

Norms: $v \mapsto \|v\|$ generalizes the absolute value

$$\bullet) \|v\| \geq 0 \quad \|v\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow v = 0$$

$$\bullet) \|v\alpha\| = \|v\| \cdot |\alpha|$$

$$\bullet) \|v+w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$$

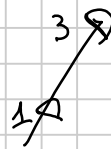
$$\|v\|_1 = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \right\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + \dots + |v_n|$$

$$\|v\|_\infty = \max_{i=1 \dots n} |v_i|$$

$$\|v\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2} = (v^T v)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\langle v, v \rangle)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Trivial but useful:

$$v = u \cdot \alpha$$



$$\left(\text{with } u = \frac{v}{\|v\|} \quad \alpha = \|v\| \right)$$

Def: a matrix U is called orthogonal if it is square and

$$\bullet) U^T U = I$$

$$\bullet) U U^T = I$$

$$\bullet) U^{-1} = U^T$$

(equivalent properties)

Property: $\|Ux\| = \|x\|$ (2-norm)

$$\|x\|^2 = x^T x$$

$$\|Ux\|^2 = (Ux)^T (Ux) = x^T \underbrace{(U^T U)}_I x = x^T x$$

$$x^T y = (Ux)^T (Uy)$$

Geometrically: rotations, symmetries.

Property:

• $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ for all A, B

• $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$ A, B square

"shoe-sock property"

Theorem: if U, V orthogonal, UV is orthogonal, too.

$$(UV)^{-1} = V^{-1} U^{-1} = V^T U^T = (UV)^T.$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \quad U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \text{ orthogonal}$$

Property: $u_i^T u_j = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$ so the u_i 's are orthonormal

$$U^T U = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{u_1^T}{\hline} \\ \frac{u_2^T}{\hline} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{u_m^T}{\hline} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

People call orthogonal a set of vectors that satisfies

$$u_i^T u_j = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq j$$

Sometimes, we will work with matrices that are rectangular but with orthonormal columns

$$U_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad m > n$$

$$U_0 = [u_1 | u_2 | \dots | u_n]$$

$$u_i^T u_j = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$$

Given any such matrix, I can always complete it to an orthonormal matrix

For all $U_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with this property, we can find $U_c \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (m-n)}$ s.t. $U = [U_0 \ U_c] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is orthogonal. (square)

$$U_0^T U_0 \stackrel{?}{=} I$$

True!

$$U_0 U_0^T \stackrel{?}{=} I$$

False!

I

$$I = U^T U = \begin{bmatrix} U_0^T \\ U_c^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_0 \\ U_c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_0^T U_0 & U_0^T U_c \\ U_c^T U_0 & U_c^T U_c \end{bmatrix}$$

$U_0 U_0^T \neq I$ always if $m > n$, because $U_0 U_0^T$ has rank n and I has rank m

Is it true that $\|U_0 x\| = \|x\|$ holds for all x ?

$\|U_0^T x\| = \|x\|$ for all x ?

Eigenvalues, eigenvectors $v \neq 0$ λ

Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, if $Av = v\lambda$ for $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$
 $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

then v is called eigenvector, λ eigenvalue

For many matrices, one can write

$$A = V \cdot \Lambda \cdot V^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{w_1^T}{w_1} \\ \frac{w_2^T}{w_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{w_m^T}{w_m} \end{bmatrix}$$

with $A \cdot v_i = v_i \lambda_i$ $i=1, 2, \dots, m$

$$[V, D] = \text{eig}(A) \quad \text{costs } O(m^3)$$

Eigenvectors/values can be used to describe applying the same matrix to a vector many times

$$A \dots (A(Ax)) = A^k x = (VDV^{-1})(VDV^{-1}) \dots (VDV^{-1})x$$

$$= V \cdot \underbrace{D \cdot D \cdot \dots \cdot D}_{k \text{ times}} \cdot V^{-1} x = V \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2^k & \\ & & \ddots \\ 0 & & & \lambda_m^k \end{bmatrix} V^{-1} x.$$

(page rank is related)

Slight generalization: given a polynomial $p(t)$

$$p(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + \dots + c_d t^d \quad (c_i: \text{real numbers})$$

$$p(A) = c_0 I + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots + c_d A^d$$

If $A = V \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$, then $p(A) = V \begin{bmatrix} p(\lambda_1) & & \\ & p(\lambda_2) & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & p(\lambda_m) \end{bmatrix} V^{-1}$.

