Matrix - Basic

Definitions

Given $N \times M$ matrix A, then $M \times N$ matrix B is :

•	the transpose of A	if	$B_{m,n}$	=	$A_{n,m}$
•	the conjugate transpose of A	if	$B_{m,n}$	=	$\overline{A_{n,m}}$
•	the left inverse of A	if	BA	=	I

the right inverse of A $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$

Given N×N matrix A, then it is:

	,				
•	orthogonal	if	AA^T	=	I
•	symmetric	if	A^T	=	A
•	Hermitian	if	A^T	=	\overline{A}
•	positive definite	if	XAX^T	>	0
•	positive semi definite	if	XAX^T	<u>≥</u>	0
•	negative definite	if	XAX^T	<	0
•	negative semi definite	if	XAX^T	\leq	0
•	symmetic positive definite	if	A is bo	th sy	ımmetric

symmetric positive semi definite if A is both symmetric
symmetric negative definite if A is both symmetric

 $\bullet \quad \text{symmetric negative semi definite \ if} \quad A \text{ is both symmetric}$

(i.e. complex conjugate)

(note: left inverse is not denoted by A^{-1}) (note: right inverse is not denoted by A^{-1})

Example that is positive definite but asymmetric:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} +1 & +1 \\ -1 & +1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x^2 + xy - xy + y^2 = x^2 + y^2 > 0$$

for all non zero 1×N row matrix X and positive definite and positive semi definite and negative definite and negative semi definite

Please note that:

• product of diagonal matrices is also diagonal,

• product of upper triangular matrices is also upper triangular,

• product of lower triangular matrices is also lower triangular,

• product of orthonormal basis is also orthonormal basis, (read the proof in later section)

• product of symmetric matrix is **not necessarily symmetric**,

• product of positive definite matrix is **not necessary positive definite**.

Given N×N matrix A, then:

 $\begin{array}{llll} \bullet & minor \ of \ A \ is & M_{n,m} & = & \det(A_{n,m}) & where \ A_{n,m} \ is \ submatrix \ without \ row \ n \ \& \ column \ m \\ \bullet & cofactor \ of \ A \ is & C_{n,m} & = & (-1)^{n+m} M_{n,m} \\ \bullet & cofactor \ matrix \ of \ A \ is & C & = & (C_{n,m})_{n,m\in[1,N]} \\ \bullet & adjugate \ matrix \ of \ A \ is & adj(A) & = & C^T \end{array}$

Given $N \times N$ matrix A, then the followings are equivalent.

A is invertible.

proof

• A is non singular.

• A has non zero determinant.

• A can be written as a row echelon form.

• A can be written as a product of elementary matrices.

• There is exactly one solution for AX = B.

• There is exactly one solution for AX = 0, which is trival solution.

If A is linearly dependent, then there exists (inf) non trival solution to AX = 0. If A is linearly independent, then there exists only trival solution to AX = 0.

Property of transpose and inverse

Inverse of matrix sum

$$(A+B)^{-1}$$
 = $A^{-1} - (I+A^{-1}B)^{-1}A^{-1}BA^{-1}$

(Proof) We start with :

$$(I+P)^{-1} = (I+P)^{-1}(I+P-P)$$

$$= (I+P)^{-1}(I+P) - (I+P)^{-1}P$$

$$= I - (I+P)^{-1}P$$

$$= I - (I+P)^{-1}P$$

$$(A+B)^{-1} = (AI + AA^{-1}B)^{-1}$$

$$= (A(I+A^{-1}B))^{-1}$$

$$= (I+A^{-1}B)^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$= (I-(I+A^{-1}B)^{-1}A^{-1}B)A^{-1}$$
by putting $P = A^{-1}B$ into $I - (I+P)^{-1}P$

$$= A^{-1} - (I+A^{-1}B)^{-1}A^{-1}BA^{-1}$$

Inverse of matrix block

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \\ -(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & (D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

