



COMPUTATIONAL FINANCE & RISK MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY *of* WASHINGTON

Department of Applied Mathematics

AMATH 460: Mathematical Methods for Quantitative Finance

6. Linear Algebra II

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Outline

- 1 Transposes and Permutations
- 2 Vector Spaces and Subspaces
- 3 Variance-Covariance Matrices
- 4 Computing Covariance Matrices
- 5 Orthogonal Matrices
- 6 Singular Value Factorization
- 7 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- 8 Solving Least Squares Problems

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Transposes

- Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, the transpose of A is denoted by A^T
- The columns of A^T are the rows of A
- If the dimension of A is $m \times n$ then the dimension of A^T is $n \times m$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties

- $(A^T)^T = A$
- The transpose of $A + B$ is $A^T + B^T$
- The transpose of AB is $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
- The transpose of A^{-1} is $(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$

Symmetric Matrices

- A symmetric matrix satisfies $A = A^T$
- Implies that $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = A^T$$

- A diagonal matrix is automatically symmetric

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = D^T$$

Products $R^T R$, RR^T and LDL^T

- Let R be any $m \times n$ matrix
- The matrix $A = R^T R$ is a symmetric matrix

$$A^T = (R^T R)^T = R^T (R^T)^T = R^T R = A$$

- The matrix $A = RR^T$ is also a symmetric matrix

$$A^T = (RR^T)^T = (R^T)^T R^T = RR^T = A$$

- Many problems that start with a rectangular matrix R end up with $R^T R$ or RR^T or both!

Permutation Matrices

- An $n \times n$ permutation matrix P has the rows of I in any order
- There are 6 possible 3×3 permutation matrices

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} & 1 & \\ 1 & & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{32}P_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} & 1 & \\ & & 1 \\ 1 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_{31} = \begin{bmatrix} & & 1 \\ & 1 & \\ 1 & & \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{32} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & & 1 \\ & 1 & \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{21}P_{32} = \begin{bmatrix} & & 1 \\ 1 & & \\ & 1 & \end{bmatrix}$$

- P^{-1} is the same as P^T
- Example

$$P_{32} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{32} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Spaces of Vectors

- The space \mathbb{R}^n consists of all column vectors with n components
- For example, \mathbb{R}^3 all column vectors with 3 components and is called 3-dimensional space
- The space \mathbb{R}^2 is the xy plane: the two components of the vector are the x and y coordinates and the tail starts at the origin $(0,0)$
- Two essential vector operations go on inside the vector space:
 - Add two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n
 - Multiply a vector in \mathbb{R}^n by a scalar
- The result lies in the same vector space \mathbb{R}^n

Subspaces

- A subspace of a vector space is a set of vectors (including the zero vector) that satisfies two requirements:

If u and w are vectors in the subspace and c is any scalar, then

- (i) $u + w$ is in the subspace
 - (ii) cw is in the subspace
-
- Some subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3
 - L Any line through $(0, 0, 0)$, e.g., the x axis
 - P Any plane through $(0, 0, 0)$, e.g., the xy plane
 - \mathbb{R}^3 The whole space
 - Z The zero vector

The Column Space of A

- The column space of a matrix A consists of all linear combinations of its columns
- The linear combinations are vectors that can be written as Ax
- $Ax = b$ is solvable if and only if b is in the column space of A
- Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix
 - The columns of A have m components
 - The columns of A live in \mathbb{R}^m
 - The column space of A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m
- The column space of A is denoted by $R(A)$
 - R stands for range

The Nullspace of A

- The nullspace of A consists of all solutions to $Ax = 0$
- The nullspace of A is denoted by $N(A)$
- Example: elimination

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The pivot variables are x_1 and x_3
- The free variable is x_2 (column 2 has no pivot)
- The number of pivots is called the rank of A

