



Linear Algebra

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All models are wrong, but some are useful.

Contents

Chapter 1	Field and Vector Space	1
1.1	Field $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$	1
1.1.1	Definition of Field (@ Lec 02 of ECON 204)	1
1.2	Vector Space	1
1.2.1	Definition of Vector Space (@ Lec 02 of ECON 204)	1
1.2.2	Theorem: A field is a vector space over its subfield	2
1.2.3	Vector Subspace	2
1.2.4	Linear Independent	2
1.2.5	span V , basis, dimension	2
1.2.6	Dimension	3
1.2.7	Theorem: $ V > \dim X \Rightarrow$ linearly dependent	3
1.2.8	Theorem: $ V = n$: Linear Indep \Leftrightarrow Spans \Rightarrow Basis	4
1.2.9	Standard basis vectors	4
1.3	Linear Transformation	4
1.3.1	Definition of Linear Transformation	4
1.3.2	Composition of Linear Transformations is also Linear	4
1.3.3	Function from a Basis extends uniquely to a Linear Transformation	4
1.3.4	Image, Kernel, Rank	5
1.3.5	The Rank-Nullity Theorem: $\dim X = \dim \ker T + \text{Rank } T$	5
1.3.6	Theorem: Linear Transformation T is 1-to-1 $\Leftrightarrow \ker T = \{0\}$	5
1.3.7	Definition of Invertible Linear Transformation	5
1.3.8	Theorem: Inverse of a Linear Transformation is also Linear	5
1.3.9	Theorem: Linear Transformation is completely determined by values on basis	6
1.3.10	$GL(V)$: set of invertible linear transformations $V \rightarrow V$	6
1.4	Isomorphism	6
1.4.1	Isomorphic: \exists invertible $T \in L(X, Y)$	6
1.4.2	Theorem: Isomorphic $\Leftrightarrow \dim X = \dim Y$	6
1.5	Quotient Vector Spaces	7
1.5.1	Quotient Vector Space: X/W	7

1.5.2	Theorem: $\dim(X/W) = \dim X - \dim W$	7
1.5.3	Theorem: T is isomorphic to $X/\ker T$	7
Chapter 2	Matrix	8
2.1	Coordinate Representation	8
2.2	Matrix Representation of a Linear Transformation	8
2.2.1	Definition: matrix corresponds to a linear transformation	8
2.2.2	Theorem: Matrix Space \cong Linear Transformation Space	9
2.2.3	Theorem: $\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{V,U}(S) = \text{Mtx}_{W,U}(T \circ S)$	10
2.3	Change of Basis and Similarity	10
2.3.1	Change of Basis	10
2.3.2	Similarity	11
2.3.3	Theorem: Similar Matrices \Leftrightarrow Same Linear Transformation for Two Bases	11
2.4	Square Matrix $A_{n \times n}$: $\det(A)$, singular	12
2.5	Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors	12
2.6	Diagonalizable Matrix	12
2.7	Orthogonal, Orthonormal, Unitary	14
2.8	Eigen Decomposition of Symmetric Matrices Results	14
2.9	Diagonalization of Real Symmetric Matrices	15
2.9.1	Proposition: $\lambda_{\min} \ x\ ^2 \leq x^T A x \leq \lambda_{\max} \ x\ ^2$	16
2.9.2	Proposition: λ^2 is the eigenvalue of A^2 and $A^T A$	16
2.10	Trace	16
2.11	Jacobian matrix	17
2.12	Hessian matrix	17
2.13	Positive Definite Matrices	17
2.13.1	Definition	17
2.13.2	Condition number (for PD matrix)	18
2.13.3	Diagonal matrix situation	18
2.13.4	Using eigenvalues	19
2.13.5	Sylvester's Criterion	19
2.14	Matrix Norm (Induced Norm) and Spectral Radius	20
Chapter 3	Euclidean geometry basics	22

3.1	Norm	22
3.1.1	Vector's Norm	22
3.1.2	Matrix's Norm	22
3.1.3	Difference between Spectral Radius and Spectral Norm	23
3.2	Euclidean distance, inner product	23
3.3	General Inner Products	24
3.3.1	Inner Product	24
3.3.2	Theorem: $*$ is inner product iff $\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y}$ for some symmetric H	24
3.4	Isometry	25
3.5	Linear isometries i.e. orthogonal group	26
3.6	Special orthogonal group	26
3.7	Translation	26
3.8	All isometries can be represented by a composition of <i>a translation</i> and <i>an orthogonal transformation</i>	27
Chapter 4	Algebra Computation	28
4.1	Hessian Matrix	28
4.2	Taylor's Expansion	28
4.3	Random Vectors and Random Matrices	28
4.3.1	Mean	28
4.3.2	Variance, Covariance	29
4.4	Matrix Multiplication	30
4.5	Matrix Derivation	30
4.6	Matrix Inversion	32
4.6.1	Woodbury matrix identity	32
4.7	Linear Regression: Least Square	32
4.7.1	Normal Equations	32
4.8	LU Decomposition (Restricted to Square)	33
4.9	SVD: Singular Value Decomposition	34
4.9.1	Pseudo-inverse	34
4.9.2	Analysis of $A^T A$ and AA^T	35
4.9.3	Solve Normal Equations	36
4.9.4	Low-Rank Approximation	36

Chapter 1 Field and Vector Space

1.1 Field $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$

1.1.1 Definition of Field (@ Lec 02 of ECON 204)

Definition 1.1 (Field)

A **field** $\mathcal{F} = (\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$ is a 3-tuple consisting of a set \mathbb{F} and two binary operations $+, \cdot : \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that

1. $+$ is associative, commutative.
2. Exists (unique) additive identity and (unique) additive inverse.
3. \cdot is associative, commutative.
4. Exists (unique) multiplicative identity and (unique) multiplicative inverse.
5. Distributivity of multiplication over addition.



Example 1.1 of Field

1. $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Q}$ are field;
2. \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z} are not field;
3. $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{q + r\sqrt{2} : q, r \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is the smallest field containing $\mathbb{Q} \cup \sqrt{2}$.

1.2 Vector Space

1.2.1 Definition of Vector Space (@ Lec 02 of ECON 204)

Definition 1.2 (Vector Space)

A vector space over a field \mathbb{F} , $(V, \mathbb{F}, +, \times)$, is a set V w/ an operation addition $+: V \times V \rightarrow V$ and an operation scalar multiplication $\mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V$

1. $+$ is associative, commutative.
2. Exists (unique) additive identity and (unique) additive inverse.
3. \cdot is associative (there is no need to consider commutativity).
4. Exists (unique) multiplicative identity (there is no need to consider inverse).
5. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over vector addition: $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}, v, u \in V, \alpha(v+u) = \alpha v + \alpha u$
6. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over scalar addition: $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V, (\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$



We often say “ V is a vector space over \mathbb{F} ”.

Example 1.2

1. \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space over \mathbb{R} , for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
2. $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} . (It is \mathbb{Q}^2 , using (q, r) versus $q + r\sqrt{2}$).
3. $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} . (It is \mathbb{Q}^3 , using (q, r, v) versus $q + r2^{\frac{2}{3}} + v2^{\frac{1}{3}}$).
4. $C([0, 1])$, the space of all continuous real-valued functions on $[0, 1]$, is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

1.2.2 Theorem: A field is a vector space over its subfield

Theorem 1.1

$\mathbb{K} \subset \mathbb{F}$ is a subfield of a field \mathbb{F} . Then \mathbb{F} is a vector space over \mathbb{K} .