(Proof) Suppose we have :

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \\ -(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} & (D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X_{11} = AA^{-1} + AA^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} - B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

$$= I + B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} - B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

$$= I$$

$$X_{12} = -AA^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} + B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}$$

$$= -B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} + B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}$$

$$= 0$$

$$X_{21} = CA^{-1} + CA^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1} - D(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

$$= CA^{-1} + (CA^{-1}B - D)(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

$$= CA^{-1} - CA^{-1}$$

$$= 0$$

$$X_{22} = -CA^{-1}B(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} + D(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}$$

$$= (D - CA^{-1}B)(D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1}$$

$$= I$$

Sherman Morrison formula

Sherman Morrison formula states that if u and v are row vectors, u^Tv is the outer product, then:

$$(A + \beta u^T v)^{-1} = A^{-1} - \frac{\beta A^{-1} u^T v A^{-1}}{1 + \beta v A^{-1} u^T}$$
Note: $1 + \beta v A^{-1} u^T$ is a scalar.

(Proof) By direct multiplication:

$$(A + \beta u^{T}v) \left(A^{-1} - \frac{\beta A^{-1}u^{T}vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}} \right) = (A + \beta u^{T}v)A^{-1} - (A + \beta u^{T}v) \frac{\beta A^{-1}u^{T}vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \frac{\beta u^{T}vA^{-1} + \beta^{2}u^{T}vA^{-1}u^{T}vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \frac{\beta u^{T}(1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T})vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \frac{(1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T})\beta u^{T}vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \frac{(1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T})\beta u^{T}vA^{-1}}{1 + \beta vA^{-1}u^{T}}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \beta u^{T}vA^{-1}$$

$$= I + \beta u^{T}vA^{-1} - \beta u^{T}vA^{-1}$$

$$= I$$

$$This is useful in recursive least square.$$

Matrix differentiation

Jacobian, Hessian and Taylor series

Given function $F: \mathcal{R}^{\mathbb{M}} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$,

$$F(X) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(X) \\ f_2(X) \\ f_3(X) \\ \dots \\ f_N(X) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M) \\ f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M) \\ f_3(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M) \\ \dots \\ f_N(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M) \end{bmatrix}$$
 where $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \dots \\ x_M \end{bmatrix}$

Jacobian is defined as:

$$J(F(X)) \ = \ \begin{bmatrix} \partial f_1 / \partial x_1 & \partial f_1 / \partial x_2 & \partial f_1 / \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial f_1 / \partial x_M \\ \partial f_2 / \partial x_1 & \partial f_2 / \partial x_2 & \partial f_2 / \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial f_2 / \partial x_M \\ \partial f_3 / \partial x_1 & \partial f_3 / \partial x_2 & \partial f_3 / \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial f_3 / \partial x_M \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \partial f_N / \partial x_1 & \partial f_N / \partial x_2 & \partial f_N / \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial f_N / \partial x_M \end{bmatrix}$$
 which is 1st order derivative

When M=1, Hessian is defined as:

$$H(f(X)) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial^2 f/\partial x_1 \partial x_1 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_1 \partial x_2 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_1 \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial^2 f/\partial x_1 \partial x_M \\ \partial^2 f/\partial x_2 \partial x_1 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_2 \partial x_2 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_2 \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial^2 f/\partial x_2 \partial x_M \\ \partial^2 f/\partial x_3 \partial x_1 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_3 \partial x_2 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_3 \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial^2 f/\partial x_3 \partial x_M \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \partial^2 f/\partial x_M \partial x_1 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_M \partial x_2 & \partial^2 f/\partial x_M \partial x_3 & \dots & \partial^2 f/\partial x_M \partial x_M \end{bmatrix} which is 2^{nd} order derivative$$

