### Mathematics for Machine Learning

Linear Algebra: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, Eigenspaces, Cholesky
 Decomposition & Diagonalization

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### Credits for the resource

- The slides are based on the textbooks:
  - Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong: Mathematics for Machine Learning. Cambridge University Press. 2020.
  - Howard Anton, Chris Rorres, Anton Kaul: Elementary Linear Algebra. Wiley. 2019.
- We could partially refer to the monograph: Francesco Orabona: A Modern Introduction to Online Learning. https://arxiv.org/abs/1912.13213

• Matrix decomposition or matrix factorization.

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- Three matrix decompositions will be introduced.

### Outline

- Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors
- Cholesky Decomposition
- 3 Eigendecomposition & Diagonalization

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### Characteristic Polynomial

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For  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,

$$p_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) := \det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})$$

$$= (-1)^{n}(\lambda - \lambda_{1}) \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_{n})$$

$$= c_{0} + c_{1}\lambda + \cdots + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + (-1)^{n}\lambda^{n},$$

for  $c_0, \ldots, c_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ , is called the characteristic polynomial of  $\boldsymbol{A}$ .

#### Note that

•  $c_0 = \det(\mathbf{A})$ 

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#### Note that

- $c_0 = \det(\mathbf{A}) = \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2 \cdots \lambda_n$ .
- $c_{n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A})$

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- $c_{n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = (-1)^{n-1} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n).$





### Example

Given 
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
,

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 0 \\ 8 & -1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (3 - \lambda)(-1 - \lambda).$$

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Given 
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$
,

$$\det(\boldsymbol{B} - \lambda \boldsymbol{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\lambda & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = -\lambda^3 + 8\lambda^2 - 17\lambda + 4.$$

### Eigenvalue Equation

#### Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a square matrix. Then

- $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of **A** and
- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$  is the corresponding eigenvector of A

if  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ .

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \iff (\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

#### Equivalent statements:

- $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .
- There exists an  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$  with  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$  (i.e.,  $(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I}_n)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ) that can be solved non-trivially (i.e.,  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ ).
- $\operatorname{rank}(\boldsymbol{A} \lambda \boldsymbol{I}_n) < n$ .
- $\det(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I}_n) = 0$ .

### Remark

• Eigenvectors are NOT unique.

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- Eigenvectors are NOT unique.
- Suppose **x** is an eigenvector of **A** w.r.t. eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then for any  $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbf{0}$ }

$$\mathbf{A}(c\mathbf{x}) = c\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = c\lambda\mathbf{x} = \lambda(c\mathbf{x}).$$

#### Theorem

 $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  if and only if  $\lambda$  is a root of the characteristic polynomial  $p_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda)$  of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

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### Algebraic Multiplicity

Suppose that matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  has an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ . The algebraic multiplicity of  $\lambda_i$  is the number of times the root appears in the characteristic polynomial.

• Denoted by  $am(\lambda_i)$ 

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#### Eigenspace

For  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , the set of all eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$  associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda$  spans the eigenspace of  $\mathbf{A}$  (denoted by  $E_{\lambda}$ ).

### Geometric Multiplicity

 $\dim(E_{\lambda})$  is called the geometric multiplicity of  $\lambda$ .

• Denoted by  $gm(\lambda)$ .

### Eigenspectrum (Spectrum)

The set of all eigenvalues of  $\boldsymbol{A}$  is called the eigenspectrum (or spectrum) of  $\boldsymbol{A}$ .

# Relation b/w am( $\lambda$ ) & gm( $\lambda$ )

#### Geometric multiplicity Algebraic multiplicity

Given  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and assume that  $\lambda$  is a eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}$ , then

$$gm(\lambda) \leq am(\lambda)$$
.

• Assume that  $\dim(E_{\lambda}) = k \le n$  and let  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$  is a basis of  $E_{\lambda}$  such that  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  are eigenvectors w.r.t.  $\lambda$ .

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- $\exists \mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  such that  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

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- $\exists \mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  such that  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Denote by  $P = [U \ V]$  for  $U = [\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{v}_k]$  and  $V = [\mathbf{v}_{k+1} \cdots \mathbf{v}_n]$  (note: P is invertible).