Linear Independence

- A sequence of vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n is linearly independent if the only linear combination that gives the zero vector is $0v_1 + 0v_2 + \dots + 0v_n$
- The columns of A are independent if the only solution to $Ax = 0$ is the zero vector
 - Elimination produces no free variables
 - The rank of A is equal to n
 - The nullspace $N(A)$ contains only the zero vector
- A set of vectors spans a space if their linear combinations fill the space
- A basis for a vector space is a sequence of vectors that
 - (i) are linearly independent
 - (ii) span the space
- The dimension of a vector space is the number of vectors in every basis

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Sample Variance and Covariance

- Sample mean of the elements of a vector x of length m

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i$$

- Sample variance of the elements of x

$$\text{Var}(x) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

- Let y be vector of length m
- Sample covariance of x and y

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

Sample Variance

- Let e be a column vector of m ones

$$\frac{e^T x}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m 1x_i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i = \bar{x}$$

- \bar{x} is a scalar
- Let $e\bar{x}$ be a column vector repeating \bar{x} m times

- Let $\tilde{x} = x - e\frac{e^T x}{m} = x - e\bar{x}$

- The i^{th} element of \tilde{x} is

$$\tilde{x}_i = x_i - \bar{x}$$

- Take another look at the sample variance

$$\text{Var}(x) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \tilde{x}_i^2 = \frac{\tilde{x}^T \tilde{x}}{m-1} = \frac{\|\tilde{x}\|^2}{m-1}$$

Sample Covariance

- A similar result holds for the sample covariance
- Let $\tilde{y} = y - e \frac{e^T y}{m} = y - e \bar{y}$
- The sample covariance becomes

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \tilde{x}_i \tilde{y}_i = \frac{\tilde{x}^T \tilde{y}}{m-1}$$

- Observe that $\text{Var}(x) = \text{Cov}(x, x)$
- Proceed with $\text{Cov}(x, x)$ and treat $\text{Var}(x)$ as a special case

Variance-Covariance Matrix

- Suppose x and y are the columns of a matrix R

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ x & y \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \quad \tilde{R} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ \tilde{x} & \tilde{y} \\ | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

- The sample variance-covariance matrix is

$$\text{Cov}(R) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(x, x) & \text{Cov}(x, y) \\ \text{Cov}(y, x) & \text{Cov}(y, y) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{m-1} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^\top \tilde{x} & \tilde{x}^\top \tilde{y} \\ \tilde{y}^\top \tilde{x} & \tilde{y}^\top \tilde{y} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\tilde{R}^\top \tilde{R}}{m-1}$$

- The sample variance-covariance matrix is symmetric

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Computing Covariance Matrices

- Take a closer look at how \tilde{x} was computed

$$\tilde{x} = x - e\bar{x} = x - e\frac{e^T x}{m} = x - \frac{ee^T}{m}x = \underbrace{\left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right)}_A x$$

- What is A ?
 - The outer product (ee^T) is an $m \times m$ matrix
 - I is the $m \times m$ identity matrix
 - A is an $m \times m$ matrix
- Premultiplication by A turns x into \tilde{x}
- Can think of matrix multiplication as one matrix acting on another

Computing Covariance Matrices

- Next, consider what happens when we premultiply R by A
- Think of R in block structure where each column is a block

$$AR = A \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ x & y \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ Ax & Ay \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ \tilde{x} & \tilde{y} \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{R}$$

- Expression for the variance-covariance matrix no longer needs \tilde{R}

$$\text{Cov}(R) = \frac{1}{n-1} \tilde{R}^T \tilde{R} = \frac{1}{m-1} (AR)^T (AR)$$

- Since R has 2 columns, $\text{Cov}(R)$ is a 2×2 matrix
- In general, R may have n columns $\implies \text{Cov}(R)$ is an $n \times n$ matrix
 - Still use the same $m \times m$ matrix A

Computing Covariance Matrices

- Take another look at formula for variance-covariance matrix
- Rule for transpose of a product

$$\text{Cov}(R) = \frac{1}{m-1} (AR)^T (AR) = \frac{1}{m-1} R^T A^T A R$$

- Consider the product

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A &= \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right)^T \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right) \\ &= \left[I^T - \left(\frac{ee^T}{m} \right)^T \right] \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right) \\ &= \left[I^T - \frac{[e^T]^T e^T}{m} \right] \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right) \\ &= \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right) \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m} \right) \quad \text{Since } A^T = A, A \text{ is symmetric} \end{aligned}$$