Please note that Jacobian is $N \times M$ matrix, while Hessian is $M \times M$ symmetric matrix. Besides, don't confuse Hessia with Hermitian. When M=1, we can rewrite Taylor series in terms of Jacobian and Hessian as:

$$f(X + \Delta X) = f(X) + J(f(X))\Delta X + \frac{1}{2}\Delta X^{T} H(f(X))\Delta X$$

$$J(f(X)) = 1 \times M \text{ row matrix}$$

$$H(f(X)) = M \times M \text{ matrix}$$

Two fundalmental derivative formulae

Suppose X is a $M \times 1$ column matrix, F is a $N \times 1$ column matrix, G is a $L \times 1$ column matrix. F and G are functions that map from M to N dimensional space and from M to L dimensional space respectively. Derivative of scalar S with respect to S and derivative of column vector S (with size S is S in S in S in S is a S in S

$$s = F^{T} A G + B \qquad \frac{ds}{dX} = (F^{T} A) J_{G} + (AG)^{T} J_{F} = F^{T} A J_{G} + G^{T} A^{T} J_{F} \qquad \text{formula for scalar}$$

$$v = AG + B \qquad \frac{dv}{dX} = AJ_{G} \qquad \qquad \text{formula for vector}$$

$$where: \qquad \frac{dF}{dX} = J_{F} \qquad N \times M \qquad F: \Re^{M} \to \Re^{N} \qquad \text{dependent on } X$$

$$\frac{dG}{dX} = J_{G} \qquad L \times M \qquad G: \Re^{M} \to \Re^{L} \qquad \text{dependent on } X$$

$$\frac{dX}{dX} = I \qquad M \times M$$

$$\frac{dC}{dX} = 0 \qquad N \times M \qquad C: \Re^{M} \to \Re^{N} \qquad \text{independent on } X$$

Here is a summary of specialised cases. The derivative of s follows the convention of Jacobian matrix, hence it is a $1 \times M$ row matrix, however it is sometimes more convenient to be expressed as a $M \times 1$ column matrix in optimization algorithms and regression algorithms, in that case, we need to take transpose on the result matrix.

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	scalar s	F	Α	G	ds∕dX	non symmetric A	symmetric A (N=L)	identity A (N=L)
general	$F^TAG + B$	N,1	N,L	<i>L</i> ,1	1, M	$F^T A J_G + G^T A^T J_F$	$F^T A J_G + G^T A J_F$	$F^T J_G + G^T J_F$
F = G	$F^T AF + B$	N,1	N, N	N,1	1, M	$F^T(A+A^T)J_F$	$2F^TAJ_F$	$2F^TJ_F$
F = X	$X^TAG + B$	M,1	M,L	<i>L</i> ,1	1,M	$X^T A J_G + G^T A^T$	$X^T A J_G + G^T A$	$X^T J_G + G^T$
G = X	$F^TAX + B$	N,1	N,M	M,1	1, M	$F^T A + X^T A^T J_F$	$F^T A + X^T A J_F$	$F^T + X^T J_F$
F = G = X	$X^T AX + B$	M,1	M,M	M,1	1, M	$X^{T}(A+A^{T})$	$2X^TA$	$2X^T$
F = I	AG + B	-	1, L	L,1	1, M	AJ_G	-	-
F=I,G=X	AX + B	-	1, M	M,1	1, M	A	-	-
G = I	$F^T A + B$	N,1	N,1	-	1, M	$A^T J_F$	-	-
G=I, F=X	$X^T A + B$	M,1	M,1	-	1, M	A^T	-	-
	vector v		Α	G	dv∕dX	derivative		
general	AG + B		N,L	<i>L</i> ,1	N,M	AJ_G	(the same as above	when $N = 1$)
G = X	AX + B		N,M	M,1	N,M	A	(the same as above	when $N = 1$)

where derivative ds/dX can either be expressed as a row matrix or a column matrix:

- use row matrix if you want to have the same convention as Jacobian
- use column matrix if you want to use it in algorithms (e.g. least square, Newton, Gauss Newton etc)

Intuition of matrix product

Matrix can be classified into the following types:

- row data matrix
- column data matrix
- linear transformation
- linear combination

Suppose A is a data matrix with size $Y \times X$, then it denotes Y row vectors, each belongs to X dimensional space, if A is treated as a row data matrix, and it denotes X column vectors, each belongs to Y dimensional space, if A is treated as a column data matrix. In general, A can be interpreted as both row and column data matrix.