Example 1.3 Since $\mathbb{F} \subset \mathbb{F}[x]$, then $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

1.2.3 Vector Subspace

Suppose that V is a vector space over \mathbb{F} . A vector subspace or just subspace is a nonempty subset $W \subset V$ closed under addition and scalar multiplication. i.e. $v + w \in W$, $av \in W$, $\forall v, w \in W$, $a \in \mathbb{F}$.

Example 1.4 $\mathbb{K} \subset \mathbb{L} \subset \mathbb{F}$, then \mathbb{L} is a subspace of \mathbb{F} over \mathbb{K} .

1.2.4 Linear Independent

Definition 1.3 (Linear Independence)

A set $V \subseteq X$ is **linearly dependent** if there exist $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$ and $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in F$ not all zero such that $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i = 0$.



Prove a set is linearly independent by $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_i = 0, \forall i$.

1.2.5 span V, basis, dimension

Definition 1.4 (Span)

If $V \subseteq X$, the span of V , denoted $\text{span } V$, is the set of all linear combinations of elements of V . The set $V \subseteq X$ **spans** X if $\text{span } V = X$.



Definition 1.5 ((Hamel) Basis)

A **Hamel basis** (often just called a **basis**) of a vector space X is a **linearly independent** set of vectors in X that **spans** X .



Theorem 1.2

Every vector space has a Hamel basis.

**Theorem 1.3 (Bases have the same cardinality)**

Any two Hamel bases of a vector space X have the same cardinality (are numerically equivalent).

**Theorem 1.4 (Unique Representation)**

Let V be a Hamel basis for X . Then every vector $x \in X$ has a **unique representation** as a linear combination of a finite number of elements of V

(with all coefficients nonzero, unique representation of $0 = \sum_{i \in \emptyset} \alpha_i v_i$).

**Proposition 1.1 (Proposition 2.4.10.)**

Suppose V is a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} having a basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ with $n \geq 1$.

- (i). For all $v \in V$, $v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$ for exactly one $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ (unique representation).
- (ii). If w_1, \dots, w_n span V , then they are linearly independent.
- (iii). If w_1, \dots, w_n are linearly independent, then they span V .

**1.2.6 Dimension****Definition 1.6 (Dimension)**

The dimension of a vector space X , denoted $\dim X$, is the cardinality of any basis of X .



If a vector space V over \mathbb{F} has a basis with n vectors, then V is said to be n -dimensional (over \mathbb{F}) or is said to have **dimension** n .

Definition 1.7 (Finite-Dimension)

Let X be a vector space. If $\dim X = n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then X is finite-dimensional. Otherwise, X is infinite-dimensional.

**1.2.7 Theorem: $|V| > \dim X \Rightarrow$ linearly dependent****Theorem 1.5 ($|V| > \dim X \Rightarrow V$ is linearly dependent)**

Suppose $\dim X = n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $V \subseteq X$ and $|V| > n$, then V is linearly dependent.



1.2.8 Theorem: $|V| = n$: Linear Indep \Leftrightarrow Spans \Rightarrow Basis

Theorem 1.6 ($|V| = n$: Linear Indep \Leftrightarrow Spans \Rightarrow Basis)

Suppose $\dim X = n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $V \subseteq X$ and $|V| = n$.

1. If V is linearly independent, then V spans X , so V is a Hamel basis.
2. If V spans X , then V is linearly independent, so V is a Hamel basis.



1.2.9 Standard basis vectors

$e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0), e_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, e_n = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ are a basis for \mathbb{F}^n called the **standard basis vectors**.

1.3 Linear Transformation

1.3.1 Definition of Linear Transformation

Definition 1.8 (Linear Transformation)

Given two vector spaces V and W over \mathbb{F} a **linear transformation** is a function $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that for all $a \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v, w \in V$, we have

$$T(av) = aT(v) \text{ and } T(v + w) = T(v) + T(w)$$



1.3.2 Composition of Linear Transformations is also Linear

Let $L(X, Y)$ denote the **set of all linear transformations** from X to Y over field \mathbb{F} .

Theorem 1.7

$L(X, Y)$ is a vector space of \mathbb{F} .



Proposition 1.2 (Composition of Linear Transformations is also Linear)

Suppose $R \in L(X, Y)$, $S \in L(Y, Z)$, then $S \circ R \in L(X, Z)$.



1.3.3 Function from a Basis extends uniquely to a Linear Transformation

Proposition 1.3 (Proposition 2.4.15.)

If V and W are vector spaces and v_1, \dots, v_n is a basis for V then any function from $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \rightarrow W$ extends uniquely to a linear transformation $V \rightarrow W$.



Any $v \in V$, $\exists(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ s.t. $v = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n$. Then $T(v) = T(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n) = a_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_nT(v_n)$

1.3.4 Image, Kernel, Rank

Definition 1.9 (Image, Kernel, Rank)

Let $T \in L(X, Y)$,

- The **image** of T is $\text{Im } T = T(X) \subseteq Y$.
- The **kernel** of T is $\ker T = \{x \in X : T(x) = 0\}$.
- The **rank** of T is $\text{Rank } T = \dim(\text{Im } T)$.



1.3.5 The Rank-Nullity Theorem: $\dim X = \dim \ker T + \text{Rank } T$

Theorem 1.8 (The Rank-Nullity Theorem)

Let X be a finite-dimensional vector space and $T \in L(X, Y)$. Then $\text{Im } T$ and $\ker T$ are vector subspaces of Y and X respectively, and

$$\dim X = \dim \ker T + \text{Rank } T$$



1.3.6 Theorem: Linear Transformation T is 1-to-1 $\Leftrightarrow \ker T = \{0\}$

Theorem 1.9 (1-to-1 $\Leftrightarrow \ker T = \{0\}$)

$T \in L(X, Y)$ is one-to-one if and only if $\ker T = \{0\}$.



1.3.7 Definition of Invertible Linear Transformation

Definition 1.10 (Invertible Linear Transformation)

$T \in L(X, Y)$ is **invertible** if there is a function $S : Y \rightarrow X$ such that

1. $S(T(x)) = x, \forall x \in X$.
2. $T(S(y)) = y, \forall y \in Y$.



1.3.8 Theorem: Inverse of a Linear Transformation is also Linear

Theorem 1.10 (Inverse of a Linear Transformation is also Linear)

If $T \in L(X, Y)$ is invertible, then $T^{-1} \in L(Y, X)$, i.e. T^{-1} is linear.



1.3.9 Theorem: Linear Transformation is completely determined by values on basis

Theorem 1.11 (Linear Transformation is completely determined by values on basis)

Let X, Y be two vector spaces over the same field F , and let $V = \{v_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ be a basis for X . Then a linear transformation $T \in L(X, Y)$ is completely determined by its values on V , that is:

1. Given any set $\{y_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\} \subseteq Y$, $\exists T \in L(X, Y)$ s.t.

$$T(v_\lambda) = y_\lambda, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$$

2. If $S, T \in L(X, Y)$ and $S(v_\lambda) = T(v_\lambda)$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$, then $S = T$.



Proof 1.1

1. By the definition of linear transformation, we can prove the result by proving $T(x) = T(\sum_i \alpha_i v_i) = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i$ is linear.
2. Suppose $S(v_\lambda) = T(v_\lambda)$. We prove the result by proving $S(x) = S(\sum_i \alpha_i v_i) = \sum_i \alpha_i S(v_i) = \sum_i \alpha_i T(v_i) = T(\sum_i \alpha_i v_i) = T(x)$.