• : P is invertible  $\Rightarrow$  Let  $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$  and  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-k) \times n}$ .

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- Then,

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \boldsymbol{I}_k & \boldsymbol{O} \\ \boldsymbol{O} & \boldsymbol{I}_{n-k} \end{array}\right] = \boldsymbol{P}^{-1}\boldsymbol{P} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \boldsymbol{X} \\ \boldsymbol{Y} \end{array}\right] \left[\boldsymbol{U} \quad \boldsymbol{V}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{U} & \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{V} \\ \boldsymbol{Y}\boldsymbol{U} & \boldsymbol{Y}\boldsymbol{V} \end{array}\right]$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_k & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I}_{n-k} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{U} \ \mathbf{V}] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{U} & \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V} \\ \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{U} & \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{V} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Note that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A}[\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{v}_k] = [\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_k] = [\lambda \mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \lambda \mathbf{v}_k] = \lambda \mathbf{U}$ .

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$$\det(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}-z\mathbf{I}) = \det\begin{bmatrix} \lambda\mathbf{I}_k - z\mathbf{I}_k & \mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} - z\mathbf{I}_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$= (\lambda - z)^k \det(\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} - z\mathbf{I}_{n-k}).$$

• Note:  $\det(\mathbf{A} - z\mathbf{I}) = \det(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} - z\mathbf{I})$ .

#### Remark

$$P^{-1}AP - zI = P^{-1}AP - zP^{-1}P$$
  
=  $P^{-1}AP - P^{-1}(zI)P$   
=  $P^{-1}(A - zI)P$ .

### Remark

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Therefore,

$$\det(\mathbf{A}-z\mathbf{I})=\det(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}-z\mathbf{I}).$$

### The Case of the Identity Matrix

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For  $I_n \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,

- what is  $p_I(\lambda)$ ?
- What are its eigenvalues and the associated eigenvectors?
- What are the eigenspaces?

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$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} \in \ker(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}).$ 

## Useful Properties (1/4)

- **A** and  $\mathbf{A}^{\top}$  possess the same eigenvalues but not necessarily the same eigenvectors.
- The eigenspace  $E_{\lambda}$  is null( $\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I}$ ).

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- Symmetric, positive definite matrices always have positive, real eigenvalues.
  - $\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \lambda \mathbf{x} = \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 > 0.$

## Useful Properties (2/4)

#### Theorem (4.13)

The eigenvectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  of a matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with n distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are linearly independent.

#### Theorem (4.14)

Given a matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , we can always obtain a symmetric, positive semidefinite matrix  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  by defining

$$S := A^{\top}A.$$

If  $rank(\mathbf{A}) = n$ , then  $S := \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A}$  is symmetric, positive definite.

# Useful Properties (3/4)

#### Theorem

If  $\boldsymbol{A}$  is symmetric, then eigenvectors to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

#### Proof.

- Assume that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w} = \mu\mathbf{w}$  for two eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$  corresponding to eigenvalues  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  such that  $\lambda \neq \mu$ .
- $\begin{array}{lll} ^{\bullet} & \lambda \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle & = & \langle \lambda \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{v})^{\top} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^{\top} \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{w} = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{w} \rangle \\ & = & \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{A} \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mu \mathbf{w} \rangle = \mu \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle. \end{array}$

The equalities hold only if  $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0$ .



## Useful Properties (4/4)

#### Theorem (4.15; Spectral Theorem)

If  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric, then there exists an orthonormal basis, consisting of eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$ , of the corresponding vector space V, and each eigenvalue is real.

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For a matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , we have  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$ , where  $\lambda_i$ 's are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

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#### Theorem (4.17)

For a matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , we have  $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$ , where  $\lambda_i$ 's are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  recall?

### A Practical Example

- Google uses the eigenvector corresponding to the maximal eigenvalue of a matrix **A** to determine the rank of a page for search.
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- Websites are represented as a huge directed graph (pages: vertices; links: edges).
- Compute the weight (importance)  $x_i \ge 0$  for a website  $a_i$  and get  $\mathbf{x}$ .
  - The number of pages pointing to  $a_i$ .
- A transition matrix **A** (prob.): modeling the navigation behavior of a user.
- Goal: x, Ax, A<sup>2</sup>x, ..., x\*

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- Goal:  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x}$ , ...,  $\mathbf{x}^* \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}^* \Rightarrow \text{Turning to probabilities (normalization)}$ .

