

Solve $A^T \vec{x} = \vec{0}$: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Row 1} - \text{Row 2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_1 = x_3 \\ x_2 = -x_3 \end{matrix}$

So $\vec{x} = \vec{x}_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. \vec{u}_3 needs to be a unit vector: $\vec{u}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

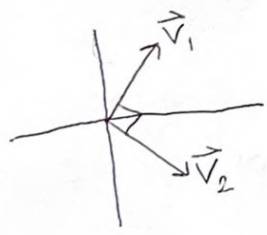
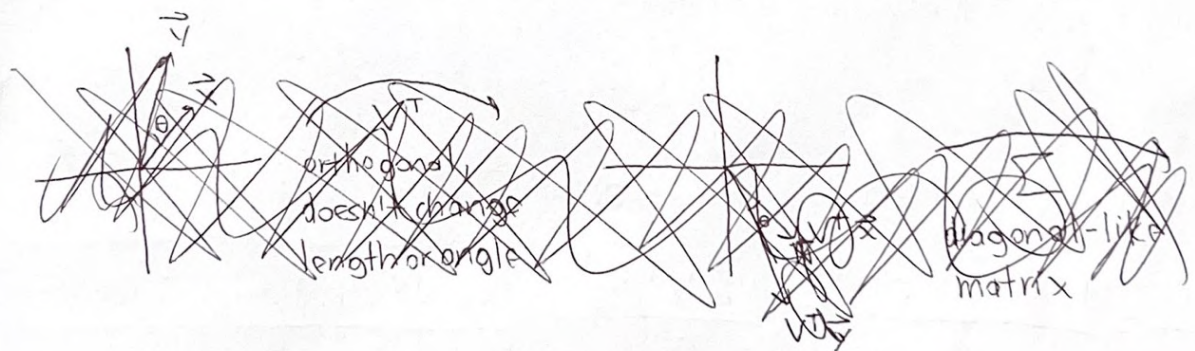
We can now write $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$ \leftarrow Note that the columns are \perp

Finally, the SVD is $A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} & 0 & -1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$

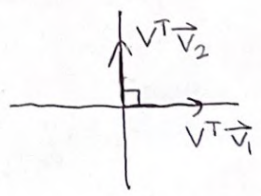
Check this is correct: $U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 2/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A \checkmark$

What are some things we can do with SVD?

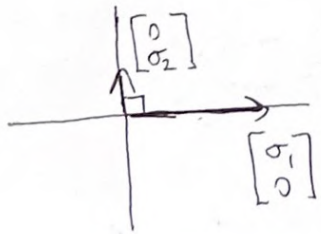
Geometry $A = U \Sigma V^T$



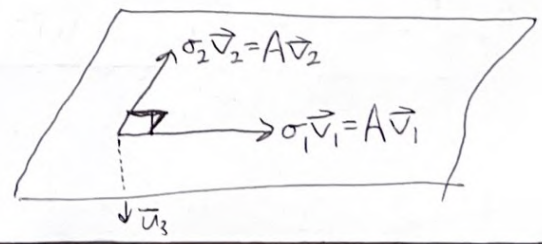
V^T , orthogonal, doesn't change length or angle



Σ , just scales the x and y-axis vectors



U , orthogonal, doesn't change length or angle



So SVD breaks A up into three pieces, and only Σ changes the lengths of vectors. (36)

This gives us a way to measure the "size" of A , i.e., what is the maximum possible amount that A can stretch a vector.

Remember: length of a vector \vec{x} : $\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$



The size of A , or norm of A , $\|A\|$, is the maximum possible ratio $\|A\vec{x}\| / \|\vec{x}\|$ (where $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$)

↪ This is the factor that A stretches \vec{x} .

Theorem $\|A\| =$ largest singular value σ_1 .

Proof: First let's show $\|A\| \geq \sigma_1$ by showing $\|A\vec{v}_1\| / \|\vec{v}_1\| = \sigma_1$:

$$\|A\vec{v}_1\| / \|\vec{v}_1\| = \|\underbrace{U}_{\uparrow 1} \Sigma V^T \vec{v}_1\| = \left\| U \Sigma \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \left\| U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \|\sigma_1 \vec{u}_1\| = \sigma_1 \|\vec{u}_1\| = \sigma_1.$$

Now let's show $\|A\| \leq \sigma_1$ by showing $\|A\vec{x}\| / \|\vec{x}\| \leq \sigma_1$ for all $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$:

$$\frac{\|A\vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\|U \Sigma V^T \vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\|\Sigma V^T \vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\sqrt{(\sigma_1 (V^T \vec{x})_1)^2 + \dots + (\sigma_r (V^T \vec{x})_r)^2}}{\|\vec{x}\|}$$

Because σ_1 is the biggest singular value

Because U is orthogonal, doesn't change length.

