

Determinant

- 2×2 matrix determinant: $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$
- $k \times k$ matrix determinant:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & a_{k3} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k2} & a_{k3} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k3} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{vmatrix} + \dots \pm a_{1k} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2(k-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & \cdots & a_{k(k-1)} \end{vmatrix}.$$

- Properties
 - $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$
 - If $A = \text{diag}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$, $\det(A) = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$
 - $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ if A, B are the square matrix and same size
 - The matrix is invertible $\leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$
- $\rightarrow \det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$

Linear Combination, Span Space

- Given $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and real number $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{b} = x_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{a}_n$ is called linear combination of $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$
- Given $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is called linear combination of rows of A $\rightarrow \text{span}(\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n\}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$, with m is max rows of A linear independent
- If $0 = x_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{a}_n$ has one solution $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$, $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n\}$ is called linear independence. If $x_i \neq 0$, the system is called linear dependence
- $\text{range}(A) = R(A) = \text{span}(\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n\}) = \left\{ \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mathbf{a}_i \right\}$
- $\text{Null Space}(A) = N(A) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0\}$, if rows of A is linear independence, $N(A) = \{0\}$
- $\dim(R(A)) + \dim(N(A)) = n$

- Rank: the dimension of the $\text{range}(A)$. For example,

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 \\ -8 & -2 & 3 \\ 8 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \mathbf{x}_3] \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \text{ are linearly independent, so C has the rank of 2, but } \{\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \mathbf{x}_2 \quad \mathbf{x}_3\} \text{ are not}$$

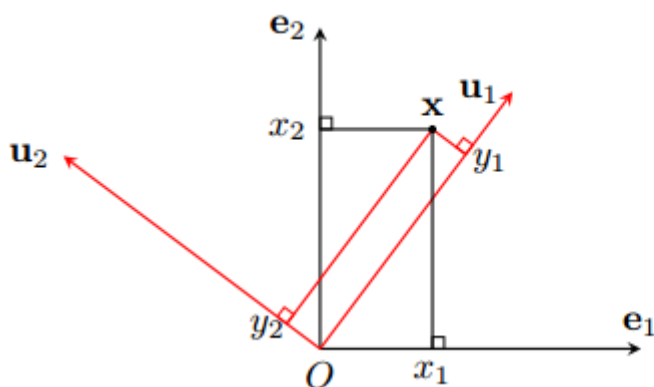
- Rank Properties

- $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$: max rows linear independent = max columns linear independent
- If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(m, n)$
- $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \min(\text{rank}(A), \text{rank}(B))$
- Sylvester theorem: If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$, $\text{rank}(A) + \text{rank}(B) - n \leq \text{rank}(AB)$
- Orthogonal: $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m \in \mathbb{R}^m\}$ is called orthogonal if $\mathbf{u}_i \neq 0; \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \quad \forall 1 \leq i \neq j \leq m$. If $U = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m]$ and $UU^T = I$, U is called orthogonal matrix
- Orthonormal: $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m \in \mathbb{R}^m\}$ is called orthogonal if it is orthogonal and $\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$

- Orthogonal Properties
 - If U is orthogonal matrix, $U^T = U^{-1}$
 - If U is orthogonal matrix, $\det(U) = \pm 1$
 - Given $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, we use U to transform \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} to $U\mathbf{x}$ and $U\mathbf{y}$, but this transformation will not change the result of dot product of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} : $(U\mathbf{x})^T (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T U^T U \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$

Represent vector in different axis

- Set of vector $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ in which \mathbf{e}_i has one value $\neq 0$ and $=1$ is called the axis in m dimension
- $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \in \mathbb{R}^m$ can be considered as linear combination of \mathbf{b} and the axis: $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{e}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{e}_n$
- Assume we have another axis $U = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m]$, represent \mathbf{x} in this axis: $\mathbf{x} = y_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + y_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + y_n \mathbf{u}_n = U\mathbf{y} \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = U^{-1}\mathbf{x}$
- U need to be orthogonal matrix because $U^T = U^{-1}$, so \mathbf{y} can be easily calculated by $\mathbf{y} = U^T \mathbf{x}$



Hình 1.1: Chuyển đổi tọa độ trong các hệ cơ sở khác nhau. Trong hệ tọa độ Oe_1e_2 , \mathbf{x} có tọa độ là (x_1, x_2) . Trong hệ tọa độ Ou_1u_2 , \mathbf{x} có tọa độ là (y_1, y_2) .