1.3.10 $GL(V)$: set of invertible linear transformations $V \rightarrow V$

Given a vector space V over F , we let $GL(V) \subset L(V, V)$ denote the subset of **invertible linear transformations**.

$$GL(V) = \{T \in L(V, V) | T \text{ is a bijection}\} = L(V, V) \cap Sym(V)$$

1.4 Isomorphism

1.4.1 Isomorphic: \exists invertible $T \in L(X, Y)$

Definition 1.11 (Isomorphisms)

Two vector spaces X, Y over a field F are **isomorphic** if there is an invertible $T \in L(X, Y)$.



We use notation \cong to denote isomorphism.

1.4.2 Theorem: Isomorphic $\Leftrightarrow \dim X = \dim Y$

Theorem 1.12 (Isomorphic $\Leftrightarrow \dim X = \dim Y$)

Two vector spaces X, Y over the same field are **isomorphic** (\exists invertible $T \in L(X, Y)$) if and only if

$$\dim X = \dim Y$$



1.5 Quotient Vector Spaces

1.5.1 Quotient Vector Space: X/W

Given a vector space $(X, \mathbb{F}, +, \times)$ over \mathbb{F} and a vector subspace $W \subseteq X$. Define an equivalence relation:

$$x \sim y \Leftrightarrow \exists w \in W \text{ s.t. } x = y + w$$

(or $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x - y \in W$). The equivalence class of $x \in X$ with respect to \sim is

$$[x] = \{x + w : w \in W\}$$

We define a set, which is read "X mod W", by

$$X/W = \{[x] : x \in X\} = \{x + W : x \in X\}$$

Define operations $+, \cdot$ in X/W by $\alpha[x] + \beta[y] = [\alpha x + \beta y]$, $\forall x, y \in X$ and $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$.

Definition 1.12 (Quotient Vector Spaces)

X/W forms a vector space over \mathbb{F} with $+, \cdot$.



1.5.2 Theorem: $\dim(X/W) = \dim X - \dim W$

Theorem 1.13 ($\dim(X/W) = \dim X - \dim W$)

If X is a vector space with $\dim X = n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and W is a vector subspace of X , then

$$\dim(X/W) = \dim X - \dim W$$



Proof 1.2

Given a basis for W , $\{w_1, \dots, w_c\}$, and a basis for X/W , $\{[x_1], \dots, [x_k]\}$. Show that $\{w_1, \dots, w_c\} \cup \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ is a basis for X .

1.5.3 Theorem: T is isomorphic to $X/\ker T$

Theorem 1.14 ($\text{Im } T$ is isomorphic to $X/\ker T$)

Let X and Y be vector spaces over the same field F and $T \in L(X, Y)$. Then $\text{Im } T = T(X)$ is isomorphic to $X/\ker T$, where $\ker T = \{x \in X : T(x) = 0\}$.



Chapter 2 Matrix

2.1 Coordinate Representation

Let X be a finite-dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} with $\dim X = n$. Fix any Hamel basis $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of X . According to the theorem 1.4, any $x \in X$ has a unique representation $x = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j v_j$ (here, we allow $\beta_j = 0$). Given this representation, we can write

$$\text{crd}_V(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Then, $\text{crd}_V(x)$ is the vector of coordinates of x with respect to the basis V .

$$\text{crd}_V(v_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{crd}_V(v_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \text{crd}_V(v_n) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

crd_V is an isomorphism from X to \mathbb{R}^n .

2.2 Matrix Representation of a Linear Transformation

2.2.1 Definition: matrix corresponds to a linear transformation

Suppose $T \in L(X, Y)$, $\dim X = n$ and $\dim Y = m$. Fix bases

$$V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \text{ of } X$$

$$W = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \text{ of } Y$$

$T(v_j) \in Y$, so

$$T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_{ij} w_i$$

Define a matrix corresponds to T by

$$\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \cdots & \alpha_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$[w_1, \dots, w_m] \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \cdots & \alpha_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = [T(v_1), \dots, T(v_n)]$$

Notice that the columns are the coordinates (expressed with respect to W) of $T(v_1), \dots, T(v_n)$. Observe

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \cdots & \alpha_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} & \cdots & \alpha_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{m1} \end{pmatrix}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{crd}_V(v_j) &= \text{crd}_W(T(v_j)) \\ \Rightarrow \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{crd}_V(x) &= \text{crd}_W(T(x)) \quad \forall x \in X \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying a vector by a matrix does two things:

1. Computes the action of T .
2. Accounts for the change in basis.

Example 2.1 $X = Y = \mathbb{R}^2$, $V = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$, $W = \{(1, 1), (-1, 1)\}$, $T = id$, that is, $T(x) = x$ for all x .

$\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) = \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(id)$ is the matrix that changes basis from V to W . How do we compute it?

$$[w_1, w_2] \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(id) = [v_1, v_2] \Rightarrow a_{11}w_1 + a_{21}w_2 = T(v_1) \text{ and } a_{12}w_1 + a_{22}w_2 = T(v_2) \Rightarrow \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(id) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

2.2.2 Theorem: Matrix Space \cong Linear Transformation Space

Theorem 2.1 (Matrix Space \cong Linear Transformation Space)

Let X and Y be vector spaces over the same field F , with $\dim X = n$, $\dim Y = m$. Then $L(X, Y)$, the space of linear transformations from X to Y , is isomorphic to $F_{m \times n}$, the vector space of $m \times n$ matrices over F . If $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis for X and $W = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is a basis for Y , then

$$\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \in L(L(X, Y), F_{m \times n})$$

and $\text{Mtx}_{W,V}$ is an isomorphism from $L(X, Y)$ to $F_{m \times n}$.



2.2.3 Theorem: $\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{V,U}(S) = \text{Mtx}_{W,U}(T \circ S)$

Theorem 2.2 ($\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{V,U}(S) = \text{Mtx}_{W,U}(T \circ S)$)

Let X, Y, Z be finite-dimensional vector spaces over the same field F with bases U, V, W respectively.

Let $S \in L(X, Y)$ and $T \in L(Y, Z)$. Then

$$\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{V,U}(S) = \text{Mtx}_{W,U}(T \circ S)$$

i.e. matrix multiplication corresponds via the matrix representation isomorphism to composition of linear transformations.



The theorem can be summarized by the following “Commutative Diagram:”

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & S & & T \\
 & X & \rightarrow & Y & \rightarrow & Z \\
 \text{crd}_U \updownarrow & & & \updownarrow \text{crd}_V & & \updownarrow \text{crd}_W \\
 \mathbf{R}^n & \xrightarrow{\text{Mtx}_{V,U}(S)} & \mathbf{R}^m & \xrightarrow{\text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T)} & \mathbf{R}^r
 \end{array}$$

Figure 2.1: Commutative Diagram

We say the diagram commutes because you get the same answer any way you go around the diagram (in directions allowed by the arrows). The crd arrows go in both directions because crd is an isomorphism.

2.3 Change of Basis and Similarity

Let X be a finite-dimensional vector space with basis V . If $T \in L(X, X)$ it is customary to use the same basis in the domain and range. In this case, we use $\text{Mtx}_V(T)$ to denote $\text{Mtx}_{V,V}(T)$.