Because V^T is orthogonal, doesn't change lengths.

$$\leq \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 ((V^T \vec{x})_1)^2 + \dots + (V^T \vec{x})_n^2}}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\sigma_1 \|V^T \vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\sigma_1 \|\vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \sigma_1$$

So $\|A\| \geq \sigma_1$ and $\|A\| \leq \sigma_1 \implies \|A\| = \sigma_1$ ✓

This shows that σ_1 is the maximum amount that A stretches vectors, and that the vectors that get stretched the most are in $\text{span}(\vec{v}_1)$.

Example ~~$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$~~ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. We saw that the biggest singular vector is $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}$, and $\vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

So for example $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ gets stretched by a factor of $\sqrt{3}$:

$$\frac{\|A\vec{x}\|}{\|\vec{x}\|} = \frac{\left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|}{\left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|} = \frac{\left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|}{\left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|} = \frac{\sqrt{1+4+1}}{\sqrt{1+1}} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{3}$$

Another application: SVD gives a good way writing a rank r matrix A as a sum of r rank-1 matrices:

Theorem $A = \sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \sigma_2 \vec{u}_2 \vec{v}_2^T + \dots + \sigma_r \vec{u}_r \vec{v}_r^T$

↳ "outer product," column vector \times row vector, has rank = 1 because every row is a multiple of \vec{v}_i^T .

Proof Two matrices A and B are equal if $A\vec{x} = B\vec{x}$ for every \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^n .

Here $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is a basis, so can write $\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n$.

Then $(\sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \vec{u}_r \vec{v}_r^T) (\underbrace{c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n}_{\vec{x}}) =$

$\sigma_1 c_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1 + \dots + \sigma_r c_r \vec{u}_r \vec{v}_r^T \vec{v}_r + \text{a bunch of 0's (because } \vec{v}_i^T \vec{v}_j = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j.)$

$= c_1 (\underbrace{\sigma_1 \vec{u}_1}_{A\vec{v}_1}) + \dots + c_r (\underbrace{\sigma_r \vec{u}_r}_{A\vec{v}_r}) + c_{r+1} \underbrace{\vec{0}}_{A\vec{v}_{r+1}} + \dots + c_n \underbrace{\vec{0}}_{A\vec{v}_n}$

$= A(c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_r \vec{v}_r + c_{r+1} \vec{v}_{r+1} + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n) = A\vec{x} \quad \checkmark$

Example If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, then $A = \sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \sigma_2 \vec{u}_2 \vec{v}_2^T$

$$= \sqrt{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\sigma_1 \quad \vec{u}_1 \quad \vec{v}_1^T \quad \sigma_2 \quad \vec{u}_2 \quad \vec{v}_2^T$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A \checkmark$$

Application in Image processing: Represent a digital photograph as an $m \times n$ matrix:

$$A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \dots \end{bmatrix}}_n \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} \dots \end{bmatrix}} \right\}_m \quad \begin{matrix} mn \text{ pixels in} \\ \text{the image} \end{matrix}$$

n components

$$\text{Or } A = \sigma_1 \underbrace{\vec{u}_1}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ m \text{ components}}} \vec{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_r \vec{u}_r \vec{v}_r^T \quad r(m+n) \text{ vector components}$$

If r is much smaller than m, n , then it's more efficient to transmit or store $r(m+n)$ vector components than mn matrix entries.

However, even if r is not much smaller than m or n , many of the singular values σ_i are often very small. So we may be able to

write $A \approx \sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \dots + \sigma_s \vec{u}_s \vec{v}_s^T$ where s is much smaller than m and n .

Image compression. We lose a little information by throwing out some terms, but it might not make a difference.

- Today: (1) Review singular value decomposition, one more example (1)
- (2) Briefly discuss Section 6.5 (won't be on exam) on positive-definite matrices.
- (3) Review topics that will be covered on final exam

(1) Review SVD: A is any $m \times n$ matrix (don't need $m=n$)

Then $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ are both symmetric, have non-negative real number eigenvalues.