4 D > 4 A > 4 B > 4 B > B 9 9 9

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### Cholesky Decomposition

#### Cholesky Decomposition

A symmetric, positive definite matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  can be factorized into a product  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^{\top}$ , where  $\mathbf{L}$  is a lower-triangular matrix with positive diagonal elements.

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} \\ \\ \end{array}\right]$$

### Example of Cholesky Factorization

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{32} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{array} \right] = \boldsymbol{L} \boldsymbol{L}^\top = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \ell_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ \ell_{21} & \ell_{22} & 0 \\ \ell_{31} & \ell_{32} & \ell_{33} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \ell_{11} & \ell_{21} & \ell_{31} \\ 0 & \ell_{22} & \ell_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & \ell_{33} \end{array} \right].$$

We have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \ell_{11}^2 & \ell_{21}\ell_{11} & \ell_{31}\ell_{11} \\ \ell_{21}\ell_{11} & \ell_{21}^2 + \ell_{22}^2 & \ell_{31}\ell_{21} + \ell_{32}\ell_{22} \\ \ell_{31}\ell_{11} & \ell_{31}\ell_{21} + \ell_{32}\ell_{22} & \ell_{31}^2 + \ell_{32}^2 + \ell_{33}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finally, solve  $\ell_{11}, \ldots, \ell_{33}$ .

## Motivations of Using Cholesky Decomposition

- Symmetric positive definite matrices require frequent manipulation.
  - E.g., Covariance matrix of a multivariate Gaussian variable.
  - The Cholesky factorization of the covariance matrix allows us to generate samples from a Gaussian distribution.
- Computing gradients in deep stochastic models such as variational auto-encoder (VAE).

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- Computing gradients in deep stochastic models such as variational auto-encoder (VAE).
- Compute determinants efficiently.
  - $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{L}) \det(\mathbf{L}^{\top}) = \det(\mathbf{L})^2$ .
  - Note:  $\det(\mathbf{L})$  can be computed efficiently (:: triangular).

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- Diagonalization allow fast computation of determinants, powers and inverses of matrices. A diagonal matrix is like

$$\mathbf{D} = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} c_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & c_n \end{array} \right].$$

• Question: What are the determinant, cubic, and inverse of D?

## Similarity

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Two matrices  $\boldsymbol{A}$  and  $\boldsymbol{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are similar if there exists an invertible matrix  $\boldsymbol{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{S}^{-1} \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{S}$ .

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#### Diagonalizable

A matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is diagonalizable if it is *similar* to a *diagonal* matrix...

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Two matrices A and  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are similar if there exists an invertible matrix  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $A = S^{-1}BS$ .

#### Diagonalizable

A matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is diagonalizable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix...

•  $\exists D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , such that  $D = P^{-1}AP$ .

## Eigenvectors & Diagonalization

- Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  be a set of scalars.
- Let  $\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n$  be a set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Let  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

We can show that

$$AP = PD$$
.

if and only if  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $\boldsymbol{A}$  and  $\mathbf{p}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{p}_n$  are the corresponding eigenvectors of  $\boldsymbol{A}$ .

We can see that

$$\textbf{\textit{AP}} = \textbf{\textit{A}}[\textbf{\textit{p}}_1, \dots, \textbf{\textit{p}}_n] = [\textbf{\textit{A}}\textbf{\textit{p}}_1, \dots, \textbf{\textit{A}}\textbf{\textit{p}}_n],$$

and

We can see that

$$AP = A[p_1, \dots, p_n] = [Ap_1, \dots, Ap_n],$$

and

$$PD = [\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n] \left[ egin{array}{ccc} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{array} \right]$$

We can see that

$${\boldsymbol{A}}{\boldsymbol{P}} = {\boldsymbol{A}}[{\boldsymbol{p}}_1,\ldots,{\boldsymbol{p}}_n] = [{\boldsymbol{A}}{\boldsymbol{p}}_1,\ldots,{\boldsymbol{A}}{\boldsymbol{p}}_n],$$

and

$$PD = [\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ & \ddots \\ 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda_1 \mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \lambda_n \mathbf{p}_n].$$

We can see that

$$AP = A[p_1, \dots, p_n] = [Ap_1, \dots, Ap_n],$$

and

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Thus,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_1 = \lambda_1\mathbf{p}_1$$
 $\vdots$ 
 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_n = \lambda_n\mathbf{p}_n$ 

Therefore, the columns of  $\boldsymbol{P}$  are eigenvectors of  $\boldsymbol{A}$ .

