

# The Inner Products $AA^T$ and $A^T A$

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# Notations (Important)

- A vector is by default a column
  - For vectors  $x$  and  $y$ , their inner (or dot) product,  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y$ 
    - $\langle x + z, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle z, y \rangle = x^T y + z^T y$
  - Beware: some texts use row vectors and  $\langle x, y \rangle = xy^T$
- For a matrix an example is a row
  - An example (or datapoint) is a row  $x_i$  while each feature is a columns
    - Features are like fixed columns in a spreadsheet
  - For matrices  $X$  and  $Y$ ,  $\langle X, Y \rangle = XY^T$  or  $\sum_i (x_i y_i^T)$
  - Beware: some texts use column for examples and let  $\langle X, Y \rangle = X^T Y$
- So it's  $x^T x$ ,  $x^T M x$ , but  $XX^T$  and  $Q\Lambda Q^T$

# What about outer product?

- The outer product of two vectors is a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ac & ad \\ bc & bd \end{pmatrix}$$

- The outer product (or Kronecker product) of two matrices is a **tensor**
- We don't deal with outer products yet

# Python call for inner product

- Inner products are performed with `np. dot ()`
  - When called on two arrays, the arrays are **automatically** oriented to perform inner product
    - Note that `[[ 1 ], [ 1 ]]` is a  $1 \times 2$  matrix
  - When called on an array `x` and a matrix `X`, the array is **automatically** read as a row for `np. dot (x, X)`, and column for `np. dot (X, x)` to perform inner product
  - When called on two matrices, make sure that the matrices are oriented correctly, or you will get  $X^T X$  when you want  $XX^T$
  - Impossible to get outer product with `np. dot ()`
- If you write `x*y` or `X*Y`, what you get is an element-wise multiplication

# The inner products $AA^T$ and $A^T A$

- Given an  $n \times m$  matrix  $A$  where the rows are datapoints and columns are features
- The inner product  $A^T A$  is the **covariance matrix** (more precisely  $A^T A/n$ )
  - Used in the proof of PCA
- The inner product  $AA^T$  is called a **Gram matrix**, or **Gramian**
  - Used in the proof of MDS
- Eigendecomposition of both  $A^T A$  and  $AA^T$  are equivalent (convertible from each other)

# Properties of $AA^T$ and $A^T A$

## □ Properties

- Positive semi-definite (proof later)
  - Furthermore, positive semi-definiteness of symmetric matrices is preserved over sum, product, and scaling

## □ $AA^T$ and $A^T A$ are related

- Equivalent eigendecomposition (later)
- Convertible through their eigenvectors (later)
- Obtainable from SVD of  $A$  (proof omitted)

# $AA^T/A^TA$ is positive semi-definite

- A matrix  $M$  is positive semi-definite (PSD) iff all its eigenvalues are non-negative

- That is,  $\forall x (x^T M x \geq 0)$

- For example,  $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is positive semi-definite because

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1 \quad x_2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} &= x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2 \\ &= (x_1 - x_2)^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- To show that  $AA^T$  is PSD, we first establish the equivalence between  $x^T M x$  and a quadratic formula

# Quadratic form

- A generalized quadratic formula of  $n$  variables can be written in the form of  $x^T M x$
- For instance, a quadratic formula of two variables

$$a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{21}x_2x_1 + a_{22}x_2^2$$

can be written as

$$(x_1 \quad x_2) \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (x_1 a_{11} + x_1 a_{12} \quad x_1 a_{12} + x_2 a_{22}) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{21}x_2x_1 + a_{22}x_2^2$$

- The general form of  $n$  variables is

$$(x_1 \quad \dots \quad x_n) \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x^T A x = \sum_{ij} a_{ij} x_i x_j$$



# $AA^T$ in quadratic form

- Let  $B = AA^T$ , then  $x^T B x \geq 0$ , let  $a_i$  be the  $i$ -row of  $A$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}x^T (AA^T) x &= \sum_{ij} \langle a_i, a_j \rangle x_i x_j \\&= \sum_{ij} \langle x_i a_i, x_j a_j \rangle \\&= \langle \sum_i x_i a_i, \sum_j x_j a_j \rangle \geq 0\end{aligned}$$

- This says that  $x^T (AA^T) x$  can be factorized into a linear addition of the terms

$$(\sum_i x_i a_{ik})^2$$

- Hence  $AA^T$  is PSD (and similarly so is  $A^T A$ )

# Example of $2 \times 2$ matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \leftarrow a_1 \rightarrow \\ \leftarrow a_2 \rightarrow \end{pmatrix}, A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow \\ a_1^T & a_2^T \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_1^T & a_1 a_2^T \\ a_2 a_1^T & a_2 a_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x^T AA^T x = (x_1 \quad x_2) \begin{pmatrix} a_1 a_1^T & a_1 a_2^T \\ a_2 a_1^T & a_2 a_2^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (x_1 a_1 a_1^T + x_2 a_2 a_1^T \quad x_1 a_1 a_2^T + x_2 a_2 a_2^T) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= a_1 a_1^T x_1^2 + 2a_1 a_2^T x_1 x_2 + a_2 a_2^T x_2^2 \quad (\because a_1 a_2^T = a_2 a_1^T)$$

$$= (x_1 a_1 + x_2 a_2)(x_1 a_1^T + x_2 a_2^T)$$

$$= \|x_1 a_1 + x_2 a_2\|^2$$

$$\geq 0$$

# Example of $2 \times 2$ matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x^T A A^T x &= (x_1 \quad x_2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (x_1 + x_2 \quad x_1 + 2x_2) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1^2 + x_1 x_2 + x_1 x_2 + 2x_2^2 \\ &= (x_1^2 + 2x_1 x_2 + x_2^2) + x_2^2 \\ &= (x_1 + x_2)^2 + x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