For $A^T A$: $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_r > \lambda_{r+1} = 0, \dots, \lambda_n = 0$

Orthonormal basis of eigenvectors: $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_r, \vec{v}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n$

Basis for row space $C(A^T)$

Basis for $N(A^T A) = N(A)$

Singular values: $\sigma_i = +\sqrt{\lambda_i}$, so $A^T A \vec{v}_i = \sigma_i^2 \vec{v}_i$

Orthonormal basis of eigenvectors for $A A^T$: $\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_r, \vec{u}_{r+1}, \dots, \vec{u}_m$

Basis for $C(A)$

Basis for $N(A A^T) = N(A^T)$

$$\vec{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A \vec{v}_i$$

$$A A^T \vec{u}_i = \sigma_i^2 \vec{u}_i$$

Then $A = U \Sigma V^T$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1 & \vec{u}_2 & \dots & \vec{u}_m \end{bmatrix}$$

orthogonal $m \times m$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & 0's \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r & \\ 0's & & & 0 \dots 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

diagonal-like $m \times n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

orthogonal $n \times n$

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 15 \\ 15 & 45 \end{bmatrix}$ (2)

Eigenvalues of $A^T A$: $\begin{vmatrix} 5-\lambda & 15 \\ 15 & 45-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (5-\lambda)(45-\lambda) - \underbrace{(15)(15)}_{225}$

$= \lambda^2 - 50\lambda + 225 - 225 = \lambda(\lambda - 50) = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = 50, 0$

Only one non-zero singular value: $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{50} = 5\sqrt{2}$

Right singular vectors: \vec{v}_1 = unit vector basis of $\lambda=50$ eigenspace,

$\begin{bmatrix} 5-50 & 15 \\ 15 & 45-50 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -45 & 15 \\ 15 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow y = 3x$

$\rightarrow \vec{x} = c \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

\vec{v}_2 = unit ~~the~~ vector basis of null space (of A or $A^T A$)

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow x = -3y \rightarrow \vec{x} = c \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \vec{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Left singular vectors: $\vec{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} A \vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{50}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$= \frac{1}{5\sqrt{20}} \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{10}{10\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

\vec{u}_2 = unit vector basis of $N(A^T)$: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$x + 2y = 0 \rightarrow \vec{x} = c \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \vec{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

So SVD is: $A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} & -2/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} & 1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 5\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_\Sigma \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{10} & 3/\sqrt{10} \\ -3/\sqrt{10} & 1/\sqrt{10} \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$

(3)

Important geometric property of singular values:

σ_i = amount by which A rescales the length of \vec{v}_i ,

because $\|A\vec{v}_i\| = \|\sigma_i \vec{u}_i\| = \sigma_i \|\vec{u}_i\| = \sigma_i = \sigma_i \|\vec{v}_i\|$
 \nwarrow unit vector \nearrow

In fact, the largest singular value σ_1 gives the maximum amount that A stretches the length of a vector:

$\sigma_1 = \text{maximum of } \|A\vec{x}\| / \|\vec{x}\| \text{ (where } \vec{x} \neq \vec{0} \text{)}$

\nwarrow this maximum is called the "operator norm," denoted $\|A\|$.

For our example: $\left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sigma_1 = 5\sqrt{2}$, \nwarrow maximum stretching factor

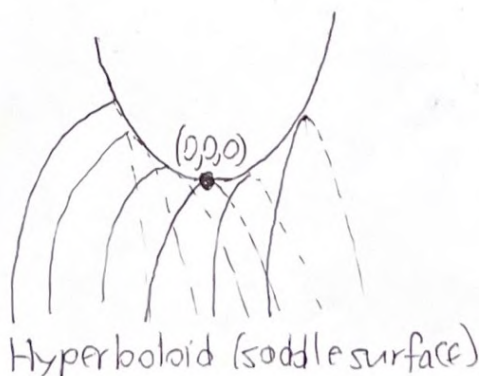
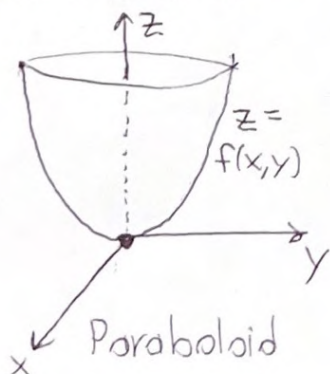
and vectors which get stretched the most are in $\text{span}(\vec{v}_1) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{Row space } C(A^T)$.

Section 6.5 Positive-definite matrices

Motivation: Understand quadratic multivariable functions.