Computing Covariance Matrices

- Continuing ...

$$\begin{aligned}A^T A &= \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right) \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right) = \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right)^2 = A^2 \\&= I^2 - \frac{ee^T}{m} - \frac{ee^T}{m} + \left(\frac{ee^T}{m}\right) \left(\frac{ee^T}{m}\right) \\&= I - 2\frac{ee^T}{m} + \frac{e(e^T e)e^T}{m^2} \\&= I - 2\frac{ee^T}{m} + \frac{eme^T}{m^2} \\&= \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right) = A\end{aligned}$$

- A matrix satisfying $A^2 = A$ is called idempotent

Computing Covariance Matrices

- Can simplify the expression for the sample variance-covariance matrix

$$\text{Cov}(R) = \frac{1}{m-1} R^T [A^T A] R = \underbrace{\frac{1}{m-1}}_{\text{scalar}} \underbrace{R^T}_{n \times m} \underbrace{A}_{m \times m} \underbrace{R}_{m \times n}$$

- How to order the operations ...

$$\begin{aligned} R^T A R &= R^T \left(I - \frac{e e^T}{m} \right) R = R^T \left(R - \frac{1}{m} \underbrace{e^T}_{1 \times m} \underbrace{R}_{m \times n} \right) \\ &= R^T \left(R - \frac{1}{m} \underbrace{e}_{m \times 1} \underbrace{M_1}_{1 \times n} \right) = \underbrace{R^T}_{n \times m} \left(\underbrace{R}_{m \times n} - \frac{1}{m} \underbrace{M_2}_{m \times n} \right) = \underbrace{\text{Cov}(R)}_{n \times n} \end{aligned}$$

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Orthogonal Matrices

- Two vectors $q, w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are orthogonal if their inner product is zero

$$\langle q, w \rangle = 0$$

- Consider a set of m vectors $\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ where $q_j \in \mathbb{R}^m \setminus 0$
- Assume that the vectors $\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ are pairwise orthogonal
- Let $\tilde{q}_j = \frac{q_j}{\|q_j\|}$ be a unit vector in the same direction as q_j
- The vectors $\{\tilde{q}_1, \dots, \tilde{q}_m\}$ are orthonormal
- Let Q be a matrix with columns $\{\tilde{q}_j\}$, consider the product QQ^T

$$Q^T Q = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & \tilde{q}_1^T & \text{---} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \text{---} & \tilde{q}_m^T & \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & \vdots & | \\ \tilde{q}_1 & \vdots & \tilde{q}_m \\ | & \vdots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{q}_1^T \tilde{q}_1 & & \tilde{q}_1^T \tilde{q}_j \\ & \ddots & \\ \tilde{q}_i^T \tilde{q}_j & & \tilde{q}_m^T \tilde{q}_m \end{bmatrix} = I$$

Orthogonal Matrices

- A square matrix Q is orthogonal if $Q^T Q = I$ and $Q Q^T = I$
- Orthogonal matrices represent rotations and reflections
- Example:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotates a vector in the xy plane through the angle θ

$$\begin{aligned} Q^T Q &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta) & -\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) + \sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) & \sin^2(\theta) + \cos^2(\theta) \end{bmatrix} = I \end{aligned}$$

Properties of Orthogonal Matrices

- The definition $Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I$ implies $Q^{-1} = Q^T$

$$Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(-\theta) & -\sin(-\theta) \\ \sin(-\theta) & \cos(-\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

Cosine is an even function and sine is an odd function

- Multiplication by an orthogonal matrix Q preserves dot products

$$(Qx) \cdot (Qy) = (Qx)^T (Qy) = x^T Q^T Q y = x^T I y = x^T y = x \cdot y$$

- Multiplication by an orthogonal matrix Q leaves lengths unchanged

$$\|Qx\| = \|x\|$$

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Singular Value Factorization