Here is the convention adopted in my documents, when A is a row data matrix, then it has a size of $N \times M$, when A is a column data matrix, then it has a size of $M \times N$, both represent N vectors in M dimensional space (N can be greater than or smaller than M).

Please differentiate the following notations:

row data matrix rectangular matrix with one row as a vector (each row is a row vector)

• row matrix rectangular matrix with one row only

row vector a row in a row data matrix

• column data matrix rectangular matrix with one column as a vector (each column is a **column vector**)

column matrix rectangular matrix with one column only
 column vector a column in a column data matrix

Please note that we **never** classify linear transformation (and linear combination) into row or column matrix. Different meanings for matrix product are classified as the following:

- product between a data matrix and a linear transformation (include: shearing, rotation, dimension scaling)
- product between a data matrix and a linear combination (include : data scaling, permutation, elementary addition)
- product between two data matrices as inner product
- product between two data matrices as covariance

If
$$A = N \times M$$
 row data matrix If $A = M \times N$ column data matrix then $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ ... \\ A_N \end{bmatrix}$ $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 & ... & A_N \end{bmatrix}$ where $A_n = 1 \times M$ row vector where $A_n = M \times 1$ column vector

Part 1: Linear transformation $\mathfrak{R}^{\mathbb{M}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^{\mathbb{K}}$

$$A' = AF$$

$$A' = FA$$

$$A' = FA$$

$$A' = AF$$

$$A' =$$

Special cases for both row data matrix A and column data matrix A

- when K = M \Rightarrow perform shearing in $\Re^M \to \Re^M$
- when K = M and F is orthonormal \Rightarrow perform rotation with no dimensional scaling
- when K = M and F is diagonal \Rightarrow perform dimension scaling with different scales $f_{m,m}$ (remark 1)

If F is orthonormal, it can always be written as a matrix with cosines and sines (i.e. rotation). For example, if F denotes a rotation θ in xy plane, followed by a rotation ϕ in yz plane, we have :

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ 0 & \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta\cos\phi & \sin\theta\sin\phi \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta\cos\phi & \cos\theta\sin\phi \\ 0 & \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{bmatrix}$$

Part 2: Linear combination

$$A' = WA$$

$$A' = AW$$

$$A' = AW$$

$$A' = AW$$

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} A'_1 \\ A'_2 \\ A'_3 \\ ... \\ A'_K \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A'_k = 1 \times M \text{ row vector}$$

$$= \text{ linear combination of } \mathbf{all} A_n$$

$$(\text{weighted by } w_{k,n})$$

$$W = K \times N \text{ linear combination}$$

$$A' = AW$$

$$A' = AW$$

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} A'_1 & A'_2 & A'_3 & ... & A'_K \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A'_k = M \times 1 \text{ column vector}$$

$$= \text{ linear combination of } \mathbf{all} A_n$$

$$(\text{weighted by } w_{n,k})$$

$$W = N \times K \text{ linear combination}$$

Special cases for both row data matrix A or column data matrix A

when K = N
 when K = N and W is diagonal
 when K = N and W is permutation
 when K = N and W is permutation
 when K = N and W is elem addition
 when K ≠ N and W is a delta
 ⇒ generate N row (or column) vectors from N row (or column) vectors
 scaling N row (or column) vectors by w_{n,n} (remark 1)
 equivalent to row (or column) permutation
 equivalent to elementary row (or column) addition
 equivalent to picking a desired row (or column) from A