By theorem,  $\sum_i x_i a_i = x_1(1 \ 0) + x_2(1 \ 1) = (x_1 + x_2 \quad x_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} (\sum_i x_i a_i)(\sum_i x_i a_i) &= (x_1 + x_2 \quad x_2) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_2 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (x_1 + x_2)^2 + x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$x^T A A^T x = (x_1 + x_2)^2 + x_2^2 \geq 0$$

# Example of $3 \times 2$ matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x^T A A^T x &= (x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (x_1 + x_3 \quad x_2 + x_3 \quad x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1^2 + 2x_1x_3 + x_2^2 + 2x_2x_3 + 2x_3^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{By theorem, } \sum_i x_i a_i &= x_1(1 \quad 0) + x_2(0 \quad 1) + x_3(1 \quad 1) \\ &= (x_1 + x_3 \quad x_2 + x_3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\sum_i x_i a_i)(\sum_i x_i a_i) &= (x_1 + x_3 \quad x_2 + x_3) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_3 \\ x_2 + x_3 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1^2 + 2x_3^2 + 2x_1x_3 + x_2^2 + 2x_2x_3 \end{aligned}$$

$$x^T A A^T x = (x_1 + x_3)^2 + (x_2 + x_3)^2 \geq 0$$

# $AA^T/A^TA$ equal in decomposition

- $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  have equivalent eigen-decomposition
- We will prove these facts
  1.  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  have the same rank
  - 2.1  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  have the same eigenvalues
  - 2.2  $AA^T$  and  $A^TA$  have the same eigenvectors (different for only up to an orthogonal transformation)

# $AA^T$ and $A^T A$ have the same rank

- Let  $N(A)$  denote the null space of  $A$ 
    - $N(A) = \{x | Ax = 0\}$
  - For  $u \in N(A)$ ,  $Au = 0 \Rightarrow A^T Au = 0 \Rightarrow u \in N(A^T A)$
  - For  $u \in N(A^T A)$ ,  
 $A^T Au = 0 \Rightarrow uA^T Au = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow (Au)^T (Au) = 0 \xRightarrow{\text{See next slide}} Au = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow u \in N(A)$
  - Hence  $N(A^T A) = N(A) \Rightarrow \text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(A)$
  - Similarly  $N(AA^T) = N(A^T)$   
 $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(AA^T) = \text{rank}(A^T)$
- $\therefore \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T), \text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(AA^T)$

# Proof $X^T X = 0 \Rightarrow X = 0$

- Let  $X = (x_{ij})$
- Observe that  $(X^T X)_{ij} = \sum_k x_{ik} x_{jk}$   
 $\Rightarrow (X^T X)_{ii} = \sum_k x_{ik}^2$
- Now  $X^T X = 0 \Rightarrow \forall i, (X^T X)_{ii} = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \forall i \forall k, x_{ik} = 0$

# $AA^T/A^TA$ have equal eigenpairs

- **For any matrices  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $AB$  and  $BA$  have the same non-zero eigenvalues**
  - Let  $\lambda \neq 0$  be a eigenvalue for  $AB$  with eigenvector  $v$
  - Then  $ABv = \lambda v \Rightarrow BABv = \lambda Bv$   
 $\Rightarrow (BA)(Bv) = \lambda(Bv)$   
 $\Rightarrow \lambda$  is a eigenvalue of  $BA$  with eigenvector  $(Bv)$
- **This result holds for all  $A$  and  $B$**



# Convert $AA^T \leftrightarrow A^T A$

- Let  $\Lambda$  be the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues for both  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$
- Let  $U, V$  be their respective eigenvectors, that is,  $AA^T U = \Lambda U$  and  $A^T A V = \Lambda V$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} AA^T &= U \Lambda U^T \\ &= U (V^T A^T A V) U^T \\ &= (U V^T) A^T A (V U^T) \end{aligned}$$

# $AA^T$ and $A^T A$ related through SVD

- Singular values and vectors of  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$  are related to the singular values and vectors of  $A$
- Let  $A = UDV^T$  ( $UDV^T$  is the SVD of  $A$ ), then

$$A^T A = VD^2V^T, \text{ and}$$

$$AA^T = UD^2U^T$$

(Proof omitted)

# Gramian as kernel

- A kernel is a function that computes a distance  $d(x_i, x_j)$  in a high dimensional mapped space  $\phi$  without knowing  $\phi(x_i)$  and  $\phi(x_j)$
- Good when  $\phi(x)$  has way more features than  $x$  in the original space
  - But when number of datapoints is large, still better to compute  $\phi(x_i)$  and  $\phi(x_j)$
- $d(x_i, x_j)$  often defined to be an inner product,  $\langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x_j) \rangle$ 
  - More precisely, a Gramian