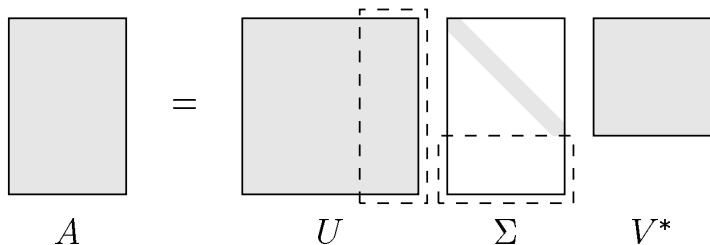
- So far ...
 - If Q is orthogonal then $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 - if D is diagonal then D^{-1} is

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & d_m \end{bmatrix} \quad D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/d_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1/d_m \end{bmatrix}$$

- Orthogonal and diagonal matrices have nice properties
- Wouldn't it be nice if any matrix could be expressed as a product of diagonal and orthogonal matrices ...

Singular Value Factorization

- Every $m \times n$ matrix A can be factored into $A = U\Sigma V^T$ where

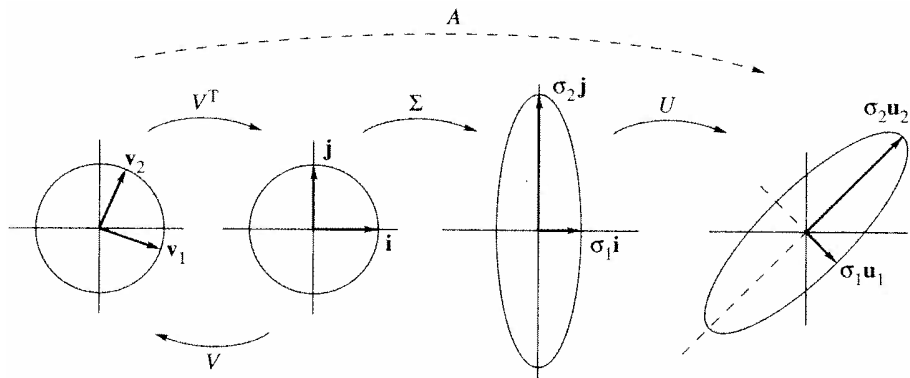


Picture for $m > n$

- U is an $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix whose columns are the left singular vectors of A
- Σ is an $m \times n$ diagonal matrix containing the singular values of A
 - Convention: $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$
- V is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix whose columns contain the right singular vectors of A

Multiplication

- Every invertible 2×2 matrix transforms the unit circle into an ellipse



$$Av_2 = U\Sigma V^T v_2 = U\Sigma \begin{bmatrix} -v_1^T \\ -v_2^T \end{bmatrix} v_2 = U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

