Review of Linear Algebra

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1. Basic Concepts and Notation
2. Matrix Multiplication
3. Operations and Properties
4. Matrix Calculus

Basic Concepts and Notation

Basic Notation

- By $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we denote a vector with n entries.

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

- By $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ we denote a matrix with m rows and n columns, where the entries of A are real numbers.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a^1 & a^2 & \cdots & a^n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \\ — & a_2^T & — \\ & \vdots & \\ — & a_m^T & — \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Identity Matrix

The ***identity matrix***, denoted $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, is a square matrix with ones on the diagonal and zeros everywhere else. That is,

$$I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

It has the property that for all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

$$AI = A = IA.$$

Diagonal matrices

A ***diagonal matrix*** is a matrix where all non-diagonal elements are 0. This is typically denoted $D = \mathrm{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n)$, with

$$D_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_i & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Clearly, $I = \mathrm{diag}(1, 1, \ldots, 1)$.

Vector-Vector Product

- ***inner product*** or ***dot product***

$$x^T y \in \mathbb{R} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i .$$

- ***outer product***

$$xy^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \cdots & y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & \cdots & x_1 y_n \\ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & \cdots & x_2 y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m y_1 & x_m y_2 & \cdots & x_m y_n \end{bmatrix} .$$

Matrix-Vector Product

- If we write A by rows, then we can express Ax as,

$$y = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \\ — & a_2^T & — \\ & \vdots & \\ — & a_m^T & — \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T x \\ a_2^T x \\ \vdots \\ a_m^T x \end{bmatrix}.$$

- If we write A by columns, then we have:

$$y = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a^1 & a^2 & \cdots & a^n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^1 \end{bmatrix} x_1 + \begin{bmatrix} a^2 \end{bmatrix} x_2 + \ldots + \begin{bmatrix} a^n \end{bmatrix} x_n \ . \tag{1}$$

y is a ***linear combination*** of the *columns* of A.

Matrix-Vector Product

It is also possible to multiply on the left by a row vector.

- If we write A by columns, then we can express $x^\top A$ as,

$$y^T = x^T A = x^T \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a^1 & a^2 & \cdots & a^n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^T a^1 & x^T a^2 & \cdots & x^T a^n \end{bmatrix}$$

- expressing A in terms of rows we have:

$$\begin{aligned} y^T = x^T A &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \\ — & a_2^T & — \\ & \vdots & \\ — & a_m^T & — \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x_1 \begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} — & a_2^T & — \end{bmatrix} + \ldots + x_m \begin{bmatrix} — & a_m^T & — \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

y^T is a linear combination of the *rows* of A.

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

1. As a set of vector-vector products

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \\ — & a_2^T & — \\ & \vdots & \\ — & a_m^T & — \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ b^1 & b^2 & \cdots & b^p \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T b^1 & a_1^T b^2 & \cdots & a_1^T b^p \\ a_2^T b^1 & a_2^T b^2 & \cdots & a_2^T b^p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_m^T b^1 & a_m^T b^2 & \cdots & a_m^T b^p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

2. As a sum of outer products

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a^1 & a^2 & \cdots & a^n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & b_1^T & - \\ - & b_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & b_n^T & - \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a^i b_i^T \quad .$$

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

3. As a set of matrix-vector products.

$$C = AB = A \left[\begin{array}{cccc} | & | & & | \\ b^1 & b^2 & \cdots & b^p \\ | & | & & | \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} | & | & & | \\ Ab^1 & Ab^2 & \cdots & Ab^p \\ | & | & & | \end{array} \right]. \tag{2}$$

Here the ith column of C is given by the matrix-vector product with the vector on the right, $c_i = Ab_i$. These matrix-vector products can in turn be interpreted using both viewpoints given in the previous subsection.

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (different views)

4. As a set of vector-matrix products.

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T & - \\ - & a_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T & - \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1^T B & - \\ - & a_2^T B & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_m^T B & - \end{bmatrix}.$$

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication (properties)

- Associative: $(AB)C = A(BC)$.
- Distributive: $A(B + C) = AB + AC$.
- In general, *not* commutative; that is, it can be the case that $AB \neq BA$. (For example, if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$, the matrix product BA does not even exist if m and q are not equal!)

