nb} J_n \right)$$

Defn 1.22: The **trace** of a  $k \times k$  matrix  $A = \{a_{ij}\}$  is the sum of the diagonal elements:

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{j=1}^k a_{jj}$$

Result 1.10 Let  $A$  and  $B$  denote  $k \times k$  matrices and let  $c$  be a scalar.

Then,

- (i)  $\text{tr}(cA) = c \text{tr}(A)$
- (ii)  $\text{tr}(A + B) = \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B)$
- (iii)  $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$
- (iv)  $\text{tr}(B^{-1}AB) = \text{tr}(A)$
- (v)  $\text{tr}(AA^T) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k a_{ij}^2$

**Refer the handout slide1\_r2.pdf.**

Defn 1.23: A square matrix  $A$  is said to be **orthogonal** if

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

(then  $A^{-1} = A^T$ )

Examples:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & -1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 & 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 & -1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

In each case the columns of  $A$  are coefficients for orthogonal contrasts.

Defn 1.24: A square matrix  $P$  is **idempotent** if  $PP = P$

Example

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 56 & 26 & -16 \\ 26 & 26 & 26 \\ -16 & 26 & 56 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example (linear regression):  $\mathbf{Y} = X\beta + \epsilon$

The least squares estimator is  $\mathbf{b} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{Y}$

The estimated means are  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{Y}$

and the residuals are  $\mathbf{e} = (I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T) \mathbf{Y}$ .

Both  $X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$  and  $I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$  are idempotent matrices.



Defn 1.25: Let  $A$  be a  $k \times k$  matrix and let  $\mathbf{Y}$  be a vector of order  $k$ , then

$$\mathbf{Y}^T A \mathbf{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k Y_i Y_j a_{ij}$$

is called a **quadratic form**.

Defn 1.26: A  $k \times k$  matrix  $A$  is said to be **positive definite** if

$$\mathbf{Y}^T A \mathbf{Y} > 0$$

for any  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_k)^T \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

Defn 1.27: A  $k \times k$  matrix  $A$  is said to be **non-negative definite** (or positive semi-definite) if

$$\mathbf{Y}^T A \mathbf{Y} \geq 0$$

for any  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_k)^T$ .

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Defn 1.28: For a  $k \times k$  matrix  $A$ , the scalars  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_k$  satisfying the polynomial equation

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

are called the eigenvalues (or characteristic roots) of  $A$ .

Defn 1.29: Corresponding to any eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  is an eigenvector (or characteristic vector)  $\mathbf{u}_i \neq \mathbf{0}$  satisfying

$$A\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i \mu_i.$$

Comment: Eigenvectors are not unique

- (i) If  $\mathbf{u}_i$  is an eigenvector for  $\lambda_i$ , then  $c\mathbf{u}_i$  is also an eigenvector for any scalar  $c \neq 0$ .
- (ii) We will adopt the following conventions (for real symmetric matrices)

$$\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_i = 1 \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, k$$

$$\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \quad \text{for all } i \neq j$$

(iii) Even with (ii), eigenvectors are not unique

- If  $\mathbf{u}_i$  is an eigenvector satisfying (ii), then  $-\mathbf{u}_i$  is also an eigenvector satisfying (ii).
- If  $\lambda_i = \lambda_j$  then there are an infinite number of choices for  $\mathbf{u}_i$  and  $\mathbf{u}_j$ .

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.96 & 0.72 \\ 0.72 & 1.54 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues are solutions to

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \left| \begin{bmatrix} 1.96 & 0.72 \\ 0.72 & 1.54 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \right| \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} 1.96 - \lambda & 0.72 \\ 0.72 & 1.54 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (1.96 - \lambda)(1.54 - \lambda) - (0.72)^2 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 3.5\lambda + 2.5 = a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c \end{aligned}$$

Solutions to a quadratic equation:

$$\lambda = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \Rightarrow \frac{3.5 \pm \sqrt{12.25 - 10}}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 2.5 \text{ and } \lambda_2 = 1$$