2.3.1 Change of Basis

Question: If W is another basis for X , how are $\text{Mtx}_V(T)$ and $\text{Mtx}_W(T)$ related?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Mtx}_{V,W}(\text{id}) \cdot \text{Mtx}_W(T) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(\text{id}) &= \text{Mtx}_{V,W}(\text{id}) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(T \circ \text{id}) \\
 &= \text{Mtx}_{V,V}(\text{id} \circ T \circ \text{id}) \\
 &= \text{Mtx}_V(T)
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\text{Mtx}_{V,W}(id) \cdot \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(id) = \text{Mtx}_{V,V}(id) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So this says that

$$\text{Mtx}_V(T) = P^{-1} \text{Mtx}_W(T) P$$

for the invertible matrix

$$P = \text{Mtx}_{W,V}(id)$$

that is the change of basis matrix.

On the other hand, if P is any invertible matrix, then P is also a change of basis matrix for appropriate corresponding bases.

2.3.2 Similarity

Definition 2.1 (Similar)

Square matrices A and B are **similar** if

$$A = P^{-1}BP$$

for some invertible matrix P .



2.3.3 Theorem: Similar Matrices \Leftrightarrow Same Linear Transformation for Two Bases

Theorem 2.3 (Similar Matrices \Leftrightarrow Same Linear Transformation for Two Bases)

Suppose that X is a finite-dimensional vector space.

1. If $T \in L(X, X)$ then any two matrix representations of T are **similar**. That is, if U, W are any two bases of X , then $\text{Mtx}_W(T)$ and $\text{Mtx}_U(T)$ are similar.
2. Conversely, two similar matrices represent the same linear transformation T , relative to suitable bases. That is, given similar matrices A, B with $A = P^{-1}BP$ and any basis U , there is a basis W and $T \in L(X, X)$ such that

$$B = \text{Mtx}_U(T), A = \text{Mtx}_W(T), P = \text{Mtx}_{U,W}(id), P^{-1} = \text{Mtx}_{W,U}(id).$$



2.4 Square Matrix $A_{n \times n}$: $\det(A)$, singular

1. A is singular if $\det(A) = 0$, else non-singular.
2. If $\det(A) \neq 0$, A^{-1} exists and $A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(A)}{\det(A)}$
3. $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$

2.5 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition 2.2 (Matrix Form: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors)

A vector x is a **eigenvector** of a matrix A if Ax is parallel to x , that is if $Ax = \lambda x$ for some number $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. The number λ is called a **eigenvalue** of A .

i.e. the root of $(A - \lambda I_n)x = 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(A - \lambda I_n) = 0$



Definition 2.3 (Linear Transformation: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors)

Let X be a vector space and $T \in L(X, X)$. We say that λ is an **eigenvalue** of T and $v \neq 0$ is an **eigenvector** corresponding to λ if $T(v) = \lambda v$.



Theorem 2.4 (Matrix Form and LT Form are equivalent)

Let X be a finite-dimensional vector space, and U a basis. Then λ is an eigenvalue of T if and only if λ is an eigenvalue of $\text{Mtx}_U(T)$. v is an eigenvector of T corresponding to λ if and only if $\text{crd}_U(v)$ is an eigenvector of $\text{Mtx}_U(T)$ corresponding to λ .



2.6 Diagonalizable Matrix

Definition 2.4 (Diagonalizable)

Suppose X is a finite-dimensional vector space with basis U . Given a linear transformation $T \in L(X, X)$, let

$$A = \text{Mtx}_U(T)$$

We say that A can be diagonalized (or is **diagonalizable**) if there is another basis W for X such that $\text{Mtx}_W(T)$ is diagonal, i.e.


$$\text{Mtx}_W(T) = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$



A $n \times n$ matrix A with n linearly independent eigenvalues u is said to be *diagonalizable*.

$$\begin{aligned}
 AU &= A \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ \lambda_1 u_1 & \lambda_2 u_2 & \cdots & \lambda_n u_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= UD \\
 \Rightarrow A &= UDU^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.5


If an $n \times n$ matrix A has n linearly independent eigenvectors u_1, \dots, u_n corresponding to eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, then $A = UDU^{-1}$ where D is diagonal with entries $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, and U has columns u_1, \dots, u_n . 

A is **similar** to D ($\exists P$ s.t. $A = PDP^{-1}$).

Not diagonalizable is also called *defective*.


Theorem 2.6 (Diagonalized $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ basis consisting of eigenvectors)

Let X be an n -dimensional vector space, $T \in L(X, X)$, U any basis of X , and $A = \text{Mtx}_U(T)$. Then the following are equivalent:

1. A can be diagonalized.
 2. There is a basis W for X consisting of eigenvectors of T .
 3. There is a basis V for \mathbb{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of A .
- 

Theorem 2.7 (Distinct Eigenvalues Correspond to Distinct Eigenvectors)

Let X be a vector space and $T \in L(X, X)$.

1. If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ are distinct eigenvalues of T with corresponding eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_m , then $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.
 2. If $\dim X = n$ and T has n distinct eigenvalues, then X has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of T ; consequently, if U is any basis of X , then $\text{Mtx}_U(T)$ is diagonalizable.
- 

Corollary 2.1

An $n \times n$ matrix with n distinct eigenvalues is diagonalizable.



(Because the n associated eigenvectors are always linearly independent.)

2.7 Orthogonal, Orthonormal, Unitary

Two vectors a and b are orthogonal, if their dot product is equal to zero (they are perpendicular).

$$a \cdot b = 0$$

Two vectors a and b are orthonormal, if they are orthogonal **unit vectors**.

Formally,

Definition 2.5 (Orthonormal)

Let $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$. A basis $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n is **orthonormal** if $v_i \cdot v_j = \delta_{ij}$.

**Definition 2.6 (Unitary)**

A real $n \times n$ matrix A is **unitary** if $A^T = A^{-1}$.

**Theorem 2.8**

A real $n \times n$ matrix A is **unitary** if and only if the columns of A are **orthonormal**.



If A is unitary, let V be the set of columns of A and W be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n . Since A is unitary, it is invertible, so V is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

$$A^T = A^{-1} = \text{Mtx}_{V,M}(id)$$

where $A = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$: $A \text{Mtx}_{V,M}(id) = [v_1, \dots, v_n] \text{Mtx}_{V,M}(id) = [m_1, \dots, m_n] = \mathbb{I}_{n \times n} \Rightarrow \text{Mtx}_{V,M}(id) = A^{-1}$.

Since V is orthonormal, the transformation between bases W and V preserves all geometry, including lengths and angles.

2.8 Eigen Decomposition of Symmetric Matrices Results

Let A be a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix, i.e. $A^T = A$

Proposition 2.1

All eigenvalues of A are real.



Proposition 2.2

Eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

**Proof 2.1**

Let λ_1, λ_2 be eigenvalues s.t. $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$.

$$\begin{aligned} Au_1 &= \lambda_1 u_1; \quad Au_2 = \lambda_2 u_2 \\ \lambda_1 u_1^T u_2 &= (Au_1)^T u_2 = u_1^T A^T u_2 \\ &= u_1^T Au_2 = u_1^T (\lambda_2 u_2) = \lambda_2 u_1^T u_2 \\ \Rightarrow u_1^T u_2 &= 0 \text{ Since } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 2.3

If λ is an eigenvalue with multiplicity k , we can find k orthogonal eigenvectors for λ .




Multiplicity: the number of times an element is repeated in a multiset.