Operations and Properties

The Transpose

The ***transpose*** of a matrix results from "flipping" the rows and columns. Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, its transpose, written $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, is the $n \times m$ matrix whose entries are given by

$$(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}.$$

The following properties of transposes are easily verified:

- $(A^T)^T = A$
- $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
- $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$

Trace

The ***trace*** of a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted $\mathrm{tr} A$, is the sum of diagonal elements in the matrix:

$$\mathrm{tr} A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}.$$

The trace has the following properties:

- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathrm{tr} A = \mathrm{tr} A^T$.
- For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathrm{tr}(A + B) = \mathrm{tr} A + \mathrm{tr} B$.
- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathrm{tr}(tA) = t \, \mathrm{tr} A$.
- For A, B such that AB is square, $\mathrm{tr} AB = \mathrm{tr} BA$.
- For A, B, C such that ABC is square, $\mathrm{tr} ABC = \mathrm{tr} BCA = \mathrm{tr} CAB$, and so on for the product of more matrices.

Norms

A ***norm*** of a vector $\|x\|$ is informally a measure of the "length" of the vector.

More formally, a norm is any function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies 4 properties:

1. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) \geq 0$ (non-negativity).
2. $f(x) = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$ (definiteness).
3. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(tx) = |t| f(x)$ (homogeneity).
4. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x + y) \leq f(x) + f(y)$ (triangle inequality).

Examples of Norms

The commonly-used Euclidean or ℓ_2 norm,

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2}.$$

The ℓ_1 norm,

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|$$

The ℓ_∞ norm,

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|.$$

In fact, all three norms presented so far are examples of the family of ℓ_p norms, which are parameterized by a real number $p \geq 1$, and defined as

$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}.$$

Matrix Norms

Norms can also be defined for matrices, such as the Frobenius norm,

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\mathrm{tr}(A^T A)}.$$

Many other norms exist, but they are beyond the scope of this review.

Linear Independence

A set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is said to be ***(linearly) dependent*** if one vector belonging to the set *can* be represented as a linear combination of the remaining vectors; that is, if

$$x_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i x_i$$

for some scalar values $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$; otherwise, the vectors are ***(linearly) independent***.

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Example:

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are linearly dependent because $x_3 = -2x_1 + x_2$.

Rank of a Matrix

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- The ***row rank*** is the largest number of rows of A that constitute a linearly independent set.
- For any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, it turns out that the column rank of A is equal to the row rank of A (prove it yourself!), and so both quantities are referred to collectively as the ***rank*** of A, denoted as $\mathrm{rank}(A)$.

Properties of the Rank

- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathrm{rank}(A) \leq \min(m, n)$. If $\mathrm{rank}(A) = \min(m, n)$, then A is said to be ***full rank***.

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- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, $\mathrm{rank}(AB) \leq \min(\mathrm{rank}(A), \mathrm{rank}(B))$.

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- For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathrm{rank}(A + B) \leq \mathrm{rank}(A) + \mathrm{rank}(B)$.

The Inverse of a Square Matrix

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- Properties (Assuming $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are non-singular):
    - $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$
    - $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
    - $(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$. For this reason this matrix is often denoted A^{-T}.

Orthogonal Matrices

- Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are ***orthogonal*** if $x^T y = 0$.
- A vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is ***normalized*** if $\|x\|_2 = 1$.
- A square matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is ***orthogonal*** if all its columns are orthogonal to each other and are normalized (the columns are then referred to as being ***orthonormal***).

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- **Properties:**
  - The inverse of an orthogonal matrix is its transpose.

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  - Operating on a vector with an orthogonal matrix will not change its Euclidean norm, i.e.,

$$\|Ux\|_2 = \|x\|_2$$

    for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ orthogonal.