$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$$

Possible graphs of $f(x,y)$, depending on a, b, c :



(4)

Where does linear algebra come in?

$$f(x, y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = x(ax + by) + y(bx + cy)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} ax + by \\ bx + cy \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Symmetric matrix } S} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x}^T S \vec{x}$$

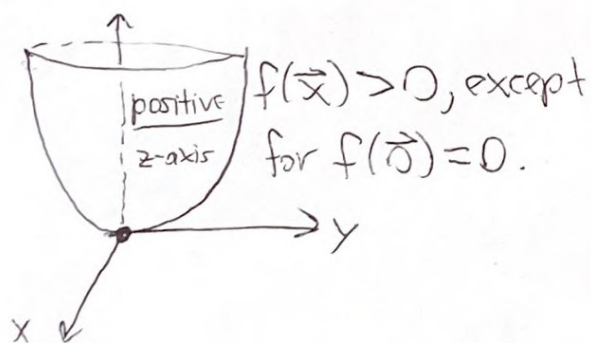
So a two-variable quadratic function has the form

$$f(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T S \vec{x} \text{ for some symmetric } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrix } S.$$

Can express n -variable quadratic functions similarly, using symmetric $n \times n$ S .

Definition: A symmetric $n \times n$ matrix S is positive definite if $\vec{x}^T S \vec{x} > 0$ for all non-zero \vec{x} in \mathbb{R}^n .

For 2×2 S , this is the same as $f(x, y) = \vec{x}^T S \vec{x}$ having the graph of an upward opening paraboloid:



Is there any practical way to test whether S is positive definite?

There are in fact a few equivalent ways to define positive definite:

Theorem 1: S is positive definite \iff All eigenvalues are > 0 .

Proof If S is positive definite: Suppose λ is an eigenvalue. (5)

$$S\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x} \rightsquigarrow \underbrace{\vec{x}^T S \vec{x}}_{>0 \text{ (S is positive definite)}} = \lambda \underbrace{\vec{x}^T \vec{x}}_{>0 \text{ (}\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}\text{)}} \rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\vec{x}^T S \vec{x}}{\vec{x}^T \vec{x}} > 0 \checkmark$$

If S has positive eigenvalues: Write $S = Q^T \Lambda Q$

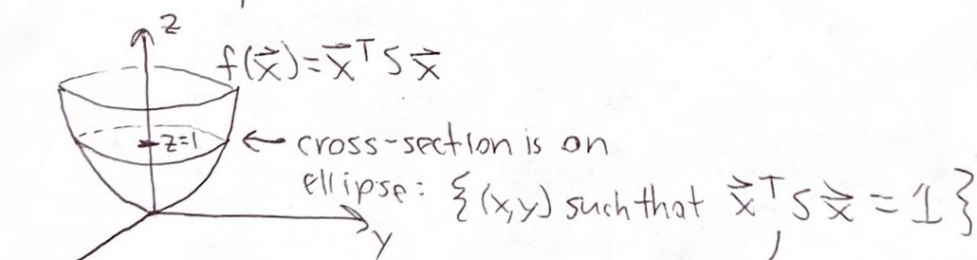
\nearrow positive diagonal \nwarrow orthogonal

Then $\vec{x}^T S \vec{x} = \vec{x}^T Q^T \Lambda Q \vec{x} = (Q\vec{x})^T \Lambda (Q\vec{x})$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 y_1 & \lambda_2 y_2 & \dots & \lambda_n y_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2 > 0 \text{ since } \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n > 0. \checkmark$$

This expression might remind you of the equation of a circle or ellipse.

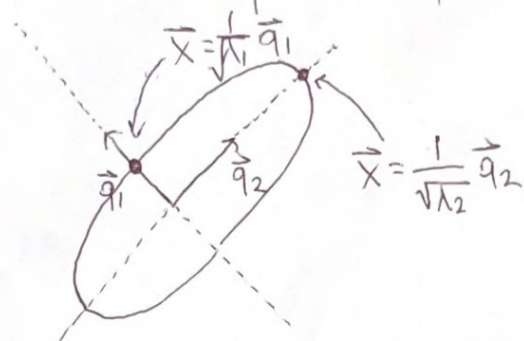


$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} S \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} Q \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} Q^T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

\nearrow $[\vec{q}_1 \ \vec{q}_2]$, eigen vector matrix

$$1 = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \cdot \vec{q}_1 & \vec{x} \cdot \vec{q}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{q}_1 \cdot \vec{x} \\ \vec{q}_2 \cdot \vec{x} \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 (\vec{q}_1 \cdot \vec{x})^2 + \lambda_2 (\vec{q}_2 \cdot \vec{x})^2$$