Find the eigenvectors:  $A\boldsymbol{\mu}_i = \lambda_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_i$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.96 & 0.72 \\ 0.72 & 1.54 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{12} \end{bmatrix} = 2.5 \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ u_{12} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1.96 u_{11} + 0.72 u_{12} = 2.5 u_{11}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.72 u_{11} + 1.54 u_{12} = 2.5 u_{12}$$

$$\Rightarrow u_{12} = 0.75 u_{11}$$

then

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0.75 c \end{bmatrix}$$

To satisfy our convention we must have

$$1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1 = c^2 + 0.5625 c^2$$

Consequently,

$$c = 0.8 \text{ or } c = -0.8$$

then

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ 0.6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.8 \\ -0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$



Find an eigenvector for  $\lambda_2 = 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.96 & 0.72 \\ 0.72 & 1.54 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{21} \\ u_{22} \end{bmatrix} = (1) \begin{bmatrix} u_{21} \\ u_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1.96 u_{21} + 0.72 u_{22} = u_{21}$$

$$0.72 u_{21} + 1.54 u_{22} = u_{22}$$

$$\Rightarrow u_{22} = \frac{-4}{3} u_{21}$$

Then

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ -4/3 c \end{bmatrix}$$

To satisfy our convention, we must have

$$1 = \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_2 = c^2 + \frac{16c^2}{9}$$

Consequently,

$$c = -0.6 \text{ or } c = 0.6$$

and

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.6 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ -0.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

In either case,  $\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_2 = 0$ .

Result 1.11 For a  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix  $A$  with elements that are real numbers

- (i) every eigenvalue of  $A$  is a real number
- (ii)  $\text{rank}(A)$  = number of non-zero eigenvalues
- (iii) if  $A$  is non-negative definite, then  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
- (iv) if  $A$  is positive definite then  $\lambda_i > 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
- (v)  $\text{trace}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i$
- (vi)  $|A| = \prod_{i=1}^k \lambda_i$
- (vii) if  $A$  is idempotent ( $AA = A$ ), then the eigenvalues are either zero or one.

### Result 1.12: **Spectral decomposition.**

The spectral decomposition of a  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix  $A$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_k$  and eigenvectors  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$  (with  $\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_i = 1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ ) is

$$A = \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_1^T + \lambda_2 \mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{u}_2^T + \dots + \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k \mathbf{u}_k^T = U D U^T$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \mid \mathbf{u}_2 \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{u}_k]$  is an orthogonal matrix.

Result 1.13: If  $A$  is a  $k \times k$  symmetric nonsingular matrix with spectral decomposition

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T = U D U^T$$

then

(i)  $A^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i^{-1} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T = U D^{-1} U^T$

(ii) the square root matrix

$$A^{1/2} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sqrt{\lambda_i} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T$$

has the properties:

(a)  $A^{1/2} A^{1/2} = A$ , (b)  $A^{1/2} A^{-1} A^{1/2} = I$ , (c)  $A^{1/2}$  is symmetric

(iii) The inverse square root matrix

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1/2} &= \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \\ &= U D^{-1/2} U^T \end{aligned}$$

has the properties:

(a)  $A^{-1/2} A^{-1/2} = A^{-1}$

(b)  $A^{-1/2} A A^{-1/2} = I$

(c)  $A^{-1/2}$  is symmetric

In parts (ii) and (iii),  $A$  should be positive definite to ensure that

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_k > 0$$

### Result 1.14: Singular value decomposition

Any  $p \times q$  matrix  $A$  of rank  $r$  can be expressed as

$$A = L \begin{bmatrix} \Delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} M^T$$

where

- (i)  $L_{p \times p}$  and  $M_{q \times q}$  are orthogonal matrices
- (ii)  $\Delta_{r \times r}$  is a diagonal matrix with  $\Delta^2 = \Delta \Delta$  containing the positive (non-zero) eigenvalues of  $A^T A$  and  $A A^T$

Note that  $A^T A$  and  $A A^T$  are non-negative definite and suitable  $L$  and  $M$  matrices can always be found but they are not unique.

**Refer the handout slide1\_r3.pdf.**