Span and Projection

- The ***span*** of a set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n\}$ is the set of all vectors that can be expressed as a linear combination of $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. That is,

$$\mathrm{span}(\{x_1, \ldots x_n\}) = \left\{ v : v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i, \;\; \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

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- The ***projection*** of a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ onto the span of $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is the vector $v \in \mathrm{span}(\{x_1, \dots x_n\})$, such that v is as close as possible to y, as measured by the Euclidean norm $\|v - y\|_2$.

$$\mathrm{Proj}(y; \{x_1, \dots x_n\}) = \mathrm{argmin}_{v \in \mathrm{span}(\{x_1, \dots, x_n\})} \|y - v\|_2.$$

Range

- The ***range*** or the columnspace of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, denoted $\mathcal{R}(A)$, is the the span of the columns of A. In other words,

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- Assuming A is full rank and $n < m$, the projection of a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ onto the range of A is given by,

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- When A contains only a single column, $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$, this gives the special case for a projection of a vector on to a line:

$$\mathrm{Proj}(y; a) = \frac{aa^T}{a^T a} y \quad .$$

Null space

The ***nullspace*** of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, denoted $\mathcal{N}(A)$ is the set of all vectors that equal 0 when multiplied by A, i.e.,

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It turns out that

$$\left\{w : w = u + v, u \in \mathcal{R}(A^T), v \in \mathcal{N}(A)\right\} = \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } \mathcal{R}(A^T) \cap \mathcal{N}(A) = \{\mathbf{0}\} \ .$$

In other words, $\mathcal{R}(A^T)$ and $\mathcal{N}(A)$ are disjoint subsets that together span the entire space of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Sets of this type are called ***orthogonal complements***, and we denote this $\mathcal{R}(A^T) = \mathcal{N}(A)^\perp$.

The Determinant

The ***determinant*** of a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$, is a function $\det : \mathbb{R}^{n\times n} \to \mathbb{R}$, and is denoted $|A|$ or $\det A$.
Given a matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} — & a_1^T & — \\ — & a_2^T & — \\ & \vdots & \\ — & a_n^T & — \end{bmatrix},$$

consider the set of points $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ as follows:

$$S = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i a_i \text{ where } 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1, i = 1, \ldots, n\}.$$

The absolute value of the determinant of A, it turns out, is a measure of the "volume" of the set S.

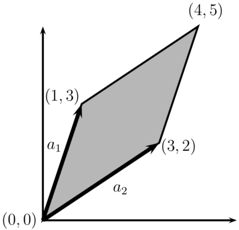
The Determinant: intuition

For example, consider the 2×2 matrix,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{3}$$

Here, the rows of the matrix are

$$a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$



The determinant

Algebraically, the determinant satisfies the following three properties:

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In case you are wondering, it is not immediately obvious that a function satisfying the above three properties exists. In fact, though, such a function does exist, and is unique (which we will not prove here).

The Determinant: Properties

- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $|A| = |A^T|$.
- For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $|AB| = |A||B|$.
- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $|A| = 0$ if and only if A is singular (i.e., non-invertible). (If A is singular then it does not have full rank, and hence its columns are linearly dependent. In this case, the set S corresponds to a "flat sheet" within the n-dimensional space and hence has zero volume.)
- For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and A non-singular, $|A^{-1}| = 1/|A|$.

The determinant: formula

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $A_{\setminus i, \setminus j} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1)\times(n-1)}$ be the *matrix* that results from deleting the ith row and jth column from A.
The general (recursive) formula for the determinant is

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} |A_{\setminus i, \setminus j}| \quad \text{(for any } j \in 1, \ldots, n) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} |A_{\setminus i, \setminus j}| \quad \text{(for any } i \in 1, \ldots, n) \end{aligned}$$

with the initial case that $|A| = a_{11}$ for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1}$. If we were to expand this formula completely for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there would be a total of $n!$ (n factorial) different terms. For this reason, we hardly ever explicitly write the complete equation of the determinant for matrices bigger than 3×3.