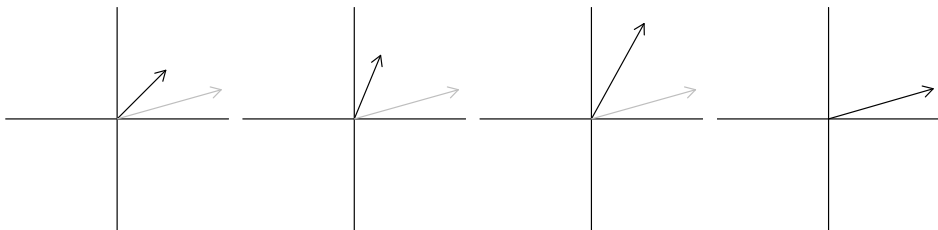
Multiplication

- Visualize: $Ax = U\Sigma V^T x$

U rotate right 45°

Σ stretch x coord by 1.5, stretch y coord by 2

V rotate right 22.5°



$$x := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x := V^T x$$

$$x := \Sigma x$$

$$x := Ux$$

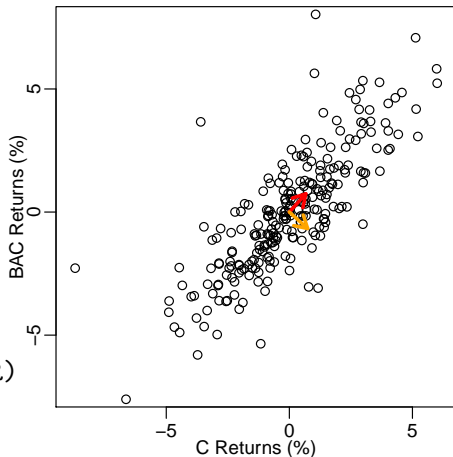
Example

```
> load("R.RData")
> library(MASS)
> eqscplot(R)

> svdR <- svd(R)
> U <- svdR$u
> S <- diag(svdR$d)
> V <- svdR$v

> all.equal(U %*% S %*% t(V), R)
[1] TRUE

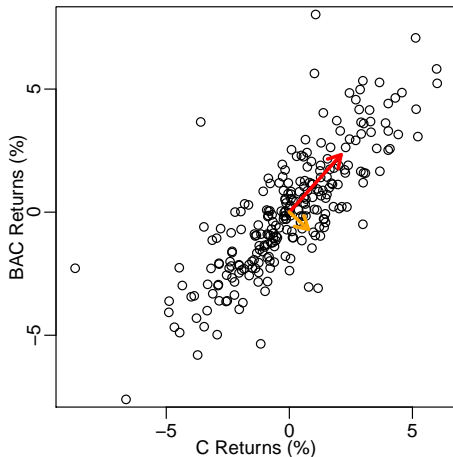
> arrows(0, 0, V[1,1], V[2,1])
> arrows(0, 0, V[1,2], V[2,2])
```



Example (continued)

```
> u <- V[, 1] * S[1, 1]  
> u <- u / sqrt(m - 1)  
> arrows(0, 0, u[1], u[2])
```

```
> w <- V[, 2] * S[2, 2]  
> w <- w / sqrt(m - 1)  
> arrows(0, 0, w[1], w[2])
```



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Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Let R be an $m \times n$ matrix and let $\tilde{R} = \left(I - \frac{ee^T}{m}\right) R$
- Let $\tilde{R} = U\Sigma V^T$ be the singular value factorization of \tilde{R}
- Recall that

$$\begin{aligned} [\text{Cov}(R)] &= \frac{1}{m-1} \tilde{R}^T \tilde{R} \\ &= \frac{1}{m-1} (U\Sigma V^T)^T (U\Sigma V^T) \\ &= \frac{1}{m-1} V\Sigma^T (U^T U) \Sigma V^T \\ &= \frac{1}{m-1} V\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T \end{aligned}$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Remember that Σ is a diagonal $m \times n$ matrix

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \Sigma^T \Sigma = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times m} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix}}_{m \times n}$$

- $\Sigma^T \Sigma$ is a diagonal matrix with $\sigma_1^2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n^2$ along the diagonal

- Let

$$\Lambda = \frac{1}{m-1} \Sigma^T \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{m-1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n = \frac{\sigma_n^2}{m-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Substitute Λ into the expression for the covariance matrix of R

$$[\text{Cov}(R)] = \frac{1}{m-1} V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T = V \Lambda V^T$$

- Let e_j be a unit vector in the j^{th} coordinate direction
- Multiply a right singular vector v_j by $\text{Cov}(R)$

$$[\text{Cov}(R)] v_j = V \Lambda V^T v_j = V \Lambda (V^T v_j) = V \Lambda e_j$$

- Recall that a matrix times a vector is a linear combination of the columns

$$Av = v_1 \begin{bmatrix} | \\ a_1 \\ | \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + v_1 \begin{bmatrix} | \\ a_1 \\ | \end{bmatrix} \implies \Lambda e_j = 1 \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \lambda_j \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_j e_j$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Substituting $\Lambda e_j = \lambda_j e_j \dots$

$$[\text{Cov}(R)] v_j = V \Lambda V^T v_j = V \Lambda (V^T v_j) = V \Lambda e_j = V \lambda_j e_j = \lambda_j V e_j = \lambda_j v_j$$