This is the equation of an ellipse: $\lambda_1(\vec{q}_1 \cdot \vec{x})^2 + \lambda_2(\vec{q}_2 \cdot \vec{x})^2 = 1$ (6)

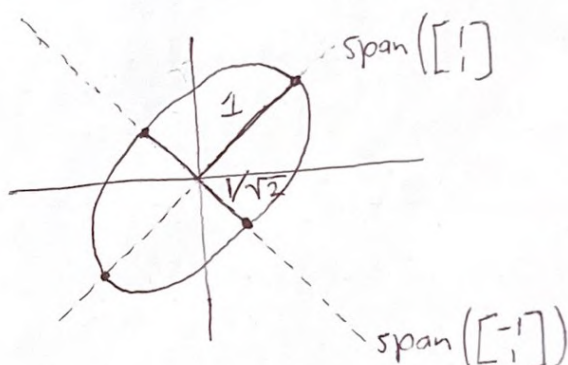


Example $S = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/2 & -1/2 \\ -1/2 & 3/2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$1 \left(\frac{x+y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{-x+y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 = 1$$

$$\frac{3}{2}x^2 + 2\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)xy + \frac{3}{2}y^2 = 1$$

positive eigenvalues are required to make this an ellipse instead of a hyperbola.



Another useful test for positive definite matrices:

S is positive-definite \iff all upper left subdeterminants of S are positive.

2×2 : $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$, need a and $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{vmatrix} > 0$.

3×3 : $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{bmatrix}$, need $a > 0$, $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{vmatrix} > 0$, $\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{vmatrix} > 0$

Same for $n \times n$.

Show this for 2×2 : How to guarantee all $\lambda > 0$? ⑦

$$\begin{vmatrix} a-\lambda & b \\ b & c-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - (a+c)\lambda + ac - b^2 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda = \frac{a+c \pm \sqrt{(a+c)^2 - (ac-b^2)}}{2}$$

For "-" eigenvalue to be > 0 , need $a+c > \sqrt{(a+c)^2 - (ac-b^2)}$

$$\rightarrow (a+c)^2 > (a+c)^2 - (ac-b^2) \rightarrow \boxed{ac - b^2 > 0}$$

det S

If $ac - b^2 > 0$ then $ac > b^2 \geq 0$, so a, c are both > 0 or both < 0

So we need $\boxed{a > 0}$, since otherwise $\frac{a+c - \sqrt{\dots}}{2}$ would be negative.

Example: $S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is positive definite because

$$2 > 0, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3 > 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - (-1) \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2(3) + (-2) = 4 > 0$$

Example what numbers d make $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & d & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ positive definite?

$$1 > 0 \quad \checkmark \quad \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & d \end{vmatrix} = d - 4 > 0 \rightarrow \boxed{d > 4}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & d & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} d & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 5 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & d \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 5d - 16 - 2(-2) + 3(8 - 3d) = -4d + 12 > 0 \rightarrow \boxed{d < 3}$$

Inconsistent! No value of d works!

Topics to know for the final:

(8)

Chapter 4: Know what orthogonal vectors/subspaces are.

- Projections: Know how to project vectors onto a subspace and how to compute projection matrices.
- Least squares approximations (application of projection)
- Orthogonal matrices and orthonormal basis. Know how to turn any basis into orthonormal using Gram-Schmidt process.

Chapter 5: Determinants

- Know how to compute using row operations and cofactor expansion.
- Applications to volumes, and cross products.

Chapter 6: Know how to find eigenvalues/eigenvectors. (Hint: on final, eigenvalues will never be more complicated than simple fractions.)

- Know how to diagonalize A (if there is a basis of eigenvectors), and use it to calculate A^N .
- Note = Differential equations will not be on the final exam.

Chapter 7: Know how to compute singular value decomposition of a 2×2 matrix, and know the geometric interpretation of singular values ($\sigma_1 = \max \text{ of } \|A\vec{x}\| / \|\vec{x}\|$)

Key topics to know from earlier in the course:

(9)

Matrix algebra:

- Matrix multiplication
 - Inverses
 - LU decomposition
- } Know how to use these to solve linear equations.

Connections to geometry = Dot products, lengths, angles.

Chapter 3

- Definitions of subspace, null space, column space, row space, left null space.
- Finding all solutions to linear equations.
- Know what it means for vectors to be independent.
- Know how to find bases for subspaces, especially for the four subspaces associated to a matrix.