2.9 Diagonalization of Real Symmetric Matrices

Theorem 2.9 (Diagonalization of Real Symmetric Matrices)

Let $T \in L(\mathbf{R}^n, \mathbf{R}^n)$ and W be the standard basis of \mathbf{R}^n . Suppose that $Mtx_W(T)$ is symmetric. Then the eigenvectors of T are all real, and there is an orthonormal basis $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of \mathbf{R}^n consisting of eigenvectors of T , so that $Mtx_W(T)$ is diagonalizable:

$$Mtx_W(T) = Mtx_{W,V}(id) \cdot Mtx_V(T) \cdot Mtx_{V,W}(id)$$

where $Mtx_V(T)$ is diagonal and the change of basis matrices $Mtx_{V,W}(id)$ and $Mtx_{W,V}(id)$ are unitary. 

A real symmetric matrix $A_{n \times n}$ can be written as

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i u_i u_i^T = U \Omega U^T$$

u_i are orthonormal eigenvectors. λ_i are eigenvalues.

Where $U = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$, $\Omega = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$

Since u_i are orthonormal eigenvectors, $U^T U = I \Rightarrow U^T = U^{-1}$. U is an orthogonal matrix.

2.9.1 Proposition: $\lambda_{\min}\|x\|^2 \leq x^T A x \leq \lambda_{\max}\|x\|^2$

Proposition 2.4

For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\lambda_{\min}\|x\|^2 \leq x^T A x \leq \lambda_{\max}\|x\|^2$$

Proof 2.2

Since u_i are orthonormal and linearly independent, $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i$ for some $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\begin{aligned} x^T A x &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i \right)^T A \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j u_j \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j u_i^T A u_j \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j u_i^T (A u_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^2 \lambda_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{\min}\|x\|^2 \leq x^T A x \leq \lambda_{\max}\|x\|^2$$

The first equation holds if x is the eigenvector for λ_{\min} . The second equation holds if x is the eigenvector for λ_{\max} .

2.9.2 Proposition: λ^2 is the eigenvalue of A^2 and $A^T A$

Proposition 2.5

If λ is an eigenvalue of A , then λ^2 is the eigenvalue of A^2 and $A^T A$, the corresponding eigenvector doesn't change.

Proof 2.3

$$A x_1 = \lambda x_1$$

$$A^2 x_1 = A(A x_1) = \lambda A x_1 = \lambda^2 x_1$$

$$A^T A x_1 = A^T (A x_1) = \lambda A^T x_1 = \lambda^2 x_1$$

2.10 Trace

$$A_{n \times n}, \text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{kk}$$

$$\det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i, \text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$

Proposition 2.6 (Invariance Property)

$A_{m \times n}, B_{n \times k}, C_{k \times m}, \text{Tr}(ABC) = \text{Tr}(CAB) = \text{Tr}(BCA).$



2.11 Jacobian matrix

Suppose $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a function such that each of its first-order partial derivatives exist on \mathbb{R}^n . This function takes a point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as input and produces the vector $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ as output. Then the Jacobian matrix of \mathbf{f} is defined to be an $m \times n$ matrix, denoted by \mathbf{J} , whose (i, j) th entry is $\mathbf{J}_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$, or explicitly

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^T f_1 \\ \vdots \\ \nabla^T f_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\nabla^T f_i$ is the transpose (row vector) of the gradient of the i component.

2.12 Hessian matrix

Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function taking as input a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and outputting a scalar $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$. If all second partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous over the domain of the function, then the Hessian matrix \mathbf{H} of f is a square $n \times n$ matrix, usually defined and arranged as follows:

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix},$$

or, by stating an equation for the coefficients using indices i and j ,

$$(\mathbf{H}_f)_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}.$$

The Hessian matrix is a symmetric matrix, since the hypothesis of continuity of the second derivatives implies that the order of differentiation does not matter (Schwarz's theorem).

The determinant of the Hessian matrix is called the Hessian determinant.

2.13 Positive Definite Matrices

2.13.1 Definition

We say that a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A is:

- (1). **positive semidefinite (PSD)** (written $A \succeq 0$) if $x^T A x \geq 0$ for all x .

- (2). **positive definite (PD)** (written $A \succ 0$) if $x^T A x > 0$ for all $x \neq 0$.
- (3). **negative semidefinite (NSD)** (written $A \preceq 0$) if $x^T A x \leq 0$ for all x .
- (4). **negative definite (ND)** (written $A \prec 0$) if $x^T A x < 0$ for all $x \neq 0$.
- (5). **indefinite** (not written in any particular way) if none of the above apply.

$x^T A x$ is a function of x called the quadratic form associated to A .

A is ND(NSD) $\Leftrightarrow -A$ is PD(PSD)

Note: $A^T A$ is **positive semidefinite**, since $x^T A^T A x = \|Ax\|^2 \geq 0$.

Note: We can extend definition to non-symmetric $n \times n$

$$x^T A x = x^T A^T x \Rightarrow x^T A x = x^T \left(\frac{A + A^T}{2} \right) x$$

2.13.2 Condition number (for PD matrix)

Condition number (for PD matrix):

$$\kappa(A) = \frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_{min}} > 0$$

2.13.3 Diagonal matrix situation

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Lemma 2.1

If d_1, \dots, d_n are all nonnegative, then $D \succeq 0$;

If d_1, \dots, d_n are all positive, then $D \succ 0$;

If d_1, \dots, d_n are all nonpositive, then $D \preceq 0$;

If d_1, \dots, d_n are all negative, then $D \prec 0$;



2.13.4 Using eigenvalues

If A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, then it can be factored as

$$A = Q^T \Lambda Q = Q^T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} Q$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A and the columns of Q are the corresponding eigenvectors.

We can get $x^T A x = x^T Q^T \Lambda Q x = (Qx)^T \Lambda (Qx)$

If we substitute $y = Qx$:

$$x^T A x = y^T \Lambda y = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$$

Theorem 2.10

If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all non-negative, then symmetric matrix $A \succeq 0$;

If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all positive, then $A \succ 0$;

If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all non-positive, then $A \preceq 0$;

If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all negative, then $A \prec 0$;

if it has both positive and negative eigenvalues, then A is indefinite



2.13.5 Sylvester's Criterion

Consider a $n \times n$ matrix A :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Denote its $k \times k$ submatrix $A^{(k)}$:

$$A^{(k)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & \dots & a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $\Delta_k = \det(A^{(k)})$

$$\det(A - xI) = (\lambda_1 - x)(\lambda_2 - x) \dots (\lambda_n - x)$$

by setting $x = 0$ we get $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n$.

When $A \succ 0$, all the eigenvalues are positive, so $\det(A) > 0$ as well.

$A \succ 0 \Rightarrow \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} > 0$ for all $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$. Consider $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $x_{k+1} = \dots = x_n = 0$. $\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k, 0, \dots, 0]^T$.

Then,


$$\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k, 0, \dots, 0] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x}^T A^{(k)} \vec{x}$$

Then we know $A \succ 0 \Rightarrow A^{(k)} \succ 0$


We expect $A^{(k)} \succ 0 \Rightarrow \Delta_k > 0$ for all k .

Theorem 2.11 (Sylvester's criterion)

Let A be $n \times n$ symmetric matrix

1. $A \succ 0$ iff $\Delta_i > 0 \forall i = 1, \dots, n$
2. $A \prec 0$ iff $(-1)^i \Delta_i > 0 \forall i = 1, \dots, n$
3. A is indefinite if the first Δ_k that breaks each pattern respectively is the wrong sign (rather than 0). 