Exampe 1: W = permutation matrix (please read 'permutation' document for definition of permutation matrix)

$$A' = P_{\sigma_1} P_{\sigma_2} P_{\sigma_3} ... P_{\sigma_T} A$$

cascaded permutation $(\sigma_T \circ ... \circ \sigma_3 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \sigma_1)$ on row data matrix A

$$A' = AP_{\sigma_T}^T ... P_{\sigma_3}^T P_{\sigma_2}^T P_{\sigma_1}^T$$

cascaded permutation $(\sigma_T \circ ... \circ \sigma_3 \circ \sigma_2 \circ \sigma_1)$ on column data matrix A

Example 2: W = elementary addition operation (please read 'elementary operation' document for definitions of E & F)

$$A' = E_T E_{T-1} \dots E_3 E_2 E_1 A$$

cascaded elementary row addition on row data matrix A

$$A' = AF_1F_2F_3...F_{T-1}F_T$$

cascaded elementary column addition on column data matrix A

Example $3: W = delta \ matrix$

$$\begin{array}{lll} A' & = & DA \\ & = & \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{\pi(1)} \\ \delta_{\pi(2)} \\ \delta_{\pi(3)} \\ & \cdots \\ \delta_{\pi(K)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ & \cdots \\ A_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{\pi(1)} \\ A_{\pi(2)} \\ A_{\pi(3)} \\ & \cdots \\ A_{\pi(K)} \end{bmatrix}$$

picking the k^{th} row from row data matrix A

$$\delta_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

= $1 \times N$ row matrix with value one at position x, and value zero otherwise

$$\begin{array}{rclcrcl} A' & = & AD \\ & = & \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & A_3 & \dots & A_N \end{bmatrix} \times \\ & & & \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{\pi(1)} & \delta_{\pi(2)} & \dots & \delta_{\pi(K)} \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

= $picking the k^{th} column from column data matrix A$ $[A_{\pi(1)} \quad A_{\pi(2)} \quad \dots \quad A_{\pi(K)}]$

$$\delta_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \dots \\ 1 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $N \times 1$ column matrix with value one at position x, and value zero otherwise

Remark 1 : Dimension scaling vs data scaling

Both linear transformation and linear combination become scaling when F (or W) is diagonal, yet they represent different scaling: the former means dimension scaling, while the latter means data scaling.

- scaling in linear transformation
- \Rightarrow $f_{m,m}$ = scale for the m^{th} dimension in A

(called dimension scaling)

- scaling in linear combination
- \Rightarrow $w_{n,n}$ = scale for the n^{th} data in A
- (called data scaling)

Remark 2: Cascade of linear transformation and linear combination

Both linear transformation and linear combination can be cascaded. Please note that linear transformation matrix and linear combination matrix are different in associativity for row data matrix A and column data matrix A. Suppose we perform T linear transformations in sequence, and if the dimension after the t^{th} linear transformation is M_t , then we have:

$$A' = AF_1F_2F_3...F_T$$

$$A' = F_2F_2F_3A$$

for row data matrix A (left associative)

 F_1 is $M \times M_1$ and F_t is $M_{t-1} \times M_t$

$$A' = F_T ... F_3 F_2 F_1 A$$

for column data matrix A (right associative) F_1 is $M_1 \times M$ and F_t is $M_t \times M_{t-1}$

Suppose we perform T linear transformations in sequence, and if the number of data after the tth linear combination is N_t, then we have:

$$A' = W_T ... W_3 W_2 W_1 A$$

for row data matrix A (right associative)

 W_1 is $N_1 \times N$ and W_t is $N_t \times N_{t-1}$ W_1 is $N \times N_1$ and W_t is $N_{t-1} \times N_t$

 $A' = AW_1W_2W_3...W_T$

for column data matrix A (left associative)

Part 3: Inner product (projection)