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- $\Rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}(\alpha_1\mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{p}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n\mathbf{p}_n) = \mathbf{A0} = \mathbf{0}.$

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- $\Rightarrow (**) \lambda_n \cdot (*):$   $\alpha_1(\lambda_1 \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2(\lambda_2 \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}(\lambda_{n-1} \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_{n-1} = \mathbf{0}.$

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- $\Rightarrow$  (\*\*)  $\lambda_n \cdot$  (\*):

$$\alpha_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2(\lambda_2 - \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}(\lambda_{n-1} - \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_{n-1} = \mathbf{0}.$$

- $\Rightarrow \alpha_i(\lambda_1 \lambda_n) = 0$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n 1.
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### Are $\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n$ linearly independent?

- If n=1, we only get  $\mathbf{p}_1 \ (\neq \mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow$  linearly independent.
- Assume that  $p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}$  are linearly independent.
- Suppose that  $\alpha_1 \mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{p}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \mathbf{p}_n = \mathbf{0}$ . (\*)
- $\Rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}(\alpha_1\mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2\mathbf{p}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n\mathbf{p}_n) = \mathbf{A0} = \mathbf{0}.$
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- $\Rightarrow (**) \lambda_n \cdot (*):$   $\alpha_1(\lambda_1 \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2(\lambda_2 \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}(\lambda_{n-1} \lambda_n)\mathbf{p}_{n-1} = \mathbf{0}.$
- $\Rightarrow \alpha_i(\lambda_1 \lambda_n) = 0$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n 1.
- $\Rightarrow \alpha_i = 0$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n 1.  $\Rightarrow \alpha_n = 0$ .
  - $\bullet$  :  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 0$ .

### Eigendecomposition

### Theorem [Eigendecomposition]

A square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be factored into

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$
,

where  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and D is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of A

if and only if

the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Put it concisely

#### **Theorem**

For a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , the following statements are equivalent:

- A is diagonalizable.
- **A** has *n* linearly independent eigenvectors.

#### Remark

The spectral theorem tells us that:

We can find an orthonormal basis of the corresponding vector space consisting of eigenvectors of of a symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ 

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#### Theorem

A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be always diagonalized.

Compute the eigendecomposition of 
$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
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Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

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$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \det\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{5}{2} - \lambda & -1 \\ -1 & \frac{5}{2} - \lambda \end{array}\right]\right) =$$

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Set 
$$\lambda_1 = \frac{7}{2}, \lambda_2 = \frac{3}{2}$$
.

② Solving  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_1 = \frac{7}{2}\mathbf{p}_1$  and  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_2 = \frac{3}{2}\mathbf{p}_2$ .

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$$\textbf{p}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -1 \end{array} \right], \ \ \textbf{p}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \end{array} \right].$$

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  - $\star$  Note that  $\{\mathbf{p}_1,\mathbf{p}_2\}$  forms an orthonormal basis

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  - Finally we obtain  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$ .

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$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{P})\det(\mathbf{D})\det(\mathbf{P}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{D}) = \prod_i d_{ii}$$
.

#### Maclaurin Series

A Maclaurin Series expansion of f(x) is

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(0)}{3!}x^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \dots$$

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Thus, for  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{P}^{-1}$ , we may define

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For example, suppose  $f(\mathbf{A}) = e^{\mathbf{A}}$ , then

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Compute 
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 for  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -6 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

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$$\mathbf{P}=\left[\begin{array}{cc} -3 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}\right]$$
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$$f(\mathbf{D}) = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} f(0) & 0 \\ 0 & f(1) \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e \end{array} \right].$$

# **Discussions**