Proposition 2.7

1. Symmetric matrix A is PD
 \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are > 0
 $\Leftrightarrow \Delta_i > 0 \forall i = 1, \dots, n$
2. Symmetric matrix A is PSD
 \Leftrightarrow All eigenvalues of A are ≥ 0
 $\Leftrightarrow \Delta_i \geq 0 \forall i = 1, \dots, n$
3. For ND and NSD, test $-A$ instead of A 


2.14 Matrix Norm (Induced Norm) and Spectral Radius

$\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$. i.e., find the column with the highest sum of absolute values.

Spectral Radius: for $n \times n$ matrix A ,

$$S(A) = \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |\lambda_i|$$

Proposition 2.8


$$S(A) \leq \|A\|$$


Proof 2.4

$$\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\| \geq \|Au\| = |\lambda|\|u\| = |\lambda|$$

Proposition 2.9

For symmetric $A_{n \times n}$, $S(A) = \|A\|$


Proof 2.5

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, decompose it by u_i . Since u_i are orthonormal and linearly independent. $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i$ for some $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \dots, n$. $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2$

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax\|^2 &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i A u_i \right\|^2 = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \lambda_i u_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2 |\lambda_i|^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2 S(A)^2 = S(A)^2 \Rightarrow \|A\| \leq S(A) \end{aligned}$$

Since we proved $S(A) \leq \|A\|$ before, $S(A) = \|A\|$.

Chapter 3 Euclidean geometry basics

3.1 Norm

3.1.1 Vector's Norm

Vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ -n-dim Euclidean space

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix}^\top = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Norm of x , $\|x\|$ satisfies properties:

- (a) $\|x\| \geq 0$
- (b) $\|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$
- (c) $\|cx\| = |c|\|x\|$, for $c \in \mathbb{R}$
- (d) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\| \leftarrow$ Triangle Ineq.

Euclidean Norm (default $\rho = 2$): $\|x\| = \sqrt{x^\top x} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$

Other norms:

1. l_1 -norm : $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$
2. l_ρ -norm : $\|x\|_\rho = \sqrt[\rho]{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^\rho}$
3. Supremum norm or l_∞ -norm : $\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$

3.1.2 Matrix's Norm

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is a matrix

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|A\|\|x\|, \|AB\| \leq \|A\|\|B\|$$

Default is $\rho = 1$: $\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$.

$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}^2}$ (Frobenius norm); Frobenius norm property: $\|A\|_F^2 = \text{trace}(A^T A)$

$\|A\|_1 = \max_j \sum_{i=1}^n |A_{ij}|$ i.e., find the column with the highest sum of absolute values.

$\|A\|_\infty = \max_j \sum_{i=1}^n |A_{ij}|$ i.e., find the row with the highest sum of absolute values.

$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)} = \sigma_{\max}(A)$. $\|A\|_2 = \max_k \sigma_k$ is the singular value (square root of $A^T A$) of A (spectral norm, Euclidean norm)

$$\|A\| = \max \left(\frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \right) \Rightarrow \|A\| \geq \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}, \|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$$

3.1.3 Difference between Spectral Radius and Spectral Norm

Spectral Radius: $S(A) = \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |\lambda_i|$; Spectral Norm: $\|A\|_2 = \max_k \sigma_k$

For real symmetric matrices, $\|A\|_2 = S(A)$.

For general matrices, $\|A\|_2 \geq S(A)$.

3.2 Euclidean distance, inner product

Euclidean distance on \mathbb{R}^n :

$$|x - y| = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

Euclidean inner product:

$$x \cdot y = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n = x^T y$$

Also written as $\langle x, y \rangle$

Useful fact:

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \cos(\theta) \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

θ is the angle between x and y .

Two important results for Euclidean norm:

1) Pythagorean Theorem: If $x^T y = 0$,

$$\|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$$

2) Cauchy - Schwarz Inequality:

$$\langle x, y \rangle = |x^T y| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

" = " iff $x = \alpha y$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

3.3 General Inner Products

3.3.1 Inner Product

Definition 3.1



An **inner product** $*$ is a function that maps two vectors $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to a single value $\vec{x} * \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}$, satisfying the following axioms:

1. **Bilinear** (linearity in both arguments): for all $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$(a\vec{x} + b\vec{y}) * \vec{z} = a(\vec{x} * \vec{z}) + b(\vec{y} * \vec{z})$$

$$\vec{x} * (a\vec{y} + b\vec{z}) = a(\vec{x} * \vec{y}) + b(\vec{x} * \vec{z})$$

2. **Symmetric** i.e. for all $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{y} * \vec{x}$$

3. **Positivity** i.e. for all $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\vec{x} * \vec{x} \geq 0$$

with equality if and only if $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

Definition 3.2

Every inner product $*$ defines a corresponding norm $\|\cdot\|_*$ as $\|\vec{x}\|_* = \sqrt{\vec{x} * \vec{x}}$



3.3.2 Theorem: $*$ is inner product iff $\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y}$ for some symmetric H

Theorem 3.1

An operation $*$: $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an inner product if and only if it can be written as $\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y}$ for some symmetric positive definite $n \times n$ matrix H .



Proof 3.1

Define $H := [H_{ij}] = [\vec{e}_i * \vec{e}_j]$

1. *Bilinear:*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{x} * \vec{y} &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \vec{e}_i \right) * \left(\sum_{j=1}^n y_j \vec{e}_j \right) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \left(\vec{e}_i * \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \vec{e}_j \right) \quad (\text{by linearity}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n y_j (\vec{e}_i * \vec{e}_j) \right) \quad (\text{by linearity}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i (\vec{e}_i * \vec{e}_j) y_j \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i H_{ij} y_j = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. *Symmetric* $\Leftrightarrow H = H^T$:

$$\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y} = (\vec{x}^T H \vec{y})^T = \vec{y}^T H^T \vec{x} = \vec{y}^T H \vec{x} = \vec{y} * \vec{x}$$

3. *Positivity* $\Leftrightarrow H \succ 0$: $\vec{x}^T H \vec{x} \geq 0$ with equality only if $\vec{x} = 0$

As we know that a symmetric matrix H is positive definite if and only if we can write $H = B^T B$ for some invertible matrix B .

$$\vec{x} * \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T B^T B \vec{y} = (B\vec{x})^T B \vec{y} = (B\vec{x}) \cdot (B\vec{y})$$

Definition 3.3

Given a positive definite matrix H , let the associated inner product be $\vec{x} \cdot_H \vec{y} = \vec{x}^T H \vec{y}$ and the associated norm be $\|\vec{x}\|_H = \sqrt{\vec{x}^T H \vec{x}}$



3.4 Isometry

An **isometry** of \mathbb{R}^n is a bijection $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ that preserves distance, which means,

$$|\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)| = |x - y|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

We use $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ denotes the set of all isometries of \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \mid |\Phi(x) - \Phi(y)| = |x - y|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

Proposition 3.1

$\Phi, \Psi \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then $\Phi \circ \Psi, \Phi^{-1} \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$



Proof 3.2

Since Φ, Ψ are bijections, so is $\Phi \circ \Psi$. Moreover,

$$|\Phi \circ \Psi(x) - \Phi \circ \Psi(y)| = |\Phi(\Psi(x)) - \Phi(\Psi(y))| = |\Psi(x) - \Psi(y)| = |x - y|$$