The determinant: examples

However, the equations for determinants of matrices up to size 3×3 are fairly common, and it is good to know them:

$$\begin{aligned}
\left|\left[a_{11}\right]\right| &= a_{11} \\
\left|\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}\right| &= a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21} \\
\left|\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}\right| &= \begin{array}{l} a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} \\ \quad -a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} \end{array}
\end{aligned}$$

Quadratic Forms

Given a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the scalar value $x^T A x$ is called a ***quadratic form***. Written explicitly, we see that

$$x^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i (Ax)_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j \quad .$$

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We often implicitly assume that the matrices appearing in a quadratic form are symmetric.

$$x^T Ax = (x^T Ax)^T = x^T A^T x = x^T \left(\frac{1}{2} A + \frac{1}{2} A^T \right) x,$$

Positive Semidefinite Matrices

A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$ is:

- ***positive definite*** (PD), denoted $A \succ 0$ if for all non-zero vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x > 0$.
- ***positive semidefinite*** (PSD), denoted $A \succeq 0$ if for all vectors $x^T A x \geq 0$.
- ***negative definite*** (ND), denoted $A \prec 0$ if for all non-zero $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x < 0$.
- ***negative semidefinite*** (NSD), denoted $A \preceq 0$) if for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x \leq 0$.
- ***indefinite***, if it is neither positive semidefinite nor negative semidefinite — i.e., if there exists $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $x_1^T A x_1 > 0$ and $x_2^T A x_2 < 0$.

Positive Semidefinite Matrices

- One important property of positive definite and negative definite matrices is that they are always full rank, and hence, invertible.

- Given any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ (not necessarily symmetric or even square), the matrix $G = A^T A$ (sometimes called a ***Gram matrix***) is always positive semidefinite. Further, if $m \geq n$ and A is full rank, then $G = A^T A$ is positive definite.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Given a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we say that $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an ***eigenvalue*** of A and $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is the corresponding ***eigenvector*** if

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad x \neq 0.$$

Intuitively, this definition means that multiplying A by the vector x results in a new vector that points in the same direction as x, but scaled by a factor λ.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

We can rewrite the equation above to state that (λ, x) is an eigenvalue-eigenvector pair of A if,

$$(\lambda I - A)x = 0, \quad x \neq 0.$$

But $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$ has a non-zero solution to x if and only if $(\lambda I - A)$ has a non-empty nullspace, which is only the case if $(\lambda I - A)$ is singular, i.e.,

$$|(\lambda I - A)| = 0.$$

We can now use the previous definition of the determinant to expand this expression $|(\lambda I - A)|$ into a (very large) polynomial in λ, where λ will have degree n. It's often called the characteristic polynomial of the matrix A.

Properties of eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- The trace of a A is equal to the sum of its eigenvalues,

$$\mathrm{tr} A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i .$$

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- Suppose A is non-singular with eigenvalue λ and an associated eigenvector x. Then $1/\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of A^{-1} with an associated eigenvector x, i.e., $A^{-1}x = (1/\lambda)x$.

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- The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix $D = \mathrm{diag}(d_1, \ldots d_n)$ are just the diagonal entries $d_1, \ldots d_n$.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of Symmetric Matrices

Throughout this section, let's assume that A is a symmetric real matrix (i.e., $A^\top = A$). We have the following properties:

1. All eigenvalues of A are real numbers. We denote them by $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$.

2. There exists a set of eigenvectors $u_1, \ldots, u_n$ such that (i) for all i, u_i is an eigenvector with eigenvalue λ_i and (ii) $u_1, \ldots, u_n$ are unit vectors and orthogonal to each other.

New Representation for Symmetric Matrices

- Let U be the orthonormal matrix that contains u_i's as columns:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

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- We can verify that

$$AU = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ Au_1 & Au_2 & \cdots & Au_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \lambda_1 u_1 & \lambda_2 u_2 & \cdots & \lambda_n u_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = U\mathrm{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) = U\Lambda$$

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- Recalling that orthonormal matrix U satisfies that $UU^T = I$, we can diagonalize matrix A:

$$A = AUU^T = U\Lambda U^T \tag{4}$$

Background: representing vector w.r.t. another basis.