- In summary
 - v_j is a right singular vector of \tilde{R}
 - $[\text{Cov}(R)] = \tilde{R}^T \tilde{R}$
 - $[\text{Cov}(R)] v_j = \lambda_j v_j$
 - $[\text{Cov}(R)] v_j$ same direction as v_j , length scaled by factor λ_j
- In general: let A be a square matrix and consider the product Ax
 - Certain *special* vectors x are in the same direction as Ax
 - These vectors are called eigenvectors
 - Equation: $Ax = \lambda_x x$; the number λ_x is the eigenvalue

Diagonalizing a Matrix

- Suppose an $n \times n$ matrix A has n linearly independent eigenvectors
- Let S be a matrix whose columns are the n eigenvectors of A

$$S^{-1}AS = \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- The matrix A is diagonalized
- Useful representations of a diagonalized matrix

$$AS = S\Lambda \quad S^{-1}AS = \Lambda \quad A = S\Lambda S^{-1}$$

- Diagonalization requires that A have n eigenvectors
- Side note: invertibility requires nonzero eigenvalues

The Spectral Theorem

- Returning to the motivating example ...
- Let $A = \tilde{R}^T \tilde{R}$ where \tilde{R} is an $m \times n$ matrix
- A is symmetric
- Spectral Theorem Every symmetric matrix $A = A^T$ has the factorization $Q\Lambda Q^T$ with real diagonal Λ and orthogonal matrix Q :

$$A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1} = Q\Lambda Q^T \quad \text{with} \quad Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

- **Caveat** A nonsymmetric matrix can easily produce λ and x that are complex

Positive Definite Matrices

- The symmetric matrix A is positive definite if $x^T A x > 0$ for every nonzero vector x

- 2×2 case: $x^T A x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = ax_1^2 + 2bx_1x_2 + cx_2^2 > 0$

- The scalar value $x^T A x$ is a quadratic function of x_1 and x_2

$$f(x_1, x_2) = ax_1^2 + 2bx_1x_2 + cx_2^2$$

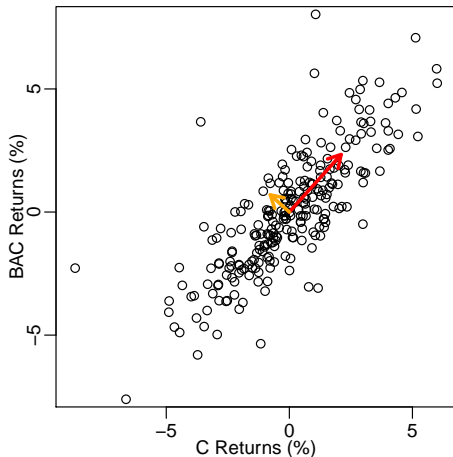
- f has a minimum of 0 at $(0, 0)$ and is positive everywhere else

1×1 a is a positive number

2×2 A is a positive definite matrix

R Example

```
> eigR <- eigen(var(R))  
> S <- eigR$vector  
> lambda <- eigR$values  
  
> u <- sqrt(lambda[1]) * S[,1]  
> arrows(0, 0, u[1], u[2])  
  
> w <- sqrt(lambda[2]) * S[,2]  
> arrows(0, 0, w[1], w[2])
```

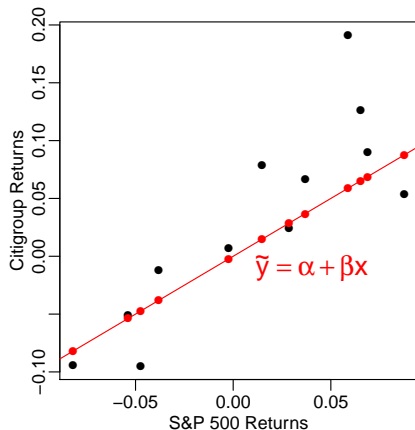


Outline

- 1 Transposes and Permutations
- 2 Vector Spaces and Subspaces
- 3 Variance-Covariance Matrices
- 4 Computing Covariance Matrices
- 5 Orthogonal Matrices
- 6 Singular Value Factorization
- 7 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
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Least Squares