Since $id \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$,

$$|x - y| = |id(x) - id(y)| = |\Phi \circ \Phi^{-1}(x) - \Phi \circ \Phi^{-1}(y)| = |\Phi^{-1}(x) - \Phi^{-1}(y)|$$

3.5 Linear isometries i.e. orthogonal group

There is a matrix $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ i.e. a invertible linear transformations $T_A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is given by $T_A(v) = Av$.

$$T_A(v) \cdot T_A(w) = (Av) \cdot (Aw) = (Av)^t(Aw) = v^t A^t Aw$$

$$A^t A = I \Leftrightarrow T_A(v) \cdot T_A(w) = v \cdot w \Leftrightarrow T_A \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

We define the all isometries in invertible linear transformations $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ as **orthogonal group**

$$O(n) = \{A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | A^t A = I\} \subset GL(n, \mathbb{R})$$

3.6 Special orthogonal group

$O(n)$ are the matrices representing linear isometries of \mathbb{R}^n . $1 = \det(I) = \det(A^t A) = \det(A^t) \det(A) = \det(A)^2 \Rightarrow \det(A) = 1$ or $\det(A) = -1$. We use **special orthogonal group** represents A with $\det(A) = 1$,

$$SO(n) = \{A \in O(n) | \det(A) = 1\}$$

3.7 Translation

Define a translation by $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\tau_v : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \tau_v(x) = x + v$$



Note [Exercise 2.5.3] $\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n, \tau_v$ is an isometry.

Proof 3.3

$$|\tau_v(x) - \tau_v(y)| = |(x + v) - (y + v)| = |x - y|$$

3.8 All isometries can be represented by a composition of *a translation* and *an orthogonal transformation*

Since *the composition of isometries is an isometry*, $\forall A \in O(n)$ and $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the composition

$$\Phi_{A,v}(x) = \tau_v(T_A(x)) = Ax + v$$

is an isometry. **which could account for all isometries.**

Theorem 3.2


$$\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{\Phi_{A,v} \mid A \in O(n), v \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$



Chapter 4 Algebra Computation


4.1 Hessian Matrix

Definition 4.1

The Hessian of f at point x is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix denoted by $\nabla^2 f(x)$ with $[\nabla^2 f(x)]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ 

4.2 Taylor's Expansion

Definition 4.2 (Taylor's Expansion of Vector)


$$f(y) - f(x) = \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{1}{2} (x - y)^T \nabla^2 f(x) (x - y) + o(\|x - y\|^2)$$
 

4.3 Random Vectors and Random Matrices

4.3.1 Mean


Definition 4.3 (Mean of a random vector)

The mean of a d -dimensional random vector \vec{x} is

$$\mathbb{E}(\vec{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}(x_1) \\ \mathbb{E}(x_2) \\ \dots \\ \mathbb{E}(x_d) \end{pmatrix}$$
 

Definition 4.4 (Mean of a random matrix)

The mean of a $d_1 \times d_2$ matrix with random entries \vec{X} is

$$\mathbb{E}(\vec{X}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[1, 1]) & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[1, 2]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[1, d_2]) \\ \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[2, 1]) & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[2, 2]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[2, d_2]) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[d_1, 1]) & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[d_1, 2]) & \dots & \mathbb{E}(\vec{X}[d_1, d_2]) \end{pmatrix}$$
 

Lemma 4.1 (Linearity of expectation for random vectors and matrices)

Let \vec{x} be a d -dimensional random vector and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}(A\vec{x} + b) = A\mathbb{E}(\vec{x}) + b$$

Similarly let, \vec{X} be a $d_1 \times d_2$ random matrix and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d_2}$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d_1}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}(A\vec{X} + B) = A\mathbb{E}(\vec{X}) + B$$


Definition 4.5 (Sample mean of multivariate data)

Let $X := \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ denote a set of d -dimensional vectors of real-valued data. The sample mean is the entry-wise average

$$\mu_X := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$



4.3.2 Variance, Covariance

Definition 4.6 (Covariance matrix of a vector)

The covariance matrix of a d -dimensional random vector \vec{x} is the $d \times d$ matrix

$$\Sigma_{\vec{x}} = \mathbb{E}[(\vec{x} - \mathbb{E}(\vec{x}))^T (\vec{x} - \mathbb{E}(\vec{x}))] = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(\vec{x}[1]) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(\vec{x}[1], \vec{x}[d]) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \text{Cov}(\vec{x}[d], \vec{x}[1]) & \cdots & \text{Var}(\vec{x}[d]) \end{bmatrix}$$


Lemma 4.2

For any random vector \vec{x} with covariance matrix $\Sigma_{\vec{x}}$, and any vector v :

$$\text{Var}(v^T \vec{x}) = v^T \Sigma_{\vec{x}} v$$


Definition 4.7 (Sample covariance matrix)

Let $X := \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ denote a set of d -dimensional vectors of real-valued data. The sample covariance matrix equals



Variance-Covariance matrix Σ :

$$\Sigma_{m \times m} = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}) = \mathbb{E}((\mathbf{Z} - \mu)(\mathbf{Z} - \mu)^T) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(Z_1) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_m) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \text{Cov}(Z_m, Z_1) & \cdots & \text{Var}(Z_m) \end{bmatrix}$$

Affine Transformation

(1)

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{a}_{n \times 1} + \mathbf{B}_{n \times m} \mathbf{Z}_{m \times 1}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mu, \text{Cov}(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{B}\Sigma\mathbf{B}^T$$

(2)

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Z} = v_1 Z_1 + \dots + v_m Z_m$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{v}^T \mu = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i \mu_i$$

$$\text{Var}(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{v}^T \Sigma \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i^2 \text{Var}(Z_i) + 2 \sum_{i < j} v_i v_j \text{Cov}(Z_i, Z_j)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{AZ}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}(Z); \text{Var}(\mathbf{AZ}) = \mathbf{A}\text{Var}(\mathbf{Z})\mathbf{A}^T$$

(3)

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{AX}, \mathbf{BY}) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{AX} - \mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}(X))(\mathbf{BY} - \mathbf{B}\mathbb{E}(Y))^T] = \mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}(X))(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbb{E}(Y))^T]\mathbf{B}^T = \mathbf{A}\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})\mathbf{B}^T$$

4.4 Matrix Multiplication

$$(1). A(BC) = (AB)C.$$

$$(2). A(B + C) = AB + AC.$$

$$(2). (B + C)A = BA + CA.$$

$$(3). \text{No commutative: } AB \neq BA.$$

4.5 Matrix Derivation

$$\frac{\partial x^T Q x}{\partial x} = 2Qx$$

<https://zhuanlan.zhihu.com/p/24709748>

<https://blog.csdn.net/daaikuaichuan/article/details/80620518>

Vector by vector:

Identities: vector-by-vector $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$			
Condition	Expression	Numerator layout, i.e. by y and x^T	Denominator layout, i.e. by y^T and x
a is not a function of x	$\frac{\partial a}{\partial x} =$	0	
	$\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} =$	I	
A is not a function of x	$\frac{\partial Ax}{\partial x} =$	A	A^T
A is not a function of x	$\frac{\partial x^T A}{\partial x} =$	A^T	A
a is not a function of x , $u = u(x)$	$\frac{\partial au}{\partial x} =$	$a \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	
$v = v(x), u = u(x)$	$\frac{\partial uv}{\partial x} =$	$v \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$	$v^T \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + u^T \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$
A is not a function of x , $u = u(x)$	$\frac{\partial Au}{\partial x} =$	$A \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} A^T$
$u = u(x), v = v(x)$	$\frac{\partial (u + v)}{\partial x} =$	$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$	
$u = u(x)$	$\frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial x} =$	$\frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial u}$
$u = u(x)$	$\frac{\partial f(g(u))}{\partial x} =$	$\frac{\partial f(g)}{\partial g} \frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$	$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g(u)}{\partial u} \frac{\partial f(g)}{\partial g}$