Suppose A and B are both $N \times M$ row data matrices, while W is a $M \times M$ weight matrix (different weights for different dimensions), then we have inner product defined as:

$$\begin{array}{lll} X & = & AWB^T & = & < A, B>_W \\ \\ x_{n_1,n_2} & = & \sum_{m=1}^M w_m a_{n_1,m} b_{n_2,m} & \text{if W is diagonal} \end{array}$$

Suppose A and B are both $M \times N$ column data matrices, while W is a $M \times M$ weight matrix (different weights for different dimensions), then we have inner product defined as:

$$\begin{array}{lll} X & = & A^TWB & = & < A,B>_W \\ & & \\ x_{n_1,n_2} & = & \sum_{m=1}^M w_m a_{m,n_1} b_{m,n_2} & \text{if W is diagonal} \end{array}$$

Inner product is usually used to find projection or orthogonality between two vectors.

Part 4 : Outer product (covariance matrix)

Suppose A and B are both $N\times M$ row data matrices, while W is a $N\times N$ weight matrix (different weights for different data or observations), then we have outer product defined as :

$$\begin{array}{lll} X & = & A^T WB \\ x_{m_1,m_2} & = & \sum_{n=1}^N w_n a_{n,m_1} b_{n,m_2} & & \text{if W is diagonal} \end{array}$$

Suppose A and B are both $M \times N$ column data matrices, while W is a $N \times N$ weight matrix (different weights for different data or observations), then we have outer product defined as:

$$\begin{array}{lll} X & = & AWB^T \\ x_{m_1,m_2} & = & \sum_{n=1}^N w_n a_{m_1,n} b_{m_2,n} & \text{ if W is diagonal} \end{array}$$

Outer product is usually used to find covariance matrix between two dimensions (or between two random variables).

Part 5: Replication and summation by all one matrix (a special case of linear combination)

Row matrix A with size $1 \times M$ can be replicated to generate row data matrix B with size $N \times M$ by B = lA, where l is $N \times 1$ all one column matrix, and $B_n = A$ for all $n \in [1,N]$. Column matrix A with size $M \times 1$ can be replicated to generate column data matrix B with size $M \times N$ by $B = Al^T$, where l^T is $1 \times N$ all one row matrix, and $B_n = A$ for all $n \in [1,N]$.

Given $N \times M$ row data matrix A, the sum of row data is given by $l^T A$. Given $M \times N$ column data matrix A, the sum of column data is given by A l. Given a square matrix weight matrix W (not necessarily diagonal), then $l^T W l$ gives the sum of weight.

$$l^{T}A = \sum_{n=1}^{N} A_{n} \qquad \qquad \text{for row data matrix } A$$

$$Al = \sum_{n=1}^{N} A_{n} \qquad \qquad \text{for column data matrix } A$$

$$l^{T}Wl = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} w_{n,m}$$

More about covariance matrix

Suppose A is a $N \times M$ row data matrices, then we have covariance defined as:

$$C = \frac{(A - l\overline{A})^T W (A - l\overline{A})}{l^T W l} \qquad \text{if W is diagonal, where w_n = weight of row vector A_n}$$

$$c_{m_1, m_2} = \text{cov}(m_1, m_2) \qquad \text{covariance between dimension m_1 and m_2}$$

$$where \ \overline{A} = \frac{l^T W A}{l^T W l} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n A_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n} \qquad \text{average of all A_n, which is a $1 \times M$ row matrix}$$

Suppose A is a $M \times N$ column data matrices, then we have covariance defined as:

$$C = \frac{(A - \overline{A}l^T)W(A - \overline{A}l^T)^T}{l^TWl} \qquad \text{if W is diagonal, where } w_n = \text{weight of column vector} A_n$$

$$c_{m_1, m_2} = \text{cov}(m_1, m_2) \qquad \text{covariance between dimension } m_1 \text{ and } m_2$$

$$where \ \overline{A} = \frac{AWl}{l^TWl} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n A_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n} \qquad \text{average of all } A_n, \text{ which is a M} \times 1 \text{ column matrix}$$