Citigroup Returns vs. S&P 500 Returns (Monthly - 2010)



- Set of m points (x_i, y_i)
- Want to find best-fit line

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x$$

- Criterion: $\sum_{i=1}^m [y_i - \hat{y}_i]^2$ should be minimum
- Choose $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ so that

$$\sum_{i=1}^m [y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i)]^2$$

minimized when

- $\alpha = \hat{\alpha}$
- $\beta = \hat{\beta}$

Least Squares

- What does the column picture look like?
- Let $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m)$
- Let $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$
- Let e be a column vector of m ones
- Can write \tilde{y} as a linear combination

$$\tilde{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{y}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{y}_m \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} | \\ e \\ | \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = X\beta$$

- Want to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^m [y_i - \tilde{y}_i]^2 = \|y - \tilde{y}\|^2 = \|y - X\beta\|^2$$

QR Factorization

- Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with linearly independent columns
- **Full QR Factorization:** A can be written as the product of
 - an $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix Q
 - an $m \times n$ upper triangular matrix R
(upper triangular means $r_{ij} = 0$ when $i > j$)

$$A = QR$$

- Want to minimize

$$\|y - X\beta\|^2 = \|y - QR\beta\|^2$$

- Recall: orthogonal transformation leaves vector lengths unchanged

$$\|y - X\beta\|^2 = \|y - QR\beta\|^2 = \|Q^T(y - QR\beta)\|^2 = \|Q^Ty - R\beta\|^2$$

Least Squares

- Let $u = Q^T y$

$$u - R\beta = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} \\ 0 & r_{22} \\ 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - (r_{11}\alpha + r_{12}\beta) \\ u_2 - r_{22}\beta \\ u_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

- α and β effect only the first n elements of the vector
- Want to minimize

$$\|u - R\beta\|^2 = [u_1 - (r_{11}\alpha + r_{12}\beta)]^2 + [u_2 - r_{22}\beta]^2 + \sum_{i=(n+1)}^m u_i^2$$

- Can find $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ by solving the linear system $\tilde{R}\hat{\beta} = \tilde{u}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} \\ 0 & r_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha} \\ \hat{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

\tilde{R} first n rows of R , \tilde{u} first n elements of u

- System is already upper triangular, solve using back substitution

R Example

- First, get the data

```
> library(quantmod)
> getSymbols(c("C", "^GSPC"))
> citi <- c(coredata(monthlyReturn(C["2010"])))
> sp500 <- c(coredata(monthlyReturn(GSPC["2010"])))
```

- The x variable is sp500, bind a column of ones to get matrix X

```
> X <- cbind(1, sp500)
```

- Compute QR factorization of X and extract the Q and R matrices

```
> qrX <- qr(X)
> Q <- qr.Q(qrX, complete = TRUE)
> R <- qr.R(qrX, complete = TRUE)
```

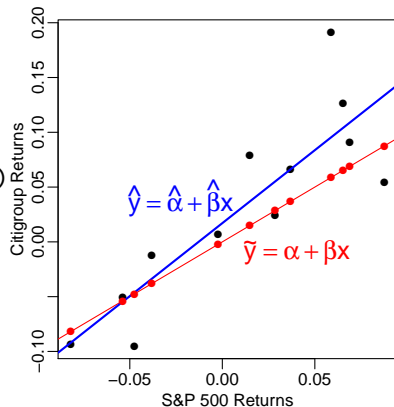
R Example

- Compute $u = Q^T y$

```
> u <- t(Q) %*% citi
```
- Solve for $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$

```
> backsolve(R[1:2,1:2], u[1:2])  
[1] 0.01708494 1.33208984
```
- Compare with built-in least squares fitting function

```
> coef(lsfits(sp500, citi))  
Intercept      X  
0.01708494 1.33208984
```





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