Figure 4.1: Denominator layout means $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x^T} &= \left(\frac{\partial u^T}{\partial x} \right)^T \\
\frac{\partial u^T v}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial u^T}{\partial x} v + \frac{\partial v^T}{\partial x} u^T \\
\frac{\partial uv^T}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} v^T + u \frac{\partial v^T}{\partial x} \\
\frac{\partial x^T x}{\partial x} &= 2x \\
\frac{\partial x^T A x}{\partial x} &= (A + A^T)x
\end{aligned}$$

where $x, u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$

Note:

$$\frac{d\|Aw - b\|^2}{dw} = \frac{d(Aw - b)^T(Aw - b)}{dw} = \frac{d(Aw - b)^T}{dw}(Aw - b) + \frac{d(Aw - b)^T}{dw}(Aw - b) = 2A^T(Aw - b)$$

Matrix by vector:

$$\frac{\partial AB}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} B + A \frac{\partial B}{\partial x}$$

Matrix by matrix:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial u^T X v}{\partial X} &= uv^T \\
\frac{\partial u^T X^T X u}{\partial X} &= 2Xu u^T \\
\frac{\partial [(Xu - v)^T (Xu - v)]}{\partial X} &= 2(Xu - v)u^T
\end{aligned}$$

Trace:

$$\text{tr}(a) = a$$

$$\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$$

$$\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(CAB) = \text{tr}(BCA)$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{tr}(AB)}{\partial A} = B^T$$

$$\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr}(A^T)$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{tr}(ABA^T C)}{\partial A} = CAB + C^T AB^T$$

4.6 Matrix Inversion

4.6.1 Woodbury matrix identity

$$(A + UCV)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U)^{-1}VA^{-1},$$

where A, U, C and V are conformable matrices: A is $n \times n$, C is $k \times k$, U is $n \times k$, and V is $k \times n$. This can be derived using blockwise matrix inversion.

Blockwise inversion:

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

4.7 Linear Regression: Least Square

$$\text{Minimize}_w \mathcal{R}(w) = \|Xw - y\|^2$$

4.7.1 Normal Equations

$$\nabla_w \|Xw - y\|^2 = 2X^T(Xw - y) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow X^T Xw = X^T y$$

These are called the **normal equations**.

Proposition 4.1

\hat{w} satisfies $\mathcal{R}(\hat{w}) = \min_w \mathcal{R}(w)$ if and only if \hat{w} satisfies the normal equations. (i.e. prove it is the global minimum)

**Proof 4.1**

Consider w with $X^\top X w = X^\top y$, and any w' ; then

$$\begin{aligned}\|Xw' - y\|^2 &= \|Xw' - Xw + Xw - y\|^2 \\ &= \|Xw' - Xw\|^2 + 2(Xw' - Xw)^\top (Xw - y) + \|Xw - y\|^2\end{aligned}$$

Since

$$(Xw' - Xw)^\top (Xw - y) = (w' - w)^\top (X^\top X w - X^\top y) = 0$$

then

$$\|Xw' - y\|^2 = \|Xw' - Xw\|^2 + \|Xw - y\|^2 \geq \|Xw - y\|^2$$

4.8 LU Decomposition (Restricted to Square)

Triangular matrix saves time when computing $Ax = b$.

Let A be a square matrix. An LU factorization refers to the factorization of A , with proper row and/or column orderings or permutations, into two factors - a lower triangular matrix L and an upper triangular matrix U :

$A = LU$. In the lower triangular matrix all elements above the diagonal are zero, in the upper triangular matrix, all the elements below the diagonal are zero. For example, for a 3×3 matrix A , its LU decomposition looks like this:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \ell_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ \ell_{21} & \ell_{22} & 0 \\ \ell_{31} & \ell_{32} & \ell_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$A = PLU$$

P is a permutation matrix (used to swap row, only one 1 in every row). P is orthogonal, so $P^{-1} = P^T$.

Solve $Ax = b$:

$$Ax = b$$

$$PLUx = b$$

Let $y = Ux$, then solve $PLy = b$

$$Ly = P^T b$$

Complexity: $O(n^3)$

4.9 SVD: Singular Value Decomposition

For a $n \times m$ matrix A with rank r ,

$$\begin{aligned} A_{n \times m} &= U_{n \times n} \Sigma_{n \times m} V_{m \times m}^T \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^r s_i u_i v_i^T \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_1 & & & \\ & s_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & s_r \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_m \\ | & | & \cdots & | \end{bmatrix}^T \end{aligned}$$

U, V are orthogonal matrices. $u_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ are left singular vectors, $v_i \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$ are right singular vectors.

$s_i, i = 1, \dots, r$ are singular values (absolute values of eigenvalues of a normal matrix).

Complexity: $O(mn^2 + n^3)$

4.9.1 Pseudo-inverse

We can't compute the inverse matrix of a singular matrix. We can use pseudo-inverse matrix.

$$A_{m \times n}^+ = \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{1}{s_i} v_i u_i^T = V \Sigma^+ U^T$$

Where

$$\Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{s_1} & & & & & \\ & \frac{1}{s_2} & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \frac{1}{s_r} & & \\ & & & & 0 & \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The SVD may not be unique, but the pseudo-inverse of A , A^+ is unique.

$$AA^+ = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i u_i^T = \begin{bmatrix} I_{r \times r} & O_{r \times n-r} \\ O_{n-r \times r} & O_{n-r \times n-r} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

$$A^+A = \sum_{i=1}^r v_i v_i^T = \begin{bmatrix} I_{r \times r} & O_{r \times m-r} \\ O_{m-r \times r} & O_{m-r \times m-r} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m}$$

If A^{-1} exists, $A^{-1} = A^+$.

4.9.2 Analysis of $A^T A$ and AA^T

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A &= (U \Sigma V^T)^T (U \Sigma V^T) \\ &= V \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T \\ &= V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T \\ &= V \Sigma^2 V^T \\ &\Rightarrow V = A^T U \Sigma^+ \end{aligned}$$

Columns of V are the eigenvectors of $A^T A$.

The diagonal entries of Σ^2 , $s_1^2, s_2^2, \dots, s_r^2$ are the eigenvalues of $A^T A$.

Similarly:

$$\begin{aligned} AA^T &= U \Sigma^2 U^T \\ &\Rightarrow U = A V \Sigma^+ \end{aligned}$$

Columns of U are the eigenvectors of AA^T .

Fact: $A^T A$ is positive semi-definite.

4.9.3 Solve Normal Equations

Solve $X^T X w = X^T y$,

$$\hat{w}_{ols} = X^+ y$$

$$X^T X \hat{w}_{ols} = X^T X X^+ y = (X^T (X X^+)) y = X^T y$$

4.9.4 Low-Rank Approximation

For a $n \times m$ matrix A with rank r , $A = \sum_{i=1}^r s_i u_i v_i^T$.

Rank- k approximation for A is

$$A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k s_i u_i v_i^T$$

Where $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$

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