- Any orthonormal matrix $U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$ defines a new basis of $\mathbb{R}^n$.

- For any vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be represented as a linear combination of $u_1, \ldots, u_n$ with coefficient $\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n$:

$$x = \hat{x}_1 u_1 + \cdots + \hat{x}_n u_n = U\hat{x}$$

- Indeed, such $\hat{x}$ uniquely exists

$$x = U\hat{x} \Leftrightarrow U^T x = \hat{x}$$

In other words, the vector $\hat{x} = U^T x$ can serve as another representation of the vector x w.r.t the basis defined by U.

"Diagonalizing" matrix-vector multiplication.

- Left-multiplying matrix A can be viewed as left-multiplying a diagonal matrix w.r.t the basic of the eigenvectors.
  - Suppose x is a vector and $\hat{x}$ is its representation w.r.t to the basis of U.
  - Let $z = Ax$ be the matrix-vector product.
  - the representation z w.r.t the basis of U:

$$\hat{z} = U^T z = U^T A x = U^T U \Lambda U^T x = \Lambda \hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \hat{x}_1 \\ \lambda_2 \hat{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \hat{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- We see that left-multiplying matrix A in the original space is equivalent to left-multiplying the diagonal matrix Λ w.r.t the new basis, which is merely scaling each coordinate by the corresponding eigenvalue.

"Diagonalizing" matrix-vector multiplication.

Under the new basis, multiplying a matrix multiple times becomes much simpler as well. For example, suppose $q = AAAx$.

$$\hat{q} = U^T q = U^T A x = U^T U \Lambda U^T U \Lambda U^T U \Lambda U^T x = \Lambda^3 \hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^3 \hat{x}_1 \\ \lambda_2^3 \hat{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n^3 \hat{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

“Diagonalizing” quadratic form.

As a directly corollary, the quadratic form $x^T Ax$ can also be simplified under the new basis

$$x^T Ax = x^T U\Lambda U^T x = \hat{x}\Lambda\hat{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2$$

(Recall that with the old representation, $x^T Ax = \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{n} x_i x_j A_{ij}$ involves a sum of n^2 terms instead of n terms in the equation above.)

The definiteness of the matrix A depends entirely on the sign of its eigenvalues

1. If all $\lambda_i > 0$, then the matrix A s positivedefinite because $x^T Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 > 0$ for any $\hat{x} \neq 0$.[1]
2. If all $\lambda_i \geq 0$, it is positive semidefinite because $x^T Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 \geq 0$ for all $\hat{x}$.
3. Likewise, if all $\lambda_i < 0$ or $\lambda_i \leq 0$, then A is negative definite or negative semidefinite respectively.

[1] Note that $\hat{x} \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow x \neq 0$.

"Diagonalizing" application

- For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$, consider the following maximization problem,

$$\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \; x^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 \quad \text{subject to } \|x\|_2^2 = 1$$

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- Assuming the eigenvalues are ordered as $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_n$, the optimal value of this optimization problem is λ_1 and any eigenvector u_1 corresponding to λ_1 is one of the maximizers.

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- We can show this by using the diagonalization technique: Note that $\|x\|_2 = \|\hat{x}\|_2$.

$$\max_{\hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \; \hat{x}^T \Lambda \hat{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 \quad \text{subject to } \|\hat{x}\|_2^2 = 1$$

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$$\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \; x^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 \quad \text{subject to } \|x\|_2^2 = 1$$

- Then, we have that the objective is upper bounded by λ_1:

$$\hat{x}^T \Lambda \hat{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \hat{x}_i^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_1 \hat{x}_i^2 = \lambda_1$$

Moreover, setting $\hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ achieves the equality in the equation above, and this corresponds to setting $x = u_1$.