Eigenvalues always well-defined.

Eigenvectors are non-unique: $Av = v\lambda$

$\Rightarrow v\alpha$ is also an eigenvector for each $\alpha \neq 0$

If repeated eigenvalues: $Av_1 = v_1\lambda_1$, $Av_2 = v_2\lambda_2$

$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, then $v_1\alpha + v_2\beta$ is also a λ -eigenvector.

Extreme case: $I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = V \cdot I \cdot V^{-1}$

Also, eigenvectors can fail to exist in enough number to form a basis

Ex: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \lambda$

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Spectral theorem: if A is a symmetric matrix

(i.e., $A = A^T$), then we can always find U ,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix} \text{ s.t. } A = U \Lambda U^{-1}$$

Moreover, the λ_i are always real, and U can be taken orthogonal.

Quadratic forms: given a symmetric matrix $Q = Q^T$

$Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, let us consider the function

$$x \mapsto x^T Q x$$

$1 \times m$ $m \times m$ $m \times 1$

$$\mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & \dots & Q_{13} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \dots & \dots & Q_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x^T Q x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} & Q_{13} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Q_{31} & \dots & Q_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$Q_{11}x_1^2 + \underbrace{Q_{12}x_1x_2 + Q_{21}x_2x_1}_{\text{cross terms}} + Q_{13}x_1x_3 + \dots$$

One can always write an expression that is quadratic in the entries of x in this form.

E.g.

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3/2 \\ 3/2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem:

Let Q be a symmetric matrix, with minimum eigenvalue λ_{\min} , maximum λ_{\max} , then, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$

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

equivalently: $\lambda_{\min} \leq u^T Q u \leq \lambda_{\max}$ for any u with $\|u\|=1$

Proof: Simpler case: $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix}$

$$x^T Q x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 \\ \lambda_2 x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_m x_m \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_2 x_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_m x_m^2$$

$$\geq \lambda_{\min} (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_m^2) = \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2$$

$$\leq \lambda_{\max} (x_1^2 + \dots + x_m^2) = \lambda_{\max} \|x\|^2$$

General case: Write $Q = U \cdot \Lambda \cdot U^T$

Define $c = U^T x \Leftrightarrow x = U c$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix} = u_1 c_1 + u_2 c_2 + \dots + u_m c_m$$

c_m are coordinates of x in the basis of the eigenvectors of Q

$$x^T Q x = (U c)^T U \Lambda U^T (U c) = c^T (U^T U) \Lambda (U^T U) c$$

$$= c^T \Lambda c = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & \dots & c_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \leq \lambda_{\max} \|c\|^2 \\ \geq \lambda_{\min} \|c\|^2 \end{cases}$$

$x = Uc \Rightarrow \|x\| = \|c\|$ because U is orthogonal

If all the eigenvalues λ_i are ≥ 0 , then

$$x^T Q x \geq 0$$

If this happens, we say Q is positive semidefinite

$$Q \succeq 0$$

If all eigenvalues are $\lambda_i > 0$, then

$$x^T Q x \geq \lambda_{\min} \|x\|^2 > 0 \quad \text{if } x \neq 0$$

If this happens, we say Q is positive definite

$$Q \succ 0$$

Theorem: for every $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

AA^T and $A^T A$ are square, symmetric, positive semidefinite.

Proof: let's do $A^T A$ (the other case is analogous)

◦ $A^T A$

$$n \times m \quad m \times n \rightarrow n \times n$$

◦ $(A^T A)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A$

◦ $x^T A^T A x = (Ax)^T Ax = \|Ax\|^2 \geq 0$