Eigenvalue, Eigenvector

- Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, if $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$, λ, \mathbf{x} is called eigenvalue and eigenvector respectively of matrix A
- λ is solution of $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$, spectrum is the set of all λ of matrix A . For example, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$, the

characteristic equation is $\det(A - \lambda I) = |A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -2 & -3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_1 = -1 \\ \lambda_2 = -2 \end{cases}$

- If $\lambda_1 = -1$

$$A \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1$$

$$(A - \lambda_1 I) \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_1 & 1 \\ -2 & -3-\lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} \\ v_{1,2} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = k_1 \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- If $\lambda_2 = -2$

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda_2) \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda_2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 - \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_{2,1} \\ v_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{so}$$

$$2 \cdot v_{2,1} + 1 \cdot v_{2,2} = 0 \quad (\text{or from bottom line: } -2 \cdot v_{2,1} - 1 \cdot v_{2,2} = 0)$$

$$2 \cdot v_{2,1} = -v_{2,2}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = k_2 \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Properties
 - $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_i \lambda_i$ in which λ_i is the eigenvalue of matrix \mathbf{A}
 - $\sum_i a_i = \sum_j \lambda_j$ in which $\text{diag}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ in matrix \mathbf{A}

Eigendecomposition or Diagonalization

- Assume $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \neq 0$ is the eigenvector of square matrix \mathbf{A} having eigenvalue of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$
- Let $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$, $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$, we have $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda$
- If rows of \mathbf{X} is linearly independent, \mathbf{X} is invertible, so $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1}$: eigendecomposition
- Properties
 - Eigendecomposition or Diagonalization is only applicable for **Square Matrix**
 - Square Matrix size n is only diagonalizable iff it has enough n eigenvalues linear independence
 - $\mathbf{A}^2 = (\mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1})(\mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1}) = \mathbf{X}\Lambda^2\mathbf{X}^{-1} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}^k = \mathbf{X}\Lambda^k\mathbf{X}^{-1}$
 - $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{-1}$. So Diagonalization is also quite useful to solve matrix inverse

Positive Definite

- Symmetric Matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called positive definite if $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
- Symmetric Matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called positive semidefinite (more usually use **PSD**) if $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
- Symbol:
 - $\mathbf{A} \succ 0$: positive definite
 - $\mathbf{A} \succeq 0$: positive semidefinite

- For example, $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is positive semidefinite with all \mathbf{x} because

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = u^2 - 2uv + v^2 = (u - v)^2 \geq 0$$

- Properties
 - All eigenvalues of positive definite matrix are positive

Proof: $\lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \lambda \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$, $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} > 0$, so $\lambda > 0$

- If \mathbf{A} is positive definite, \mathbf{A} is invertible and $\det(\mathbf{A}) > 0$

Norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

- If $p = 2$, L2 norm: $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$

- Frobenius Norm: If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2}$
- Trace of Matrix (just for square matrix): sum of diagonal elements
- Trace Properties
 - $\text{trace}(A) = \text{trace}(A^T)$
 - $\text{trace}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^k \text{trace}(A_i)$
 - $\text{trace}(kA) = k \text{trace}(A)$
 - $\text{trace}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^D \lambda_i$ which λ_i is the eigenvalue of matrix A
 - $\text{trace}(AB) = \text{trace}(BA)$
 - If X is invertible and same size with A: $\text{trace}(XAX^{-1}) = \text{trace}(XX^{-1}A) = \text{trace}(A)$
 - $\|A\|_F^2 = \text{trace}(A^T A)$, A is any size