Matrix Calculus

The Gradient

Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^{m\times n} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function that takes as input a matrix A of size $m \times n$ and returns a real value. Then the ***gradient*** of f (with respect to $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$) is the matrix of partial derivatives, defined as:

$$\nabla_A f(A) \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{11}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{1n}} \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{21}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{22}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{2n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{m1}} & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{m2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{mn}} \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e., an $m \times n$ matrix with

$$(\nabla_A f(A))_{ij} = \frac{\partial f(A)}{\partial A_{ij}}.$$

The Gradient

Note that the size of $\nabla_A f(A)$ is always the same as the size of A. So if, in particular, A is just a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\nabla_x f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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It follows directly from the equivalent properties of partial derivatives that:

- $\nabla_x (f(x) + g(x)) = \nabla_x f(x) + \nabla_x g(x)$.
- For $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $\nabla_x (t\, f(x)) = t \nabla_x f(x)$.

The Hessian

Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function that takes a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and returns a real number. Then the ***Hessian*** matrix with respect to x, written $\nabla_x^2 f(x)$ or simply as H is the $n \times n$ matrix of partial derivatives,

$$\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In other words, $\nabla_x^2 f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$, with

$$(\nabla_x^2 f(x))_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}.$$

Note that the Hessian is always symmetric, since

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}.$$

Gradients of Linear Functions

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f(x) = b^T x$ for some known vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i$$

so

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i = b_k.$$

From this we can easily see that $\nabla_x b^T x = b$. This should be compared to the analogous situation in single variable calculus, where $\partial/(\partial x)\; ax = a$.

Gradients of Quadratic Function

Now consider the quadratic function $f(x) = x^T A x$ for $A \in \mathbb{S}^n$. Remember that

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

To take the partial derivative, we'll consider the terms including x_k and x_k^2 factors separately:

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} \quad = \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j$$

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To take the partial derivative, we'll consider the terms including x_k and x_k^2 factors separately:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j \neq k} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_k x_j + A_{kk} x_k^2 \right]
\end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[\sum_{i \neq k} \sum_{j \neq k} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_k x_j + A_{kk} x_k^2 \right] \\
&= \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_j + 2 A_{kk} x_k
\end{aligned}$$

Gradients of Quadratic Function

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&= \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_j + 2 A_{kk} x_k \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{kj} x_j = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ki} x_i,
\end{aligned}$$

Hessian of Quadratic Functions

Finally, let's look at the Hessian of the quadratic function $f(x) = x^T Ax$
In this case,

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k}\left[\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_\ell}\right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k}\left[2\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{\ell i} x_i\right] = 2A_{\ell k} = 2A_{k\ell}.$$

Therefore, it should be clear that $\nabla_x^2 x^T Ax = 2A$, which should be entirely expected (and again analogous to the single-variable fact that $\partial^2/(\partial x^2)\, ax^2 = 2a$).

Recap

- $\nabla_x b^T x = b$
- $\nabla_x^2 b^T x = 0$
- $\nabla_x x^T A x = 2Ax$ (if A symmetric)
- $\nabla_x^2 x^T A x = 2A$ (if A symmetric)

Matrix Calculus Example: Least Squares

- Given a full rank matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, and a vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $b \notin \mathcal{R}(A)$, we want to find a vector x such that Ax is as close as possible to b, as measured by the square of the Euclidean norm $\|Ax - b\|_2^2$.

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- Using the fact that $\|x\|_2^2 = x^T x$, we have

$$\|Ax - b\|_2^2 = (Ax - b)^T (Ax - b) = x^T A^T A x - 2b^T Ax + b^T b$$

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- Taking the gradient with respect to x we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla_x(x^T A^T Ax - 2b^T Ax + b^T b) &= \nabla_x x^T A^T Ax - \nabla_x 2b^T Ax + \nabla_x b^T b \\
&= 2A^T Ax - 2A^T b
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- Taking the gradient with respect to x we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_x (x^T A^T A x - 2b^T A x + b^T b) &= \nabla_x x^T A^T A x - \nabla_x 2b^T A x + \nabla_x b^T b \\ &= 2A^T A x - 2A^T b \end{aligned}$$

- Setting this last expression equal to zero and solving for x gives the normal equations

$$x = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$$