Lets simplify.

$$C = \frac{(A-1\overline{A})^T W(A-1\overline{A})}{1^T W1}$$

$$= \frac{A^T WA - A^T W1\overline{A} - \overline{A}^T 1^T WA + \overline{A}^T 1^T W1\overline{A}}{1^T W1}$$

$$= \frac{A^T WA - \overline{A}^T 1^T W1\overline{A}}{1^T W1} \qquad since \ A^T W1\overline{A} = \overline{A}^T 1^T WA = \overline{A}^T 1^T W1\overline{A} \quad (1)$$

$$= \frac{A^T WA}{1^T W1} - \overline{A}^T \overline{A} \qquad since \ 1^T W1 \text{ is a scalar and thus } \overline{A}^T 1^T W1\overline{A} = (1^T W1)(\overline{A}^T \overline{A})$$

Equation (1) can be proved by:

$$\overline{A}$$
 = $\frac{1^T WA}{1^T W1}$ \Rightarrow $1^T WA$ = $(1^T W1)\overline{A}$ (2)
and \overline{A}^T = $\frac{A^T W1}{1^T W1}$ \Rightarrow $A^T W1$ = $\overline{A}^T (1^T W1)$ (3)

Therefore (1) is proved:

$$\overline{A}^T 1^T W A = \overline{A}^T 1^T W 1 \overline{A}$$
 using (2)
 $A^T W 1 \overline{A} = \overline{A}^T 1^T W 1 \overline{A}$ using (3)

Orthonormal basis

What are independent, orthogonal and orthonormal? Suppose X and Y are two 1×N row vectors, then

- X and Y are independent if $Y \neq cX$ • X and Y are orthogonal if $XY^T = 0$
- X and Y are orthonormal if $XY^T = 0$ and $XX^T = YY^T = 1$

A set of independent vectors which spans a space $\mathfrak{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is known as the **basis** of the space, while a set of orthonormal vectors which spans a space $\mathfrak{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ is known as the **orthonormal basis** of the space. Suppose Q is a N×N matrix denoting orthonormal basis, then we have :

$$QQ^T = I$$
 for row vectors in Q (known as row orthonormal)
 $Q^TQ = I$ for column vectors in Q (known as column orthonormal)

Inverse of orthonormal

Suppose Q is a N×N orthonormal basis, with row vectors, i.e.

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 \\ Q_2 \\ Q_3 \\ \dots \\ Q_N \end{bmatrix}$$
 where Q_n is row vector $\forall n \in [1, N]$

$$QQ^T = (Q_n Q_m^T)_{n,m \in [1,N]}$$

$$= (\delta_{n,m})_{n,m \in [1,N]}$$

$$= I$$

$$\Rightarrow Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

Suppose Q is a $N \times N$ orthonormal basis, with column vectors, i.e.

$$Q = [Q_1 \ Q_2 \ Q_3 \ \dots \ Q_N] \qquad where \ Q_n \ is \ column \ vector \ \forall n \in [1,N]$$

$$Q^T Q = (Q_n^T Q_m)_{n,m \in [1,N]}$$

$$= (\delta_{n,m})_{n,m \in [1,N]}$$

$$= I$$

$$\Rightarrow Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

If Q is row orthonormal basis, then Q must be column orthonormal basis, and vice versa. The proof is simple.

$$QQ^{-1} = Q^{-1}Q = I$$
 since Q is orthonormal, lets put $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 $\Rightarrow QQ^T = Q^TQ = I$ hence we have : row orthonormal \Leftrightarrow column orthonormal

Besides the inverse of orthonormal is also orthonormal, since :

$$(Q^{-1})(Q^{-1})^T = (Q^{-1})(Q^T)^T$$
 since Q is orthonormal, i.e. $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 $= (Q^{-1})Q$
 $= I$ hence we have : Q is orthonormal $\Leftrightarrow Q^{-1}$ is orthonormal

Hence these are equivalent: Q is row orthonormal, Q is column orthonormal, inverse Q is orthonormal. (Note: we don't need to specify whether Q is row orthonormal or column orthonormal, as they are equivalent.)

<u>Product between two different orthonormal basis</u>

Suppose U and V are two orthonormal basis, lets prove that Q is also an orthonormal basis.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{Q} & = & \mathit{UV} & \mathit{note: there is no transpose} \\ \mathcal{Q}\mathcal{Q}^T & = & \mathit{UV}(\mathit{UV})^T \\ & = & \mathit{UVV}^T\mathit{U}^T \\ & = & \mathit{UU}^T & \mathit{since V is orthonormal: } \mathit{VV}^T = \mathit{I} \\ & = & \mathit{I} & \mathit{since U is orthonormal: } \mathit{UU}^T = \mathit{I} \end{array}$$

Hence the product of an orthonormal basis with another orthonormal basis is also an orthonormal basis. This property will be used twice in deriving the QR algorithm.

Projection matrix

Lets consider the column vector case (since it matches with the convention in least square). Suppose A is a $M \times N$ column data matrix (i.e. N vectors in \mathfrak{R}^M), and B is a $M \times 1$ column data matrix in the same space, then the projection of B on the space spanned by the columns of A is $P_A B$, where P_A is called the projection matrix:

$$proj_A(B) = P_A B$$

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

The proof involves two steps: (1) prove that P_AB lies in the column span of A (i.e. show that there exists W, such that linear combination AW equals to P_AB) and (2) vector B-proj $_A(B)$ is orthogonal to all columns in A (i.e. $A^T(B$ -proj $_A(B)$)=0).

(1)
$$P_A B = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T B$$

 $= AW$
where $W = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T B$ $\Rightarrow P_A B$ lies in the column span of A

(2)
$$A^{T}(B - P_{A}B) = A^{T}(B - A(A^{T}A)^{-1}A^{T}B)$$

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

$$= A^{T}B - A^{T}B$$

$$= 0$$

$$\Rightarrow B-P_{A}B \text{ is orthogonal to all columns of } A$$

Besides, there is one more requirement on projection matrix: projection of projection is itself, i.e.

In general A is not an orthogonal basis. What happens if A is an orthogonal basis? In this case, A^TA is a diagonal matrix:

$$A^TA = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ...\lambda_N) \qquad \text{which is } N \times N \qquad \text{where } \lambda_n = A_n^T A_n = \operatorname{mag}(A_n)$$

$$(A^TA)^{-1} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}, ...\lambda_N^{-1}) \qquad \text{which is } N \times N$$

$$(A^TA)^{-1}A^TB = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}, ...\lambda_N^{-1})A^TB \qquad \text{which is } N \times 1$$

$$((A^TA)^{-1}A^TB)_n = (A^TB)_n/\lambda_n$$

$$= (A_n^TA_n)^{-1}(A^TB)_n$$

$$= (A_n^TA_n)^{-1}(A_n^TB)$$

$$\text{where } A_n^TB = \operatorname{inner product}$$

$$(A_n^TA_n)^{-1}(A_n^TB) = \operatorname{inner product with normalization}$$

Similarly, we can derive the projection for row vectors. Here is a summary.

Summary

For row data matrix A and single row data B, then the projection of B on space spanned by the rows of A is:

$$proj_A(B) = BP_A$$

$$= BA^T (AA^T)^{-1} A$$
where $P_A = A^T (AA^T)^{-1} A$

For column data matrix A and single column data B, then the projection of B on space spanned by the columns of A is:

$$proj_A(B) = P_A B$$

$$= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T B$$
where $P_A = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$